

WHAT FACTORS AFFECT CHEATING IN SECONDARY SCHOOL AND WHY?

by

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This thesis is dedicated to the memory of

Win and Bob Masters

(Nanna and Grandad)



PENELOPE KATHRYN ARMSTEAD

WHAT FACTORS AFFECT CHEATING IN SECONDARY SCHOOL AND WHY?

Cheating in British secondary schools has not been previously researched. The aim of this thesis was to ascertain what factors affect cheating in secondary school and why? Initially, four questions were posed: 'what is cheating?', 'when is it wrong to cheat?', 'what role do parents play' and 'what are teacher perceptions of cheating compared with those of students?'. These questions were addressed by studying the perspectives of students, parents and teachers using a mixture of quantitative and qualitative methodologies, involving nearly 1000 respondents in six studies.

Two models were developed. The first, a four dimensional model, explained what students thought cheating was. Cheating was perceived to be comprised of the following interrelated dimensions: non-academic and academic behaviours, a temporal component, assessment events and degrees of severity.

The second, a decision model, indicated under what circumstances cheating might be right or wrong. Cheating was wrong for respondents who perceived only negative academic associations, whilst it could be right for others, when motives for cheating were perceived to be honourable. Respondents reported the extent to which they were like students in scenarios who were portrayed to have cheated in a variety of ways.

Data from parents and teachers were used to test and amplify these models. Students and teachers held similar perceptions regarding cheating frequency, but not severity. Parents held perceptions of cheating that were more extreme than those of students and teachers.

The findings of these studies have major implications for those involved in the wider educational environments of the home, school and society. Recommendations are made regarding current educational testing policies, the promotion of learning and the reduction of cheating.

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Author's Declaration

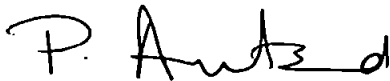
During the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, the author was registered for and obtained a Postgraduate Diploma in Psychological Research Methods.

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The author was a committee member for the Education Section of the BPS from 1998-2000.

Signed:



Date:

23. 11. 01

1

"The Molesworth-Pearson roving eye hav one serious defeckt."

Willians and Searle (1958)



Overview

1.1 The problem

In 1994 when the research for this thesis began, it was evident from the available literature that the prevalent investigative paradigm for the study of student cheating was the use of the questionnaire (observational method) and quasi-experiment (e.g., Ellenburg, 1973; Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clark, 1986; Malcolm and Ng, 1990). There were no examples that the author could find of research where qualitative methodologies had been employed. Research findings were presented as lists of behaviours that were deemed to be cheating by various participant sectors within education (e.g., Platt-Jendrek, 1989, 1992). Individual differences were extensively reported (e.g., McGregor, Everleigh, Syler and Davis, 1991). Where theoretical considerations were included (which was less often than might have been expected), researchers had borrowed well established social-psychological theory to underpin the perceived causes of student cheating (e.g., Beck and Azjen, 1991; Eisenberger and Masterson, 1983; Michaels and Miethe, 1989).

The term 'paradigm' has been used here in the loosest sense of the word. 'Paradigm' is used in this chapter to refer to the methodologies that groups of researchers have employed in the study of cheating. Technically the word 'school' should be used and not the word 'paradigm' because there is currently more than one research methodology being used in the study of student cheating. It is acknowledged that if there is more than one research method the word paradigm is inappropriate and references to schools of methodologies should be made. Indeed, there are those who argue that psychology is in a pre-paradigmatic state because of the existence of schools within psychology that share internal commonalities, that compete with and criticise one another (Staats, 1983). This state mirrors well the current state of cheating research. The word 'school'

has not been used in this thesis because it does not adequately articulate the notion that methodological changes have and are taking place in the study of cheating and because to use the word school when discussing cheating in schools would become rather confusing.

At the beginning of the current research project, the paradigm was more likely to be a questionnaire or a survey, than a quasi-experiment. The questionnaire typically incorporated a cheating scenario that acted as an independent variable to which participants responded (e.g., McClaughlin and Ross, 1989). The survey was used to elicit attitudes towards the seriousness and prevalence of cheating (e.g., Barnett and Dalton, 1981; Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor, 1992).

The rigour with which the questionnaire method had been employed varied considerably. A few researchers developed questionnaires using well-established psychometric techniques (e.g., Gardner and Melvin, 1988; Roberts and Toombs, 1993). Far more frequently the less rigorous item generation technique of 'let's write what we think' was employed. Methodological considerations may have played a major part, but the repeated failure of researchers to refer to development issues in research articles suggested poor research design rather than poor research writing.

Researchers however, had used the literature as a basis for assumptions about the simpler aspects of cheating, such as, what is student cheating? In addition, personal experience would also have informed the development of measurement tools, as well as the occasional pilot study, vaguely referred to in one or two papers (Evans and Craig, 1990; Whitley and Kost, 1999). The process of relying on what had gone before (the literature) to inform where the research should go was a robust research design technique. However, it was just one technique of many, of which more than one should have been applied. If there were gaps in or problems with what went before, then what was to come should have had the aim of resolving those problems or filling those gaps. Student cheating research in general in the past 20 years has not done this. Despite evident gaps, it appeared that the insubstantial, a-theoretical or limited findings regarding cheating in the literature were accepted as a solid foundation on which to build new studies for researching into the more complicated aspects of student cheating. This should not have been so.

Poorly designed questionnaires formed the basis of much recent research that claimed to take the field of student cheating forward towards the level of a theory. The effect of this methodological laziness was low internal validity and poor ecological reliability, to name but two flaws. These flaws impacted on the *outcome* of the research, the findings. However, there was a second even more important factor that impacted right at the *beginning* of the research design

process. This factor worked at the level of the hypothetical construct and was effected by the lack of a robust operational definition. It was at this level where the biggest shortcomings in the field of cheating were to be found: Just what exactly is cheating?

Firstly, there was no agreed definition of cheating to act as a solid foundation for cheating research. If it could be demonstrated that robust designs had been used in researching cheating, the absence of an agreed definition of cheating could probably have been overcome.

Secondly the literature was non-British, mostly American and mostly based in tertiary education. This latter issue was not a fault with the research as such, rather an opportunity awaiting investigation.

Positivist paradigms have been generally allied to applicable principles and nomothetic capture-all theories. No one psychological theory (to date), that was testable has been able to explain everything about a psychological phenomenon. In some cases, this was despite having the research area of interest built on very solid foundations. A detailed definition of cheating, for example, was therefore perhaps not an essential pre-requisite when investigating complex aspects of cheating, *as long* as a range of robust research techniques had been employed.

So, perfect operational definitions therefore are not requisites for 'good' research. With regard to cheating however, there needed to be the recognition that at the very least a more detailed definition of student cheating was and is required. It was not at all evident from the literature that the problem of defining cheating had been adequately researched. The best that the literature had to offer were consensus data. Consensus data reflected who agreed with whom about what constituted student cheating. These studies in particular were built on very weak foundations because it was the researchers who decided what student cheating was in the first instance. Such researchers requested students to answer questions developed from the researchers' own definitions of student cheating.

Why people cheat was and is an interesting question – perhaps a 'sexy' question (to use tabloid newspaper terminology). It was therefore understandable that researching the constituents of *what* cheating is had been largely bypassed.

Researchers of cheating publishing in the 1980's and 1990's reached consensus on one topic – that there was little or no consensus to be had about the who, what, when, where and why of student cheating. Lists of behaviours that constituted cheating; findings of individual differences and social psychological theory presented by researchers cancelled each other out. They

amounted to the mathematical equivalent of the sum of the difference scores, i.e. zero, thus no consensus.

Perhaps therefore, the foundations of the research *did* merit a re-examination. If the basic building blocks could be stabilised then more complicated cheating research would begin to demonstrate consensus. Sometimes it is harder to operationally define the simplest, most fundamental aspects of a psychological construct (the foundations), than to skip them and go ahead with 'higher level' research using rules of thumb as was the case with student cheating research in the 1980's and 1990's.

It may seem that the above criticisms are over harsh and there were always exceptions to the rule as this thesis will show. There were examples of research that tried to build on good foundations, reach a consensus or fill in the gaps of those cheating foundations. There was also the argument that where individual differences were concerned, individual differences meant just that – everyone is different, so why should there be a consensus? However, this argument lay in the future of the research for this thesis and in the realm of a different research paradigm.

This thesis was a re-examination of the building blocks. There were the dual aims of testing the assumptions that went before and filling in some of the gaps; to re-introduce clarity into the first steps of the research process. Bold claims. If others have not been able to achieve clarity, from where does the recipe for success originate?

The researcher was in a unique position. As there were no previous research findings regarding cheating for British secondary school students, there were fewer pressures to develop a higher level 'theory-of-everything'. Instead the British secondary school population could be treated as a fresh (un)researched area, a *tabula rasa*.

A basic assumption that exists for all research is that there may be cross-cultural differences. The majority of cheating research was American. If cross-cultural differences have been found to exist between the US and UK regarding other aspects of educational and developmental psychology then differences may also have existed regarding cheating. To try and use American building blocks for British research would have meant a new reading of 'interpret findings with caution'!

1.2 Why has it been so hard to define cheating?

Spend a few moments considering this question by defining for yourself the word 'cheating'. In Britain cheating refers to more than just the behaviours that are associated with, for

example, cheating on a test. Cheating is used to delineate a range of inter-personal, a-moral and unlawful behaviours involving some aspect of dishonesty. For example, a person can cheat on a partner in a relationship (professional or personal). A person can cheat at a game of cards or on the sports field. A person can cheat on the stock market and gain financially. A person can cheat on a test or an exam.

It should be clear, therefore, that some way of narrowing the definition of cheating to encompass just that which affects education, is necessary. Researchers in the United States achieved this by using the term 'Academic Dishonesty' to refer to cheating that takes place only in the context of education.

Essentially the definition related to some form of dishonesty when one or more of a range of acts were perpetrated by student cheaters. For example, a cheater could copy material, steal information, impersonate an examination candidate, and so on. Definitions of academic dishonesty usually originated from dictionary definitions (e.g., Cizek, 1999), and whilst therefore fairly uniform, they were rather vague in their applications. For example, 'to defraud' and 'to gain unfair advantage' are well understood but how do they relate to actual student cheating?

Again, spend a few moments thinking about a definition of cheating. This time draw up a list of cheating behaviours. The chances are that the list contains some of the following behaviours: copying work from a friend, copying coursework, copying during an exam or test, copying from a text book when not allowed, copying homework and so on. All of the above behaviours referred to some form of copying. A single behaviour with many permutations. The permutations refer to situations and people. The definition of academic dishonesty that we began with has become a little more complicated.

Next consider *why* cheating might occur. A good definition should include more than one parameter. So far, the parameters included have been 'when and 'how'. But why might cheating occur? When someone feels pressurised to succeed, afraid of failure, short of time, lazy, disaffected with education?

Already the definition of academic dishonesty has become something very large and complex. Not simple. Include in the definition some reference to the degree of dishonesty in relation to the list of possible 'whys'. For example, are all the 'whys' equally dishonest? Indeed, are they dishonest at all?

Finally, look at cheating in the wider educational environment. An educational environment is made up of more than just tests and exams (or coursework and homework). It is made up of

people and the interactions that those people have. The interactions that the people have are governed by rules. Those rules may have been drawn up by the school board and may include rules that are in fact laws (e.g., stealing property) or rules that are social mores, (e.g. no chewing gum in class). It is difficult to isolate the rules pertaining to cheating in the classroom from the rules pertaining to general school behaviour in the classroom. Difficult examples are 'lying' or 'cheating friends'. Both examples relate to dishonesty. Both have educational implications for dishonesty in school. 'Lying' can be related to academic dishonesty. 'Cheating friends' uses the word 'cheating', so is it in some way related to academic dishonesty? 'Lying' can be a general classroom behaviour that the general school rules incorporate. 'Cheating friends' probably is not in any written rules within the school, but is recognised as a rule infringement by students (see Chapter 3). This latter perspective on cheating takes into account the unwritten codes of conduct students devise themselves and is yet another factor to be taken into account when defining cheating in education.

Academic dishonesty as defined by American researchers has been used over the last 20 years without reference to the wider educational environment. Occasionally lying has been included (e.g., Keith-Speigal, Tabachnick and Allen, 1993). Researchers of the past 20 years have also tended to design studies that have broken apart the definition of academic dishonesty. A single-issue perspective of cheating has been taken. One cheating behaviour was studied in one situation in an effort to understand why cheating occurred. This selection process moved the focus of research away from academic dishonesty as a unified and multi-dimensional phenomenon within education to an abstract psychological phenomenon. It made piecing the findings together into something applicable, generalisable and unified rather difficult.

In the literature between the 1920's and 1980's the wider educational environment was referred to more frequently by researchers. Researchers of this era also discussed the importance of situational aspects of cheating more frequently (the 'how and when' of the definition of academic dishonesty). However, many of the findings of these researchers have been 'forgotten'.

There is a very real methodological problem that arises when authors selectively cite material from one paper to include as evidence in another. Selective citation is a skill that is required in order to become an effective research paper writer. This selection process has the effect of biasing the literature and boosting what would otherwise be spurious offshoots of one researcher and diminishing potentially important and robust findings of another. The literature can become skewed without the subscribers realising. Findings can become forgotten.

This in effect is what has happened to the findings of cheating researchers. The memories of the gaps in the literature were selectively forgotten and firm foundations assumed. Researchers used the principle of generalisation a little too freely. The findings of a single incident (single behaviour) in relation to the when, how and why of cheating, were used to support further research into a different type of cheating behaviour in a different context. Each time, the findings from one paper were selectively cited to support the proposed research design for the next. This bias led to the situation that cheating researchers find themselves in today. There is a lack of consensus about what it is that is known about cheating.

This state of affairs can be traced back to the mini-paradigm shift that took place from experimental designs to observational studies (questionnaires and surveys). Pre-1980, it was more likely than not that research papers about an *intervention* regarding cheating were published rather than straightforward surveys of cheating. For example, Hartshorne and May (1928) carried out a great number of 'studies in deceit'. Many of these studies were grounded in the wider educational context in which the unwitting participants found themselves, i.e., the school. Explanations for cheating behaviours were given that related to educational processes as a whole. Slightly later cheating researchers relied on explanations that were reduced to a single aspect of the cheater's lifestyle, such as morality. It was typical of this kind of pre-1980 researcher that the research design was, like much of the later survey style research, single issue. For example, Hetherington and Feldman (1964) directly investigated a single type of cheating using an *applied* methodology. Entrapment.

Looking back at these studies, entrapment as a research technique, whilst ecologically valid, was perhaps unethical. This may have been why entrapment was phased out in favour of observation studies using scenario descriptions of cheating incidents. In addition, entrapment limited the researchers in the range of cheating behaviours that could be studied. Observational studies 'stepped in' and measured *many* cheating behaviours using questionnaires developed from the earlier *single* issue research. However, enter selective citation.

A clever twist on the use of the observational method was to use statistical procedures to enhance the reliability and validity of the survey or questionnaire. The use of the randomised response technique by researchers such as Nelson and Schaeffer (1986) was an attempt to overcome the inevitable social desirability issues that accompanied self-report data. Respondents used the toss of a coin to decide which questions to respond to truthfully.

The randomised response technique did not flourish as an alternative to the entrapment technique because it too was limited in its applications. The survey and questionnaire however was considered a fairly robust way of replicating the entrapment studies more ethically. It was also considerably better than the entrapment studies at capturing respondents' perceptions of a wider range of cheating issues. However, few researchers used observational studies to good effect in this way.

Another reason why earlier educationally grounded research methods may have been passed over in favour of observational studies was that the educational *situation* was so hard to factor into general models of cheating. The questionnaire may have been a simple and effective way of dealing with the impact of the situation on cheating behaviour.

The paradigm shift towards the questionnaire could have been very effective at filling the gaps left by the intervention studies had it not been for two factors. Firstly, there was the lack of good early studies ascertaining what cheating was from the perspective of a cheater and combined with selective citation, the impact on observational studies was not positive. Secondly, the observational studies were so descriptive that any explanations were devoid of a theoretical basis or if there was a theoretical basis it was removed from the processes of education.

1.3 Towards a solution: rationale and outline of the thesis

It became clear that observational studies in the format presented here were of little benefit to the study of cheating. A second paradigm shift was required. Paradigm shifts occur gradually and it is often difficult to point a finger and state that categorically that it was *that* researcher or *this* paper that was the fulcrum for the shift. However, a second paradigm shift does indeed appear to be underway. Paradigm shift, when used here, is used optimistically. The 'true' paradigm shift is part of the process of unifying a science. It is hoped that a change in the methodology here can achieve a consensus regarding cheating.

To do this a new approach to the study of cheating needed to be employed, one that looked at student cheating from multiple perspectives using multiple methodologies. Triangulation is the term given to such research practices. According to McFee (1992) triangulation afforded the researcher the possibility of reducing unsubstantiated findings. Not all forms of triangulation were argued to bring about results in which researchers could have confidence. Triangulation between methods has been criticised for the assumption that the methods chosen had fixed points (firm foundations) to begin with and that all methods addressed the same single issue. This is

particularly true of cheating research where comparisons have been made between experimental studies and surveys that have been used to investigate a single form of cheating. Situational determinants of cheating have meant that participants and respondents have brought their own interpretation of cheating to the particular research tasks and made comparisons difficult. However, the benefit of triangulation between methods is that the external validity of the construct in question can be tested.

Triangulation within a method, according to Jick (1979) is a method of ascertaining the internal consistency of a construct. For example, obtaining two or more perspectives for a single entity by using teachers and pupils to investigate 'what is cheating?'. Within method triangulation does not have the fixed point problems of between method triangulation. There is only one issue being studied from different epistemological view points (instead of several potential issues being studied across methods), (McFee, 1992).

Another possible solution to the problem previously identified, is of course to speak directly to the 'objects' of investigation, in this case secondary school students. Adolescents have often been overlooked as worthy of study other than as children to be fitted into stage models that adults have developed. Blitzer (1991) argued that children's (adolescents') world views should be directly studied, if the aim is to understand their world:

"The prevailing tendency in the social sciences is to look at children 'from the outside' making them the objects of study while failing to incorporate into theory children's own views of society. As with studies of women before their concerns became issues for public debate, it is assumed that children do not have legitimate perceptions or world views independent from those of adults. In the social sciences therefore, children have traditionally been objects rather than subjects of study'. (p12)

A more detailed discussion of the types and efficacy of research tools and techniques that have been used to measure student cheating is presented in Chapter 2. The types of research design employed over the years are discussed, as are prevalence statistics for cheating in general and cheating on individual behaviours. Other areas in the field of cheating research that require further investigation are also highlighted in order that the subsequent chapters can be more fully understood. Chapter 2 is also therefore, an overview of cheating in relation to secondary and higher education, individual differences (e.g., gender) and correlates of cheating (e.g., academic orientation).

There have been two components to the paradigm shift that have been identified in the research field of cheating. Firstly there has been a move back (in time) to explanations of cheating involving the educational process. Researchers such as Murdock (1999) have grounded their

cheating research in education with the explicit purpose of viewing cheating as part of the wider processes that form students' education. For example, Murdock argued that for a student to achieve in school, the role of factors such as achievement motivation, work avoidance and cheating need to be studied together. Murdock did not study cheating in isolation, devoid of links with other aspects of the classroom. The purpose of studying cheating has become a positive one. Until recently the study of cheating has been concerned with how cheating reflects negatively on education. For Murdock and others, the concept that cheating may serve a useful function for some students in helping them cope with education is accepted as a legitimate perspective (that of the student). Indeed, the line between cheating and not cheating is grey perhaps because the educational ethos has moved from memory-based assessments (exams) to comprehension-based assessments (coursework). The classroom is seen as a place where students should not feel the need to cheat to achieve. This is contrasted with the previously negative stance where cheating was seen as a problem to be eradicated whatever the cost. This difference in attitude towards cheating was very subtle, but if looked for, could be found.

The second shift in the paradigm relates to the first. The student has recently become the centre of renewed attention with regard to design issues. This may appear to be at odds with cheating research but it is not. Who designs cheating studies? Students or staff? At whom are the cheating studies aimed? Students or staff? From whom do the data originate? Students or staff? The answer to the first question is of course *staff*. The latter two questions for the purpose of this thesis have the answer of *the students*. If the research studies are for use with students then it makes sense for the students to be involved in the design stage. Many of the 1980's and 1990's observational studies were designed by staff members. Cheating, as will be shown over the course of this thesis is a dynamic evolving abstract concept. It has a unique understanding for each person. It changes as new technologies develop. Mobile phone cheating and Internet cheating were considered frivolous newspaper copy in 1994 when this research was instigated. Today, Internet cheating sites are a valuable source for references! Staff members cannot hope to maintain their 'student-days' perceptions of cheating without becoming tainted by the knowledge and opinions that come with being a teacher.

Research has recently entered the literature that goes back to basics (e.g., Ashworth, 1999). 'Back to basics' was a political slogan in 1994 that was ridiculed and grossly over-played by the media. 'Back to basics' became something to avoid because it was not de-rigour. However, this is where the research for this thesis began. In order to make sense out of the known in the

field of cheating the people who were accused of cheating (students) were involved from day one of the research – determining what cheating meant to them. In addition, as the observational methods in the paradigm of the questionnaire were not robust, other research methods were given preferential treatment. Qualitative methodologies were brought to the fore. The use of the focus group was unheard of in researching cheating. Chapter 3 is a review of this qualitative methodology as applied to cheating. The focus group method was used to open up the issues that were to guide how best to study cheating from the starting point of knowing nothing about cheating by British adolescents. As is the case with research that covers many years, novel ideas are hijacked by others, and the 'back to basics' slogan was replaced in 1997, in the political arena with the 'focus group policy'!

The complex way in which the focus group adolescents understood cheating was loud and clear. Adolescents identified very clearly the problems they had in defining cheating and it was also clear that cheating was closely integrated with the whole school experience. Four areas of study emerged from the focus groups. What is cheating? When is it wrong to cheat? What role do parents play? How do teachers perceive cheating compared with students?

The second study of this thesis, in Chapter 4, was a deeper investigation into exactly what cheating was perceived to be by secondary school students. Researchers as outlined more than once above have often explored cheating from a single issue, single behaviour perspective. The literature also used the American 'label' of academic dishonesty (which the researcher has yet to find clearly defined anywhere!). It was evident from the focus groups that a clear definition would not be forthcoming and that the students had to be given the opportunity to express for themselves what they considered to be cheating. This included what they comprehended as being cheating, regardless of whether or not they had actually performed all of the types of cheating that they were familiar with. What was clear from the data was that the assessment situation was intricately linked to the students' comprehension of cheating and that cheating in their minds was not restricted to scholarly activities. It was also made clear by the focus groups that some forms of cheating were more serious than other forms of cheating.

The third study, in Chapter 5, was an investigation into whether or not school students perceived cheating to be wrong. Grounded theory was the chosen method of analysis, which again, was a major departure from traditional study methods. Students were asked to respond to the question 'Is cheating in school wrong?' The essays that they wrote were used as a corpus for the development of a model of cheating based on the reasoning that the students used. In Chapter

4 the notion that cheating was linked to the assessment situation had emerged. An even more complicated picture emerged from the grounded theory. Cheating was viewed by students as being a whole 'education' experience that included factors such as the assessment, the consequences of cheating, the individual's educational philosophy, the role of friends and academic pressures to name but a few.

The role of parents was the focus in Chapter 6. Parental pressures were identified by the focus groups in Chapter 3. However, in previous cheating research, which was tertiary sector based, the role of parents had been largely overlooked. Once a student had gone to university, parenting took a backward step in the literature. The political background to this thesis took on a more serious role for Chapter 6. At the time of this study, league tables and standard achievement tests (SATs) had recently been introduced. The effect of these on parental attitudes towards education was studied through parenting styles and attitudes towards the child's education. As there was no existing scale for measuring parenting style and education in Britain, a psychometric scale was developed. Also assessed were the differences in the perceptions of cheating behaviours, according to severity, that were identified in Chapter 4.

Throughout all of the studies in this thesis, active management of the triangulation process was employed. The focus group was used as a starting point to ascertain which research questions were to be asked. Subsequently, the most difficult questions about the nature of cheating that emerged were asked more than once and from more than one perspective. The focus of Chapters 4 and 5 was what students perceived to constitute cheating and whether or not it was wrong. These fundamental questions of the thesis were asked of a different population (secondary school students) to the focus group participant population (Guides and Scouts). This was to ensure that the findings obtained from the focus groups were not spurious. Sampling errors are the biggest single source affecting reliability.

These two questions were also picked up again in Chapter 6. Students were again asked about what constituted cheating and how seriously they perceived it to be. The research design, whilst self-report, tackled the question from a different perspective. Scenarios were used as the stimulus material and were based on the findings of the earlier research. By using the findings of the research in Chapter 4, the reliability and validity of those findings were more fully assessed.

Further, to gain a multi-dimensional perspective, parents and teachers were also included in the quest to find out what factors affect secondary school cheating and why. Parents were asked the same questions as their children (Chapter 6). The role of the perspectives of important

others should not be underestimated in understanding student cheating. In order to answer the simple, yet fundamental questions a holistic research approach was the most appropriate course of action to take. Teachers were held by some participants of the focus groups to be largely responsible for creating an environment where cheating was a survival mechanism.

Teachers were given the opportunity to have their say in Chapter 7. In an attempt to gain a multi-dimensional perspective on what cheating was, teachers were asked questions based on the findings of Chapters 4 and 5. How would their perspectives on cheating measure up to those of their charges? Questions were also asked about the pressures that may have affected cheating, that were of a more political nature, such as the effect of the introduction of performance management targets.

Finally to assess the validity of the complicated findings of Chapter 5, the grounded theory model of cheating was tested with a group of participants from the same population as the focus group participants (Guides and Scouts). It was important to take the research process one full cycle to consolidate and provide support for the original foundations of the research process. If the research findings were incompatible with those of the original population then generalisability would indeed be limited. Whilst two populations were sampled for the research, both populations were adolescents in the English education system. Therefore a degree of commonality was expected. If this simple step of validating the findings against those of the original participant group were not investigated, future research would be subject to the same problems of the research from the last 20 years.

It is hoped that this thesis will have demonstrated that consensus regarding cheating should be achievable through a solid research foundation. However, what should not be forgotten is that whilst general models are important in the creation of true paradigms, psychologists cannot forget the specific situations that cause human behaviour to be dynamic and ever fluctuating. A research finding that was loud and clear was that understanding cheating behaviour could not be achieved in isolation from the *situation*, using single issue, single behaviour research designs.

2



The study of academic dishonesty

2.1 Defining cheating

The problem of defining cheating was introduced in chapter 1. Cheating rather than being a convenient uni-dimensional concept is probably comprised of a series of concepts drawn together to form a unique schema for each individual. It is highly likely that the schemas held by individuals are similar in content. What differs may be the application of those contents to the variety of cheating situations that delimit the parameters of the schema.

This problem of defining cheating in its entirety has not been dealt with well by researchers. Few have tackled the issue of defining cheating. Typically a dictionary definition has been given for completeness. Stevens and Stevens (1987) used Webster's 20th Century dictionary definition - 'the act of defrauding by deceit', whilst Evans and Craig (1990) used a definition that included some form of deceit by trickery or fraudulent practice that yielded an unfair advantage to the cheater. Evans and Craig took a variety of dictionary definitions and crafted them to the academic setting. Even this did not capture the everyday nature of cheating in the applied setting. In particular, their definition did not include the trickery undertaken *by researchers* in order to study cheating! Curtis (1996) used 'the representation of another's' work as one's own usually resulting in an unfair advantage for the cheater' (p38), as his definition of cheating and whilst it was a more user-friendly description of cheating, it did not take into account the interpersonal nature of

cheating. For example, it did not capture the cheater who takes an exam for a fellow student. The focus was only on the person receiving the help and not the person providing the help.

It may well be that the reason a sparse use of definitions was found was that often only a single form of cheating was under investigation. This was particularly the case for early researchers (e.g., Howells, 1938) who although they did not usually define cheating, may have set the trend for an uni-dimensional fixed mental set regarding cheating.

Such uni-dimensional definitions would be of little use in the educational setting. Researchers have demonstrated that cheating and its definitions were not well understood by students (particularly plagiarism, e.g., Brookes, 1989). Students have claimed that they did not realise that they were cheating or were unsure of how to avoid cheating. If a goal of research was to understand cheating in education and to provide some form of advice to students and staff about controlling cheating then more than a one-sentence definition was required.

Definitions which broke cheating down into components were perhaps a little better. Swazey, Anderson and Lewis (1993) used the National Academy of Science definition which was three fold:

- 1) Plagiarism and falsification
- 2) Questionable research practices
- 3) Other misconduct (e.g., bullying and harassment)

However, again, what is plagiarism? What are questionable research practices? Whilst these examples of cheating may make sense to adult academics, the relevance to a twelve-year-old school child is probably near to zero.

The use of examples to define cheating however, was possibly a better way forward. Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) identified over 20 behaviours that British undergraduates perceived to be some form of cheating. These behaviours were clustered (using factor analysis) into groups. The situation was used to group similar behaviours. The situations were coursework, examinations and lying (to get special consideration). Newstead et al argued that instead of simply asking students whether or not they had cheated, researchers should aim to capture the *range* of behaviours on which students have cheated.

However, these situational parameters, whilst they were far more grounded in education, still did not explicitly outline the nature of cheating. Further they did not take into account factors such as intention to cheat (planned) or spontaneous cheating (opportunistic) which altered the

clustering of the cheating behaviours (Daniel, Blount and Ferrell, 1991). Hetherington and Feldman (1964) argued for situationally determined explanations of cheating because their study of cheating in the same situation (using crib sheets in an exam and essay substitution) did not correlate in terms of frequency of observed cheating. They suggested that situational factors other than the type of assessment were important determinants in discovering how cheating may be understood and investigated. McLaughlin and Ross (1989) echoed this view. They suggested that whilst a general classification of cheating may be possible to achieve, the situation was a factor that made the task more difficult.

As most of the current research on cheating is American, cultural differences also need to be taken into account when defining cheating. Indeed, the United States is such a large country that perhaps intra-continental differences need to be considered. Kuehn, Stanwyck and Holland (1990) argued that cross-cultural definitions of cheating differed:

“Students from different cultures apparently manifest differences in opinions and behaviour in contrast to their US counterparts, not simply because of differences in role definitions for student and teacher, but because of more fundamental differences in embedded values of their respective cultures” (p313).

The root of the definition problem, according to Fass (1986) lay with the institutions of education themselves. Few American university handbooks were reported to refer to cheating in any great detail (if at all). It was therefore not surprising that researchers and students have been wandering (or wondering!) in the dark regarding the simple questions such as ‘what is cheating?’

Fass (1990) suggested that academics who really wanted to understand cheating in education and who wanted to have students who understood cheating in education needed to define cheating according to the following (heavily edited) criteria:

“A complete statement of the definitions of academic dishonesty would cover the following topics, at a minimum:

- Ethics of examinations
- Use of sources on papers and projects
- Writing assistance and other tutoring
- Collecting and reporting data
- Use of academic resources
- Respecting the work of others
- Computer ethics
- Giving assistance to others
- Adherence to academic regulations” (p173-174)

In addition, Fass recommended that a series of questions and answers be included to explore permutations of each type of cheating that students typically identified as causes for confusion. Stevens and Stevens (1987) echoed this need for a fuller description of cheating, in

their five reasons for studying cheating. Firstly some behaviours were seen as ethical by some people but not by others. Secondly, some behaviours were not explicitly included by some institutions when considering cheating. Thirdly researching cheating provided information about students' personal ethics. Fourthly, authorities were provided with information about controls and fifthly, researchers were able to explore why students cheat.

However, the definition of cheating as set out by Fass (1990) was no longer a definition, but a series of guidelines or rules by which educational institutions could make their students abide. Therein lay a problem. Researchers have wanted a definition of cheating that is universal, uni-dimensional and 'quick and dirty' to use. Such heuristics and rules of thumb have their place, but unless definitions of cheating were studied in situ (the classroom), the heart of cheating (the 'why') would never be understood.

Why is there a need to have guidelines in place of simple definitions? The answer to this question lies with the ingenuity with which students cheat and perhaps the understanding that students have (or do not have) regarding what cheating is.

2.2 How to cheat

Not all cheating behaviours were found to be mis-understood by students (Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen, 1994). Plagiarism is the type of cheating most often discussed as being a grey area – for both students and academics. However, plagiarism is not the only cheating behaviour. If cheating is to be stopped, then institutions need to know what students are capable of performing whether consciously or unconsciously. Knowing which behaviours students are capable of means that institutions can monitor them and of course outlaw them! Institutions need to be on their toes to keep up with the new methods of cheating that are continually being developed (or invented). Further, litigation (in America at least) is a costly business and one that university clients (students) are not afraid to use (Schneider, 1999).

Students can cheat by copying from one another or copying from inanimate sources such as books and CD Roms. This type of cheating is well known. Handing in work completed by someone else and handing in the same piece of work twice are also common. Buying essays off the Internet is big business in the States and dot coms specialising in the British educational market are set to do well (Griffiths, Rotheram, Hopkins-Burke, Wood, Davies, Sutton, Miller and Arnold, 2000).

The use of crib sheets or other methods of secreting pre-prepared information about the person (or examination place) are and have been prevalent in assessment situations for hundreds of years. Cizek (1999) in his book on cheating included a photograph of a tunic sewn into a garment that Chinese officials of the 19th century would wear for examinations. The tunic was literally held together by thousands of tiny Chinese characters, information with which to pass an examination.

Three of the researcher's more memorable examples are included here to illustrate the variety of cheating that went on in the researcher's part of the UK:

In a discussion with a mum of a potential research participant the mum confessed that whilst at school she took advantage of her brittle bone disease. Using a biology textbook as an implement, she broke her wrist so that she did not have to sit her exams.

An administrator at a certain university unwittingly aided a student in creating extenuating circumstances for the late submission of a dissertation. Whilst helping the student to print and collate a thesis, it became evident that the deadline was going to be missed by a long way. The student simply got in her car and drove to a convenient place between the university and her home, stopped the car and fiddled under the bonnet of the car so as to make the car appear that it had broken down. The student telephoned the AA for assistance and telephoned the appropriate university authorities to say she would be late in submitting her dissertation. The AA was only too happy to provide a letter to support the student's excuse for missing the deadline.

The final example of student cheating was particularly personal and still makes the researcher wince. A school student went to the computer where the researcher (who was teaching at the school at that time) had prepared the following day's end of year exam questions. Whilst the researcher had thought that no trace of the document had been left on the machine, the student managed to recall the document, print it and revise to the exam paper. The student was a very able candidate and capable of very good grades without cheating.

These examples of how to cheat have demonstrated that cheating can be achieved in many ways and that everyone is capable of cheating. For further examples of what American university students are capable of (on a frighteningly regular basis), Moffat (1990) is a thoroughly enjoyable, down to earth, tells-it how-it-is eye-opening read. Some of his revelations are included later in the chapter. However, for the final word on how to cheat, Cizek (1999) devoted a whole chapter to tricks, tips and techniques. A veritable cornucopia of over 50 ways to cheat and an absolute must for anyone in education.

2.3 Methods of studying cheating

From the literature it is evident that there are two broad 'purposes' of studying cheating in education. The first is the detection of the occurrence of cheating and the second is the measurement of attitudes towards cheating. For each purpose, several methodologies have been employed.

A. Detection of the occurrence of cheating

Methods that have been used to detect the occurrence of cheating are many and varied. Research with the primary focus of the detection of cheating has, in the main, been single-issue studies. Single-issue studies are those in which the researchers investigated one cheating behaviour (or one cheating behaviour from more than one perspective).

1. Interventions

Methods that have employed interventions to study cheating ranged from quasi-experiments to action-research studies. Intervention studies were interesting on one level because they usually involved entrapment and questionable ethics of some kind! On another level they were the starting point for the empirical investigation of cheating and so held intrinsic value for psychologists.

Entrapment can be measured using academic and non-academic tasks. The detection of cheating could be evidence of tampering with the task after completion or evidence of tampering with the task during completion.

Studies of entrapment can be classified according to the nature of the task. Academic entrapment tasks employed classroom based activities that had a greater amount of face validity than the non-academic tasks. Non academic tasks were typically puzzles for participants to solve that had no obvious educational associations.

Hartshorne and May (1928) have been recognised as the founding fathers of the non-academic entrapment studies. They conducted a prolific amount of research with primary and secondary school children in the United States. Whilst researchers report those studies today as investigations of cheating or dishonesty, Hartshorne and May were in fact primarily interested in character education. Further, Khumerker (1988) reported that the researchers had no interest in getting to the underlying reasons of why children cheated.

However, Hartshorne and May set out 10 points by which deceit should be studied. These points, whilst over 60 years old still make for good practice and would be well used by today's

researchers. For example, the following (paraphrased) advice was given: The entrapment task should be devised to appear natural even though it was being controlled behind the scenes. No attempt should be made to trick the subject into deceit – other than they would normally do. This included additional attempts at entrapment by the researcher (a tempting pursuit according to Lingle, Brock and Cialdini, 1977). The task should have a 'real value' for the participants. Where the data were to be used for statistical purposes, group studies should be instigated and scored mechanically (a tall order for the day, but not impossible e.g., Howells, 1938). The test results should be clear and unambiguous. The degree of deceit and whether or not deceit actually occurred should be factual and provable in a court of law. This last point is particularly relevant to some of the studies that followed Hartshorne and May's. However, as to the question of ethics; Hartshorne and May were not particularly ethical by today's standards, as May pointed out:

" Well, we deceived everybody! Even the school teachers didn't know what we were up to. Talk about one of the grandest deceptions in order to study deceit you ever saw in your life! The point was that most people agreed that the means justified the end. They would rather have our data than to not have us do it ... it's a funny thing but we were never really criticised for this at the time." (Khumerker, 1988, pp 11-12)

Would that it were that easy to conduct research on dishonesty in schools today!

The techniques employed by Hartshorne and May for studying cheating in the classroom did not always meet the criteria that they themselves had laid down. The closest that they reported coming to their own guidelines was with peeping tests. Peeping tests in the form of improbable achievement tests have been greatly used in cheating research. In such tests achievement over a certain level indicated that cheating had taken place. One example, the circles test, was a simple pencil and paper test. Each participant was given a piece of paper on which there was a series of different sized circles. The participant had to make a mark in the middle of each one whilst their eyes were closed. This task was extremely hard to do correctly and a variety of incentives were given to participants in order to make them want to achieve well – so well that their scores could only have been attained through cheating.

Whilst this test was in no-way academically based, it has been employed in various forms over the years. For example, a 'pure' form of the circles test was used by Leming (1979, 1980) and Bruggeman and Hart (1996). Visual mazes have been used with (Guttman, 1984) and without blindfolds (Covey, Saladin and Killen 1989), as have other kinds of pencil and paper puzzle tests (Malcolm and Ng, 1990, Monte and Fish 1980). Eisenberger and colleagues undertook a series of impossible anagram solving tasks (Eisenberger and Masterson, 1983; Eisenberger and Shank,

1985) with the incentive to cheat motivated by the knowledge of how three previous (and fictitious) students had fared. Other incentives, such as the reward of double participation credits (Covey, et al, 1989) or competition between participants (Perry, Kane, Bernesser and Spicker, 1990) have also employed to encourage cheating.

All of these improbable achievement tasks had three components. Firstly there was the improbable task that could not be achieved without recourse to cheating. Secondly there was the incentive to achieve created in the minds of the participants and thirdly there low levels of surveillance (Jacobson et al, 1970) or more rarely, very strict surveillance (Covey et al, 1989; Leming, 1980).

The effect of having 3 components to these studies was that the levels within the components were often manipulated. For example, the type of incentive and level of surveillance could be high, low, absent or present. This factorability went some way to deflecting the criticism that the methods were restrictive in that only one cheating behaviour at a time could be studied.

The duplicating technique was devised to study the illegitimate use of answer sheets for tests. These were more likely to be academic tests (Fakouri, 1972; Kamal and Maruyama, 1994; Bronzaft, Stuart and Blum, 1973), aptitude tests (David, 1963) or in the case of Antion and Michael (1983), final exams. The tests were administered to students, taken away and copied/marked, returned to the students for self marking (with an excuse as to why the students had to mark the work themselves, e.g, Drake, 1941).

Academic versions of the duplicating technique had a greater degree of face validity than the circles type tests and were sometimes carried out over the course of an academic term, allowing for more than one testing session (e.g., Bronzaft, Stuart and Blum, 1973). However, like the improbable achievement tasks they all contained three basic elements, the task, the incentive to cheat (although Ellenburg, 1973 used no incentive) and the presence or absence of monitoring by the researcher/ teacher (Vitro and Schoer, 1972).

Johnson (1981) used the fictitious student incentive of the improbable achievement technique to encourage cheating, as did Shelton and Hill (1969). Students were also told that the tests were either important indicators of school ability, were nothing to do with school (Vitro and Schoer, 1972) or that comparing scores openly across the class would occur after marking (Feldman and Feldman, 1967). Flynn, Reichard and Slane (1987) gave positive and negative reinforcers for cheating. Some students were told they could leave without completing all the sections of the test if they passed the first test, others were told that if they did not pass the first 90

minute test they would have to re-sit the test at another time convenient to the researcher.

Incentives to do well in academic tasks such as tests and exams may well have been intrinsic for some students. The effect of an additional incentive may therefore have 'double-skewed' results and not have produced a 'normal table' such as those that Hartshorne and May (1928) endeavoured to produce.

Duplication was achieved in a number of ways. The answer sheet could be left somewhere useful or attached to the back of test (Gardner and Melvin, 1988; Hetherington, and Feldman, 1964; Mackinnon, 1938) or have the answers left on the board whilst the researcher/teacher had a coughing fit (Ellenburg, 1973) or left the room under some other pretext (Feldman and Feldman, 1967).

Hoff (1940) also used duplicating techniques in his study of cheating. However, his intention was to ascertain which methods *not* to use in order to *prevent* cheating. Allowing non-friends to mark work cut down on cheating considerably! Hoff was not alone in his approach to the study of cheating. His, like a great deal of the cheating research of Hoff's era, was in fact grounded in the educational principles of the day, with overt attempts made at drawing conclusions about how students learned. It is this kind of research that has been making a re-appearance in the more recent adolescent cheating literature.

Finally, Hetherington and Feldman (1964) not only gave students the opportunity to mark their own work, they gave them the opportunity to substitute essays in an exam *and* allowed the opportunity to look for answers to very hard viva questions whilst the professor was out of the room. This kind of intervention study made for exciting reading, but not for very good ethics, especially as students were subsequently punished for being induced to cheat for research purposes. Karlins, Michaels and Podlogar (1988) checked out their suspicion of cheating on coursework in a far more ethical manner by copying over 700 essays handed in for one semester's work and comparing them with the essays handed in for the subsequent semester. In this latter study there was no intervention, but no *special* opportunities were *created* for students to engage in cheating. Students' natural behaviours were observed. This criticism regarding ethics, whilst aimed at Hetherington and Feldman (1964) can be levelled at all of the researchers mentioned to date (except Karlins, Michaels and Podlogar, 1988). Intervening to study cheating does not technically have to employ questionable ethics. However, if interventions other than those used in the course of the classroom day are employed questions about the validity of the findings could be raised.

A further criticism of such intervention research is that whilst many of the studies had a great deal of ecological and face validity, there was only one form of cheating under investigation. Reference to the problems with defining cheating by Fass (1990) illustrates how little single-issue research can add to the understanding of cheating (page 16).

Hartshorne and May (1928) also used other tasks in their character education studies. The double-testing technique which is parallel-form reliability by a different name was conducted using the early intelligence tests developed by Thorndike. The problems created by the development of two equally difficult forms of a test were probably the main reason why this technique has not been used in later studies by other researchers. In addition it may have been that the early tests were reported to identify differences between ethnic groups, which can now be traced back to sources of item bias.

2. Statistical methods of detecting cheating and the randomised response technique

Statistical methods of detecting cheating once again began with Hartshorne and May (1928). The copying technique, as it was then known, was discarded as a method of studying deceit because it was not an unequivocal method of detecting the occurrence or degree of cheating (see the guidelines on page 20).

Hynes, Ginver and Patil (1978) reported a fairly simple and straightforward formula for detecting cheating, like Hartshorne and May (1928), was based on errors-in-common. Their formula was based on the z distribution and as Chaffin (1979) pointed out contained a flaw. The z distribution it was argued should only be used to detect cheating if two students were *suspected of* cheating. Otherwise the probability of a type 1 error (false positive occurring) was high. This meant, in effect, that Hynes et al's formula was no good for screening multiple choice tests for potential pairs of cheaters. It should also be remembered that at this time calculations by hand or using mechanical calculators would have taken a great deal of time and effort. Not only were the probabilities for the pair of candidates suspected of cheating calculated, but also the probabilities for all the possible pairings of candidates.

Computer programs took the statistical detection of cheating a further step forward (Bellezza and Belleza, 1989). The same technique of ascertaining the probability of errors-in-common was at the basis of computer detection. However, as before type 1 errors were highly probable and only candidates who were seated next to each other could be used for analysis. Detection of cheating also depended on the test length (the longer the better) and the amount of cheating that

had taken place (the more the better). The programs could not be used to determine who had copied from whom and a system was needed to analyse errors-in-common as they occurred during the test to feedback to invigilators (Link and Day, 1992). Whilst the feedback suggestion was a good one, to date this has not yet been achieved. Rather, the problems with the type 1 errors have been the focus of attention. Harp and Hogan (1993) used two different methods to triangulate the detection of cheating. Cheaters were identified if they had more than 75% errors-in-common. Once again, all those students suspected of cheating had in fact been sitting next to each other.

Wollack (1997) and Wollack and Cohen (1998) reported the use of item-response theory in the statistical detection of cheating. The nominal response model of cheating (denoted by ω) that they developed also analysed the scores of pairs of candidates. However, this time whether or not candidates jointly answered right or wrong was studied alongside the probability of choosing alternatives if the answers chosen were wrong. A problem with earlier programs was that the same incorrect answers are often chosen by many people in a given population. In addition seating plans were used to determine whether two candidates identified as cheating were in fact sitting close next to each other (apparently sitting behind a good candidate and copying from them is easier than sitting alongside them). Detection rates were achieved that minimised the probability of a type 1 error, but only on longer tests (100+ items), when the cheating was in the order of 20% or more, when the cheating was in strings (whole pages copied as opposed to randomly) and when there were a large number of candidates (approx. 500).

Therefore despite the advances in technology, the identification of cheaters was and is still a risky business. Indeed, Klein (1992) reported that in a court of law statistical detection techniques were not enough to gain a conviction despite offering incontrovertible evidence that cheating had occurred. Eye-witness evidence was still required and again, in some cases this too was not enough (just because two candidates were talking this does not mean they were cheating). This was in contrast to Aiken (1991) who reported that cheaters were identified using a computer program and when confronted, confessed.

In the USA where the testing of candidates reaches the hundreds in one sitting, statistical detection techniques have a long way to go before they can be used in everyday British settings for many reasons other than of the probability of obtaining a type 1 error. There is a use for such statistical techniques however, Belleza and Belleza (1989) reported that cheating had been reduced from 5% to less than 1%. The knowledge that computers were being used to detect cheating was a deterrent in and of itself.

The randomised response technique (RRT) has been included in this section because it too is based on statistical assumptions and it too has severe failings in the detection of the occurrence of cheating! Few studies have reported the use of the randomised response technique. It is an alternative to the survey method of detecting the self-reported occurrence of cheating and was heralded as a sound method by which to gain information on sensitive topics. Respondents were given a series of paired questions, one question about an innocuous topic, the other about the sensitive target topic (Nelson and Schaefer, 1986). The toss of a coin determined which question in the pair was to be answered truthfully. Scheers and Dayton (1987) found that compared to direct questioning, cheating was underestimated using the RRT by 39% to 83% depending on the question. Nelson and Schaefer reported a similar under-estimation and that scores of below zero and above 100% can be obtained. Further Holleque, (1982) recommended that as a measurement device, group administration of the RRT was not to be advocated as again, under-estimation of cheating was found. The calibration of honesty was not a problem unique to the RRT. Hartshorne and May (1928) abandoned the calibration of their cheating questionnaire with a group of children who were found to be the most honest in completing the deception tasks – because of social desirability. In the end they used a group of educational psychologists and asked them to think back to their childhood in order to gain the normative data they required! This calibration problem is the single most important factor responsible for the poor concordance in the main bulk of the research into cheating, that of methods of studying attitudes towards cheating.

3. Computer Based anti-plagiarism products

Increased accessibility of the internet has promoted the use of 'term paper mills'. Students, particularly on American campuses, can buy pre-written essays from a 'bank' or pay to have one written to their specifications. The internet has enabled students to not only buy on-line but to plagiarise from many

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"My History professor told me to use the Internet for research and it's been very helpful. I've located seventeen people who have offered to sell me a term paper!"

different sources, thus decreasing their chances of detection by staff.

Satterwhite and Geremi (2001) investigated the efficacy of computer-based anti-plagiarism programs. The programs operate by detecting strings of words or key phrases on entire ('Copycatch') or selected portions of documents ('HowOriginal.Com'). The programs either search the company database ('Eve2') or the entire web ('Paperbin') including the 'cheat sites'. 'WORDCheck' however compares student essays against one pre-selected large literary text, whilst 'GLATT' presents students with their own essay for them to fill in the blanked out words or phrases (assumes a starting point of 'guilty'). 'Copycatch' recommends a threshold of 70% similarity before plagiarism is confirmed. Most programs, whilst they might take a *very long* time to process a few essays (e.g. 'Eve2') provide a printout of the web links from which the various suspected plagiarised sources originated.

In a sample of 25 essays where 8 were deliberately plagiarised, some programs identified none of the 8 essays ('HowOriginal.Com'). Indeed Satterwhite and Geremi found that typing key phrases into ordinary web engines produced better results. The best program was 'Turn-it-in' which identified 5 of the 8 essays. This program also identified the least number of 'irrelevant error detections' (false positives).

Whilst programs to detect plagiarism are available therefore, the detection rates are low and include a high number of false positives, as was found with the statistical methods of detecting copying on multiple-choice exams. Perhaps the best use of these programs may be as a deterrent. If students think that measures are in place to detect plagiarism some may be deterred from searching the web for 'help'.

B. Methods of studying attitudes towards cheating

Methods of studying attitudes towards cheating have been grouped under the headings of scenarios, psychometric scales and surveys.

'Attitudes' towards cheating is a broad brush term used here to describe any research that asked questions about cheating that were not questions relating to occurrence. For example, attitudes about perceived prevalence, punishments and preventions were included.

The benefit of studying attitudes towards cheating is that more than one perspective of a range of cheating behaviours can be obtained from a single data collection exercise. Whilst researchers of the intervention studies (with independent variable manipulation) claimed to have learned a lot about one situation, it was at the end of the day, just one situation.

1. Scenarios depicting cheating situations

The study of cheating moved on to encapsulate a wider range of cheating behaviours than just those studied using the method of intervention (or indeed statistical methods of detection). As was evident from the dates of the research cited under the heading of interventions, few studies were carried out in the last 10 years. Most of the studies spanned the preceding 20 or 30 years. Steininger, Jonhson and Kirtis (1964) stood as a lone voice of that time advocating the use of research which was embedded in the educational process. They studied cheating using a variety of classroom situations to determine how factors such as teacher friendliness and exam desk layout affected cheating.

The scenario study typically involved presenting one or more situations in which a person was involved in an act of cheating. Scenarios were used with two main aims. Firstly there were scenarios that were used to determine the prevalence (Ames and Eskridge, 1992), attitude to (Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor, 1992; Steininger, Johnson and Kirtis, 1964) or reasons for a wide range of cheating behaviours (Genereaux and McLeod, 1995). Secondly there were scenarios that focused on fewer behaviours but which had multiple scenario outcomes or a range of associated questions. The associated questions were used to ascertain situational determinants of when cheating was more likely to occur. For example, whether or not the cheating was intentional or planned (Genereaux and McLeod, 1995; Livosky and Tauber, 1994), spontaneous (Roberts and Rabinowitz, 1992) committed by a peer (Whitley and Kost, 1999) or with a peer (Bear and Stewart, 1990) or likely to be committed by the person (participant) reading the scenario (McLaughlin and Ross, 1989; O'Leary and Cotter, 2000).

Whilst a more holistic perspective of cheating was gained from looking at ecologically valid scenarios, there were still problems with the reliability and validity of the findings. For example, self-report data is known to be prone to under or over-reporting when used with sensitive topics. There was also the additional problem of attitudes and intentions towards cheating not matching actual behaviours (Davis, Noble, Zak and Dreyer, 1994).

2. Psychometric scales

Psychometric scales were a less frequently used method of measuring attitudes towards cheating. Psychometric scales can be used to classify the population according to attitudes towards a target subject, in this case cheating. The respondents' scores once classified can then

be compared in groups (e.g. severe vs. lenient attitudes towards cheating) with scores on other tests of personality characteristics such as morality.

Psychometric scales have been less frequently employed in the field of cheating probably for two reasons. Firstly, psychometric scales are difficult and time consuming to construct well. Secondly the observed data tend to be skewed making final scale item choice difficult. Nevertheless psychometric scales have been developed to assess attitudes towards cheating. Not all of these were developed using the full range of psychometric scale development procedures.

The first issues considered when developing a psychometric scale are the target population and what is being measured. Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clark (1986) used Ball's (1966) neutralisation scale to measure attitudes towards cheating (which in turn was based on Sykes and Matza, 1957). The original neutralisation scale contained items regarding five justifications that delinquents were reported to give for their unruly behaviour. Although it is not clear from the paper, only the wording of the items may have been changed before use with a population of students in the study of cheating. However, the internal consistency of the amended scale was reported to be .93.

The high level of internal consistency was both encouraging and discouraging. Internal consistency (as measured by Chronbach's alpha for all the psychometric scales of cheating mentioned here) is a measure of the uni-dimensionality of a construct. It is a figure that ranges from 0 (the items have nothing in common with each other) to 1.0, all of the items are measuring the same thing. Alphas are considered acceptable above .7 (Nunnally, 1972). However, alphas which are above .9 should raise suspicions as it may be the case that the scale was full of items that measured exactly the same thing (usually the items are worded too similarly) rather than a range of items that sampled widely from the construct of interest. Therefore, where the alphas were reported in the literature they are presented here alongside a description of the scale to indicate reliability.

Whatever the case, Haine's et al's neutralisation scale was adopted by several authors (Daniel, Blount and Ferrell, 1991; Pulvers and Diekhoff, 1999). Other psychometric scales have been developed along similar lines. Evans and Craig (1990) developed a scale to assess cheating that was based upon attribution theory and included the content areas (construct item sampling) of causal attributions about cheating and beliefs about the prevention of cheating. High internal consistency was found for these two psychometric subscales (.7 and .9 respectively) with different populations from different cultures (Evans, Craig and Mietzel, 1993).

Gardner and Melvin (1988) developed a scale to assess slightly different components of cheating. Their focus was on the morality of cheating and attitudes towards teachers and cheating. This scale was used by Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen (1994) to assess how students and staff perceived each other with regard to cheating ($\alpha = .89$). Deterrents and punishments for cheating were the focus of other scales (Michaels and Miethe, 1989; Roberts and Toombs, 1993: $\alpha = .93$).

Scales that were developed using a wider and more robust range of psychometric tests of reliability and validity included a scale by Rost and Wild (1994). Their scale was grounded in the educational setting by combining cheating and achievement avoidance. Waugh, Godfrey, Evans and Craig (1995) used the Rasch extended logistic model (based on log odds) to improve upon the 109-item scale that was developed by Evans and Craig (1990). Much of the work of these authors was cross-cultural and whilst high internal reliabilities were obtained for the various cultures, there was no method of ensuring a culture free item response (statement bias). Using the Rasch model they isolated 27 out of the 109 items that fitted the model for all 6 samples (countries) in their study. This meant that a direct comparison could be made between the cultures. In addition the model allowed for the ordering of items in terms of severity (of e.g. cheating behaviour) which added to the meaning of the scale.

Abouserie (1997) used psychometric techniques to analyse to what extent Welsh students thought a behaviour was cheating. The alpha for this scale was .57. The scale was based on Calabrese and Cochran's (1990) which was an American scale, suggesting that internal consistency very much depended on the sample (culture), as other non-American scales also used by Abouserie obtained alpha levels of above .7.

It was interesting to note that the scales developed to measure cheating all (bar one) had respectable measures of internal consistency (where reported). However, each scale measured a slightly different aspect of cheating and one wonders to what extent the scales overlap if at all. Some of the scales measured aspects of cheating that were remarkably different, yet the high alpha co-efficients suggested that it was the same construct that was being measured (or that there was error in the measurements). It would be interesting to see the co-efficients for these scales when compared in a test of construct (convergent) validity. If the validity co-efficient was high it would suggest that cheating was a very broad construct appreciated by many people in similar ways. Alternatively as the *construct* is of interest, a low co-efficient would suggest that perhaps it was the construct of *severity* that was being measured and not the construct of *cheating*, as scales

using such a sensitive topic are often reported to have skewed data, because cheating is often viewed very severely across the board.

It may well be the case that cheating is a broad construct similarly understood by many, because attitudes towards cheating, as will be discussed later, appeared to be quite conservative for many respondents. However, as already mentioned, attitudes were not always found to match beliefs and there was considerable evidence to suggest that the understanding of cheating was far from uniform across samples.

3. The survey method of studying cheating

The survey was the most prolific method of studying cheating identified in the literature. Where psychometric scales were used, it was more likely that the scale was an existing measure of, for example, morality or anxiety. The survey was used in tandem with such psychometric instruments for a variety of purposes. The main difference between the survey and the scenario was that the survey sampled more widely across the range of cheating behaviours. Whilst this made the length of the survey longer, it did not always preclude the researchers from asking several questions about each type of cheating. Sampling widely across the domain of cheating was a way to ground reported cheating in the educational environment. What was captured was the everyday use of cheating, be it copying (a frequently performed behaviour) or impersonation in an exam (a less frequently performed behaviour).

Surveys were used to capture the occurrence of cheating behaviours through the use of the self report (Davis and Ludvigson, 1995; Moffat, 1990), reports of what others were thought to do (Lanza-Kaduce and Klug, 1986; Schab, 1971, 1991, 1996) and of course, the previously discussed randomised response technique (see page 25). In the latter case, the RRT was used in conjunction with the direct survey to assess the validity of the RRT. Where surveys were used to capture the prevalence of cheating it was over a short period, such as one academic semester or year (Ames and Eskridge, 1992) or a longer period, such as cheating from secondary school to university (Baird, 1980; Noble, Davis, Zak and Dreyer, 1994) or perhaps cheating throughout the university career (McCabe, 1992). Whether or not students had cheated once (Beck and Azjen, 1991; Clifford, 1997; Labeff, Clark, Haines and Diekhoff, 1990) or more than once was also investigated (Björkland and Wenestäm, 1999).

Most surveys were designed with cheating as the primary focus (Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor, 1992; Davis, Mayleben, Judson, Brink, 1990), whilst others included only one or two

questions about cheating (Antion and Michael, 1983; Frost and Wilmesmeier, 1983) in a survey that tackled wider educational issues such as disruptive behaviour in school (Borg, 1998), discipline or teachers behaviours (Keith-Speigal, Tabachnick and Allen, 1993). Other survey research was conducted on the consensus between staff and student views about what constituted cheating (Anderman, Greisinger and Westerfield, 1998; Anderson and Obsenshain, 1994; Stevens, 1984), how ethical or unethical cheating was perceived to be (Pennington, 1996; Platt-Jendrek, 1992; Stevens and Stevens, 1987), what reasons students and staff gave for cheating (Aiken, 1991; Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995; Kamal and Maruyama, 1994) and what intentions regarding future cheating were (Michaels and Miethe, 1989; Kalichman and Friedman, 1992).

Surveys that were used to investigate the range of cheating behaviours either treated the behaviours as un-related items (Stevens, 1984) or as clusters of items that were for example, passive and active (Calabrese and Cochran, 1990), collaborative and independent (Daniel, Blount and Ferrell, 1991). Yet other researchers used the survey to investigate the robustness of social psychological theories in explaining cheating (Ward and Tittle, 1993; Whitley and Kost, 1999).

Such a proliferation of studies using the survey as a method of investigating cheating suggested that cheating by now must be well understood. However, comparison between studies, as with any topic, was difficult. Comparing behaviours across studies was not an easy task as surveys tended to use different phrasing or different forms of a single behaviour. For example, the same behaviour could be included in several different surveys, but in each survey the situation or context in which the behaviour was placed was different. As mentioned earlier, Hetherington and Feldman (1964) found a low correlation between observed cheating in an exam on two different types of behaviour. How the data were analysed was also a source of comparison difficulties. Some researchers reported the incidence of cheating per behaviour (Stevens and Stevens, 1987), others reported the incidence of reported cheating over a range of behaviours (Newstead, Franklyn-stokes and Armstead, 1996). Even more complicated to interpret were the attitude surveys that requested perceptions of seriousness and perceived prevalence of cheating in others. Across all of the research the *population characteristics* were also important factors in the interpretation of the meaning of the findings. This was particularly so when comparing different universities, age groups, regions, countries and of course different behaviours. Therefore, even the simple questions such as *what is cheating?* and *how seriously is it perceived?* are not well understood. This was not a surprising finding considering that most surveys (as discussed in

chapter 1) were developed by academics (one population) for use with students (another population).

As a method the survey has the benefit of being quick and easy to use, and often a lot cheaper than the intervention studies discussed earlier. However self reports, whilst robust (Calabrese and Cochran, 1990) were prone to under reporting and over reporting (Moffat, 1990), particularly on sensitive topics or where well publicised cheating incidents had occurred (Kalichman and Freidman, 1992). For example, Lanza-Kaduce and Klug (1986) found that 30% of respondents admitted to cheating, but that 43% were actually found to cheat.

4. Qualitative approaches to the study of cheating

The qualitative approach to the study of cheating has been perhaps the least frequently used method. For the purpose of this discussion 'qualitative' refers to the analysis of oral or written responses given by participants to questions about cheating.

In chapter 1, the problem of designing research for use with the target population was discussed. It was concluded that few researchers had troubled themselves to discuss what cheating was from the perspective of the population. It was also noted that this may be an unfair criticism of researchers as the reporting of (or engaging with) qualitative methods in some sectors of academia may have been frowned upon. However, some researchers took steps to identify what cheating was perceived to be by their population in pilot work that involved interviews (Evans and Craig, 1990; Rost and Wild, 1994; Stern and Havlicek, 1986) or a variant of the focus group (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995; Keith-Speigal, Tabachnick and Allen, 1993). In each case the results of the qualitative investigations were limited to a brief mention in the procedure, or in the case of Curtis (1996) where follow-up interviews were held post-survey, the results were intermingled with the findings of his international survey.

Open-ended questions in surveys were used by Labeff, Clark, Haines and Diekhoff (1990) as a method of assessing respondents' reasons for cheating, whilst Kuehn, Stanwyck and Holland (1990) asked students to write comments about why they thought the behaviours investigated were cheating. Researchers often use qualitative data with quantitative analysis techniques (McCabe, Trevino and Butterfield, 1999; Pancrazio and Aloia, 1992). Payne and Nantz (1994) used a critical-incident interview technique with students to determine the metaphors by which they described cheating. This was achieved by using content analysis, which reduced the verbal data back to

numerical classifications. In each of these three cases, no attempt was made to build a theory or generate testable hypotheses from the data without reference to existing frameworks.

Moffat (1990) had an unusual method of data collection. He got students to write essays about their personal experiences of cheating as part of a coursework assignment (over several years). He used these data in conjunction with survey data. Whilst it is not known to what extent under or over reporting of cheating took place, some of the findings were in complete contrast to those gained through other methods. For example, students reported that they found it easiest to hand in each other's work during multiple-choice exams.

Other researchers took a completely qualitative perspective and conducted research that gathered qualitative data and used qualitative analysis techniques (Johnston, 1996; Montor, 1971). Ashworth, Bannister and Thorne (1997) and Ashworth (1999) brought a different kind of analysis to their qualitative data. They removed their pre-conceptions about cheating (gained from personal experience and the literature) in order to analyse interview data from a pre-suppositionless perspective. A criticism by Ashworth et al of previous cheating analysis methods was that they were based on existing theoretical frameworks which had been imposed on the data by the researchers. This had prevented the participants' own social construction or schema of cheating to be investigated. The findings of Ashworth et al (1997) were not used to develop a theory but to inform practices about dealing with cheating from a student learning and institutional management perspective. Whilst the data were grounded in the educational processes of the institution from which the participants came, the generalisability of those findings were limited because of the institutional differences that may exist regarding cheating.

2.4 Who has been studied?

The primary focus of research into academic dishonesty has naturally been those people in receipt of an education, i.e., students. Fewer studies have been conducted where the focus of the investigation were staff (Swazey, Anderson and Lewis, 1993). The majority of research reported (over 75% in this literature review) has been conducted on American undergraduate students. Several studies were based on the survey by Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor (1992). Fewer research papers have been forthcoming about cheating by secondary school students. Twenty-two studies of cheating in secondary school were found in the literature over the past 60 years. Three primary school student studies were also identified, but the age group studied may well have been the British 1st year secondary school equivalent (American grade 5). Where primary and

secondary schools students have been studied, it has been necessary to calibrate the American age groups for comparison with British populations of students. Table 2.4.1 below is a conversion chart for year groups in British and American schools.

Table 2.4.1. Conversion chart for American and British school year groups

American year in school (grade)	British year in school	Age in school
5	6	10-11
6	7	11-12
7	8	12-13
8	9	13-14
9	10	14-15
10	11	15-16
11	12	16-17
12	13	17-18

Middle school refers to ages 12-15 in American schools (American year 7-9)

As can be seen from table 2.4.1 year 11 in the United States is equivalent to the British year 12 (or first year 6th form). The change of population from year 11 to 12 in Britain is associated with the move from compulsory to post-16 education, which brings a difference in the population characteristics (compulsory vs. self-selecting). Therefore, studies such as those by McLaughlin and Ross (1989) should be interpreted with caution as they have used the post-16 education group as part of their study of American high school students.

Students of various disciplines have also been studied, but in the main the students have been psychology undergraduates (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995; Kelly and Worrell, 1978), business undergraduates (Karlins, Michaels and Podlogar, 1988; Stevens, 1984; Tom and Borin, 1988) or less frequently, teacher education students (Daniel, Blount and Ferrell, 1991; Roberts and Rabinowitz, 1992) and medical students (Anderson and Obsenshain, 1994; Kalichman and Friedman, 1992). Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) studied students from over 15 disciplines within one institution. However, Cizek (1999) reported that the most prevalent area of cheating research was in the medical profession where not all research findings were published in publicly available journals.

Of course there were many studies for whom students in general were the target population (Generaux and McLeod, 1995; Roberts and Toombs, 1993), or for whom the target population was students from large universities (Huss, Curnyn, Roberts, Davis, Yandell and Giordano, 1993), small universities (Newhouse, 1982), a mixture of both (Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor, 1992),

religious vs. secular institutions (Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen, 1994) or public vs. private schools (Bruggeman and Hart, 1996; Calabrese and Cochran, 1990). Response rates to surveys that have sampled across students in general have tended to be lower (Platt-Jendrek, 1992) than those of researchers using the students they teach as participants (psychology, business and teacher education). However, researchers studying students in general have often sampled well in excess of 1000 students (Haines, Deikhoff, Labeff and Clarke, 1986, n=4,000+; McCabe, 1992, n=6,000+; Noble, Davis, Zak and Dreyer, 1994, Zimmerman, 1999, n=2000+). To date, only one study of distance students and cheating has been identified in the literature (Kennedy, Nowak, Raghuraman, Thoma and Davis, 2000).

Cross-cultural studies of cheating are still fairly rare. These studies have relied on students from East and West Germany (Evans, Craig and Meitzel, 1993), Australia (Davis, Noble, Zak and Dreyer, 1994), Ireland (O'Leary and Cotter, 2000), Canada (Schab, 1971) Austria (Waugh, Godfrey, Evans and Craig), 1995, Israel (Enker, 1987), Cost Rica (Evans, Craig and Meitzel, 1993), Scotland (Schab, 1971), Spain and Arabic speaking regions (Kuehn, Stanwyck and Holland, 1990). Curtis (1996) investigated student cheating in international schools in Italy, Germany, Switzerland and Austria.

Studies of cheating from countries that are non-American and that were focused on a 'single' country included England, Scotland and Wales (Abouserie, 1997; Ashworth, Bannister and Thorne, 1997; Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead, 1996), Germany (Rost and Wild, 1994), Sweden (Björklund and Wenestäm, 1999), New Zealand (Pennington, 1996), Israel and the Middle East (Kamal and Maruyama, 1994) and Malta (Borg, 1998).

1. The role of culture in the study of cheating in British secondary schools.

Steinberg (1996) conducted a large-scale study in the United States lasting several years and involving some 20,000 high school (secondary school) students. The focus of the study was to investigate the education of adolescents from the perspective of what went on outside of the classroom and how this impacted on educational achievement. The family, friends and work of the adolescent were the focus of surveys and interviews. Cheating formed a small part of the research and is mentioned elsewhere in this chapter.

The findings related to age and cultures that will be discussed in this chapter have a far greater impact for this thesis than the general American prevalence statistics reported. As the findings relating to age and culture are of course mostly American, discussion of cultural

differences is essential. Steinberg (1996) highlighted the differences that existed between the American and British adolescent culture. These differences, as will be demonstrated, need to be used as a very salient backdrop to the interpretation of American cheating research as applied to British student populations.

For example, Steinberg reported that there was a widespread pressure amongst American adolescents *not* to do well in school. This pressure exists in Britain, but not to the pervasive extent that it is reported to in America. The following statistics regarding what adolescents say their friends think highlighted this difference:

- *16% of friends say they should be willing to party.
- 32% of friends think that it is important to get good grades.
- 20% say their friends make fun of them when they do well.
- 18% say they try not to show their ability in front of their friends.
- 50% of the 'brains crowd' wish they were in another crowd. " (Steinberg, 1996, p146)

If 32% of friends say that it is important to get good grades, then 68% say the opposite. The role of friends should not be underestimated in the adolescents' life. Steinberg reported that even in the homes of academically successful students, the peer group was more influential than parents and that peers had a greater impact on achievement than parents. Further Steinberg talked of a 'double whammy' affecting the American education system. The peak of peer influence was in years 8 and 9 and that the most peer-influential period for adolescents was between the ages of 12 and 16 years old. The double whammy was achieved because parental involvement in the adolescents' school was the lowest during these influential years.

Peer influence in this context was associated with the 'crowd' with whom the individual most frequently associated. The role of peers also extended to cheating. Johnston (1996) amongst others reported the very high proportion of students (>90%) not wanting to report observed incidents of cheating. In her interviews with 13 American undergraduates about an incident of cheating that took place during one of her own assessments, students reported not feeling able to criticise the behaviour of the cheaters who were friends or colleagues. Students preferred to ignore the incident and argued that friendship silenced any form of reporting. So, whilst close friends may have served to encourage the need for cheating, as will be demonstrated shortly, the wider peer group also served to prevent cheating from being dealt with openly.

These findings were not particularly unusual and were probably very consistent with the British adolescent population. However, when other American cultural differences are factored in,

the differences in the explanation of student cheating between Britain and America becomes much clearer:

"In other industrialised countries, school comes first, and activities such as part-time work or socialising with friends are relegated to any hours after school and homework have been completed. In the United States though, the reverse is the norm: American students manage their academic schedules to fit into their work and play schedules rather than vice versa. Given the large amounts of time American teenagers devote to their after school jobs (on average 15-20 hours per week) socialising (another 20 to 25 hours), and watching television (about 15 hours), it is a wonder that they have any time for studying at all. (Fortunately for American adolescents, as we've seen, our schools expect very little of them)." (Steinberg, 1996, p164).

The cultural differences that were associated with this free-time allocation were startling. American parents encouraged their children to get part-time jobs. Schools reacted to the pressures of student jobs by allowing students to choose to take easier courses so that grades were not affected. Further, according to Steinberg, parents were less worried about their child bringing home C or D grades than they used to be. It is no wonder that 75% of students in the study reported cheating in the last academic year and 90% reported copying someone's homework in the last academic year. These figures were perhaps understandable when the notion of marking on a curve is factored in. Marking on a curve is the practice of allocating grades by percentage. For example, the top 10% of scores receive an 'A' grade. The bottom 10% fails. This means that even good students may be faced with failure, despite studying hard.

It is wholly possible that British adolescents read less than 1 hour a week for pleasure and that the peer group is more influential than parents. What is not possible is part-time jobs of 15-20 hours per week due to British legislation, although a recent headline in the Times Educational Supplement may suggest otherwise: 'Half a million pupils are working illegally', (Times Educational Supplement, 2001). Neither is it likely that a typical year 10 or 11 student can spend less than 5 hours a week on homework without failing their GCSE's. This is not to say that Britain does not have its fair share of academic loafers. The author's experience of working in a British secondary school attested this notion.

The real effect of these cultural differences are subtle. It is apparent that American students experience academic pressures. British students also experience academic pressures. However, the origins of those pressures are different. American students feel pressure from their out-of-school life style. British students may feel the pressure in the form of league tables, SATs, coursework etc. For example, primary school children have begun to miss national tests in increasing numbers due to stress induced illness ('Test leak leads to suspension', Times

Educational Supplement, 2001) and league tables may be responsible for 'creating a generation of nervous children to boost government statistics' (ibid).

Alienation is another example where cultural differences should be taken into account. Alienation is the disaffected feeling that students have with a particular aspect of their lives, for example school. Alienated students, according to Calabrese and Cochran (1990) were more likely to have friends who prefer to party than to study. In Britain this is probably the case too. However, not to the same extent or the same degree. When reading findings regarding alienation, reports that affluent males were likely to feel alienated and more likely to cheat should be interpreted in the light of the party culture of such affluent students. Serious amounts of time (that would make the average British adolescent green with envy) are spent socialising and party planning by American students (Steinberg, 1996). Alienation in the British adolescent population would most probably be more complex and involve a wider range of disaffected attitudes towards the education system. Feeling disaffected with school because school gets in the way of parties that *have* to be organised may possibly be non-comparable with the typical British adolescent experience!

2.5 The prevalence of cheating

The prevalence of cheating has usually been presented in research paper literature reviews as general rates of cheating overall (i.e., 'at least once' data or 'range of cheating behaviours' data). However, such figures whilst useful, do not really help illuminate differences between the populations that have been studied. Indeed, not all researchers reported an overall cheating figure for their sample and not all researchers studied the prevalence of cheating. The following report on the prevalence of cheating has been organised according to the level of education of the participants and respondents (secondary or tertiary) and method of studying cheating (e.g., intervention or survey). Whilst comparisons between samples may still be difficult, general trends across educational levels and methodologies may be gauged. Cross-cultural differences in the prevalence of cheating are discussed at the end of this section.

i) Cheating prevalence in secondary education

Schab (1991) surveyed cheating in school at 10 yearly intervals. He reported that over the preceding 30 years the perception that everyone had cheated at some time rose from 23% to 38%. Curtis (1996) reported 45% of 11-13 year olds had cheated, whilst 76% of 14-19 year olds were reported to have cheated. Bushweller (1999) reported that 80% of students surveyed admitted to

cheating. Similarly Fass (1986) reported a cheating prevalence of 75%. Cheating was found to be the 13th most seriously perceived behaviour out of 49 problem classroom behaviours by Borg (1998), whilst Anderman, Greisinger and Westerfield (1998) suggested that over 50% of their sample said that cheating was acceptable.

Total prevalence data for cheating in secondary school was sparse. It was more likely that age and sex differences in cheating were reported than an overall figure. Anderman, Greisinger and Westerfield (1998) reported that 39% of their *survey* sample had 'sometimes' cheated, Bruggeman and Hart (1996) found that approximately 70% of their Catholic and secular school respondents reported cheating. Whilst Steinberg (1996) reported over 90% of participants in a survey of over 20, 000 students reported that they had cheated in the last academic year. Studies that used *intervention* methods reported similar amounts of cheating: Feldman and Feldman (1967), 42%; Shelton and Hill (1969) 53% and Ellenburg (1973) 81%.

ii) Cheating prevalence in higher education

The incidence of cheating in Higher education was widely reported to be less than in secondary education (e.g., Davis et al, 1992). However, these figures were usually based on self-report data of what students could remember they did at school. Direct comparison with the secondary school data is difficult because of the different measures used. Björkland and Wenestäm (1999) reported that over 90% of the Swedish students in their survey thought that their peers cheated. Whilst this was not an actual prevalence figure, it may indicate that cheating is just as prevalent in higher education as it is in secondary education. Students may be more willing to report misconduct in their past lives where no action can be taken against them. This aspect of the literature is covered later in this section.

Table 2.5.1 below reflects self-reports of cheating *overall* on scenario, psychometric scale and survey research (where given). To indicate the relative prevalence of cheating, the studies were grouped according to frequency categories of 10% intervals.

The total percentage statistics covered a range of behaviours over a variety of time spans (from cheating in one semester to all of a university career). For example, whilst McCabe (1992) reported 19% of respondents to be active cheaters, respondents were only classed as active cheaters if they cited 5 or more incidents of cheating.

The difference in total statistics may have reflected the age of the respondents. For example, it may have been that younger university students had had fewer opportunities to cheat

and therefore their data, whilst amalgamated here with their more mature university peers, were not appropriate for direct prevalence comparisons. It should also be remembered that surveys where participation was truly voluntary (such as postal surveys) may have had an over-representation of honest/ ethical students (Kalichman and Friedman, 1992) which may have skewed results in favour of under-reporting of cheating.

Table 2.5.1. The prevalence of cheating in scenario, psychometric scale and survey studies of tertiary level education

0-9%	
10-19%	Aiken (1991); Pennington (1996); McCabe (1992); Rittman; (1996); Weiss, Gilbert, Giordano and Davis (1993)
20-29%	Drake (1941)
30-39%	Clifford (1997); Lanza-Kaduce and Klug, (1986)
40-49%	Tom and Borin (1988); Holleque (1982)
50-59%	Antion and Michael, (1983); Bronzaft, Stuart and Blum (1973); Haines, Deikhoff, Labeff and Clark (1986); Nelson and Schaefer (1986); Singhal, (1982)
60-69%	-
70-79%	Beck and Azjen (1991); Björkland and Wenestäm (1999); Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor (1992)
80-89%	Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen (1994); Michaels and Mieth (1989); Stern and Havlicek (1986)
90-100%	-

A proportion of studies that excluded a total prevalence figure were those associated with the survey instruments of Davis et al (1992). Gender differences were reported as were recalled reports of cheating in secondary school. Therefore, these data have been reported in a later section on individual differences where their discussion was more appropriate (see page 46 below). From table 2.5.1 it is apparent that there was no time related trend. Studies that were conducted recently (1990's) were intermingled across the percentage span with studies conducted in the 1980's. The single 1940's study was conducted with all female respondents (Drake, 1941). As will be discussed in a later section, females tend to report lower levels of cheating than males. Only two studies in table 2.5.1 are pre-1980. This reflects the change in research method from interventions to survey, but not exclusively so. It must be remembered that not all researchers reported total cheating prevalence data.

Haines, Deikhoff, Labeff and Clark (1986) found an overall incidence of cheating rate of 54% but that coursework cheating behaviours were the most frequently reported (34%), followed by major exams (24%) and class quizzes (22%). Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) also found that most cheating occurred regarding coursework (72%), but that paraphrasing and altering data were the second most frequently reported cheating behaviours (66% each). Conversely, Michaels

and Miethe (1989) reported that 77% of university students cheated on homework; 42% on exams and 22% on coursework. A similar trend of a greater amount of cheating on exams than coursework was reported by Tom and Borin (1988) with 13% and 10% respectively.

These figures, particularly those of Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead suggest that the reported frequencies depended to a large extent on the cheating behaviours included in the survey. For example, it may well have been that Haines et al (1986) would have found that a similarly high proportion of students altered data had they included it in their survey. Further, it may be that the *sample* may be important for determining prevalence statistics. Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) administered the same survey as Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) to a much larger and wider sample of university students. In Newstead et al's study only 46% of students reported allowing their coursework to be copied by another student, 37% reported altering data and 54% (the largest percentage) reported paraphrasing material.

Stern and Havlicek (1986) asked students to report the cheating they had carried out. Over 70% said they had copied in an exam. The remaining reports of the frequency of cheating behaviours were dramatically lower, with 5% of cheating being classed as involving coursework; 3% as the use of crib sheets; 2% 'the rest' and 1% of students said they bought papers from essay banks. Abouserie (1997) reported that 50% of Welsh students copied reports from a book or newspaper, 44% enjoyed social loafing on group work, whilst in third place 35% reported that they had mislead teachers over marks. Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen (1994) reported that a similar amount of students enjoyed loafing on group work (36%), but that once again, far more would let someone copy their coursework (63%) and would obtain or give away answers to a test that was set for more than one class. Only 3% of students (21 out of 1374) copied or plagiarised coursework in Karlins, Michaels and Podlogar's (1988) study of actual coursework cheating. Singhal (1982) reported that 24% of agricultural and engineering students had used crib sheets and 12% had gained advance information about the contents of a test.

Data regarding the smallest frequencies of reported cheating related to specific academic behaviours. For example, Abouserie (1997), obtained small frequencies for getting someone to write an assignment (0.6%); impersonation (0.6%); and passing answers in an exam (4.0%). Newstead et al (1996) found similarly small rates of occurrence for impersonation (1%); bribery and corruption (2%) and lying to create extenuating circumstances (4%). However, Moffat (1990) reported that the second most common form of cheating was impersonation. Large class tests that used optical mark reader technology had two loopholes reported by students. Firstly, students

could hand in each other's work and secondly students could take exams for each other with little risk of detection.

For ease of description, cheating total statistics for tertiary level intervention studies (where given) have been reported in table 2.5.2 below and as before have been grouped into equal frequency intervals to indicate how much cheating was reported to have occurred.

Cheating was measured in various ways. Participants could falsely report their scores by altering their test paper or task in some way. This was achieved by looking at the answer sheets (and altering incorrect answers or adding answers), looking at the task (if eyes were supposed to be closed) or working past the time allocated for the task.

Table 2.5.2. The incidence of cheating reported to have occurred in cheating intervention studies with tertiary level students.

0-9%	
10-19%	Fakouri (1972); Kelly and Worrell (1978); Nelson and Schaefer (1986) – RRT
20-29%	Flynn, Reichard and Slane (1987)
30-39%	Malcolm and Ng (1990)
40-49%	Kamal and Karuyama (1994)
50-59%	Hetherington and Feldman (1964); Mackinnon (1938)
60-69%	-
70-79%	Eisenberger and Shank (1985)
80-89%	Turner DePalmer, Madey and Bomschein (1995)
90-100%	-

Once again, few conclusions can be drawn about the prevalence of cheating over the years. Whilst there are a greater number of earlier studies reported in table 2.5.2, these are not restricted to the lower percentage brackets, e.g., Mackinnon (1938).

2.6 Cross cultural differences in the prevalence of cheating

Schab (1971) investigated cheating in Scotland, America and Canada. The Scottish secondary school children were ambivalent in the reporting of their cheating behaviour. They were the least likely to report engaging in any kind of cheating, but were most likely to admit to getting parental help with homework or faking an illness to avoid taking a test. They were also most likely to report that everyone cheated at least once.

Cross-cultural differences in the reported frequency of cheating were rarely found. Evans, Craig and Meitzel (1993) reported that fewer German university students than Costa Rican or American students reported that the behaviours investigated were cheating. Australian university students (Davis, Noble, Zak and Dreyer, 1994) and Israeli students (Enker, 1987) both gave lower self-reported frequencies of cheating than American students. The latter results should be interpreted with caution as the Israeli students also reported being less negative about cheating. O'Leary and Cotter (2000) reported that more Irish students said they would look at a finals paper if it was offered to them the day before the exam than Australian students. Björkland and Wenstram (1999) claimed that overall, the incidence of cheating was less in Sweden than in Britain when comparing data obtained using the same survey as Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995).

Few conclusions can be drawn about the prevalence statistics between methodologies and levels of education. Whilst it did appear that cheating was more prevalent in secondary school, it was not clear whether the prevalence was determined by the greater length of time students spent in secondary school (thus accumulating more cheating opportunities). The differences between the methodologies made drawing conclusions even harder. Intervention studies typically used fewer participants than survey studies. They also used one type of cheating behaviour versus many types. Whether or not cheating has increased in frequency over the years was also not determinable from these data. Whilst it may appear that fewer studies from 30+ years ago were presented in the upper percentage intervals of tables 2.5.1 and 2.5.2, because not all studies reported total statistics, this trend may be misleading.

2.7 Individual differences in student cheating

Individual differences refer to the demographic variables and independent variables studied with regard to cheating. Where possible, discussion of the variables has been according to level of education.

1. Gender

Reported gender differences in the prevalence of cheating were mixed. In both secondary school and higher education they have been reported to exist (see later). However, researchers have also reported a lack of gender differences in secondary school (Guttman, 1984; McLaughlin and Ross 1989; Shelton and Hill, 1969; Vitro and Schoer, 1972) and higher education (Haines, et al, 1986; Huss et al, 1993; Stevens and Stevens, 1987).

i) Secondary education

Depending upon the school studied, Hartshorne and May (1928) found that more boys cheated than girls, or that more girls cheated than boys! Calabrese and Cochran (1990) reported that more male students cheated than female students. David (1963) reported that whilst more males cheated than females overall, males were found to cheat more on tests of vocabulary and females on tests of mathematics. Lobel (1993) also reported a task gender interaction. Males were found to cheat more on impossible questions perceived as masculine, whereas females were no more likely to cheat in solving the impossible masculine or feminine problems.

Gender differences also existed in perceptions towards cheating. Schab (1971) reported that Scots, Canadian and American students all thought males cheated more than females, as did the participants in the three surveys (over 30 years) reported by Schab (1996).

Males thought interventions for moral transgressions (cheating) were more acceptable than for social transgressions such as getting out of a seat in classtime. Females were equally favourable across transgressions (Bear and Stewart, 1990). Cheating and lying were also reported to be tolerated more by boys (Borg, 1998).

Evans, Craig and Meitzel (1993) reported that girls were more likely to attribute cheating to an unorganised teacher and tough marking. They were also more likely to agree that harsher penalties would prevent cheating.

ii) Higher education

Male university students were reported to cheat more than female university students in both the United States (Davis and Ludvigson, 1995; Fakouri, 1972; Genereaux and McLeod, 1995,) and Britain (Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead, 1996; Norton, Tilley, Newstead and Franklyn-Stokes 2001) and to cheat on a wider variety of behaviours (Baird, 1980). In a persistence task, females were reported to cheat more than males (Jacobson, Berger and Millham, 1970). The cheating rates of males were not affected by persistence at the problem solving task, but if females persisted, far fewer cheated (Turner DePalmer, Madey and Bornschein, 1995). Females were also found to cheat more than males in situations where the risk of detection was low (Leming, 1980). It should be noted that on the studies where females were reported to cheat more than males, improbable achievement tasks were used.

Female students more than male students believed that there would be less cheating if the teacher was friendly (Aiken, 1991) and that announcing the penalties of cheating would deter them from cheating (Davis and Ludvigson, 1995). Female students who scored highly on a measure of neutralisation were more likely than males or low neutralising females to cheat (Ward and Beck, 1990).

Males were reported to view cheating behaviours less seriously than females (Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead, 1996) and that where distance learning was concerned, males were more likely to perceive more cheating to occur and were more likely to have cheated on such courses than females (Kennedy, Nowak, Raghuraman, Thomas and Davis, 2000).

It therefore appeared that males were reporting cheating more than females when a wide range of behaviours were considered. Females were more likely to view cheating less leniently and both sexes were likely to *perceive* that males cheated more than females. Further the incidence of female cheating appears to be on the increase. McCabe and Bowers (1993, as cited by McCabe and Trevino (1996) reported that over the last 30 years the proportion of women who have cheated has increased by 20%; whilst the proportion of males who have cheated has remained fairly stable.

2. Age

i) Secondary education

Although not significantly different, Evans and Craig (1990) reported that upper school students perceived cheating to be more serious than lower school students and that as older students they were more likely to view themselves as responsible for the causes of cheating.

Murdock, Hale and Weber (2001) found that year 8 students were more likely to cheat than year 7 students. Year 10 students were reported to respond in keeping with staff and report less cheating than their more liberal year 11 and 12 peers (McLaughlin and Ross, 1989). Kanfer and Duerfeldt (1968) reported that younger primary school children cheated more on an intervention study task than older primary school children.

ii) Higher education

Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clark (1986) reported that whilst age was not a significant predictor of cheating younger students tended to cheat more than older students and students who cheated tended to be single. Younger students were also found to give higher estimates of

cheating (Genereaux and McLeod, 1995). Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) reported that British students who cheated were typically non-mature students.

iii) From secondary education to higher education

In secondary school it appeared that older students cheated more than younger students (Hartshome and May, 1928), whilst on the whole in higher education, younger students cheated more than older students. However, Baird (1980) reported that younger university students were less likely to cheat than older students.

Research on the prevalence of cheating and the age of students was conducted by researchers using the survey developed by Davis et al (1992). Table 2.7.1 below lists a sample of the prevalence statistics for university students reports of their cheating in secondary school and university. Respondents were asked to report whether they had cheated in high school and whether they had cheated in college. Two findings were readily apparent from these data. Firstly males reported more cheating than females and secondly, cheating when the respondents were younger appeared to be more prolific than when they were older.

Table 2.7.1. Prevalence statistics for recalled self-reported cheating in secondary school and university (%)

Authors	School		University	
	M	F	M	F
Davis, Mayleben, Judson, Brink and Davis (1990)	72	51	64	46
	71	64	18	9
	77	56	23	12
Davis, Noble, Zak and Dreyer (1994)	60	51	0	20
	79	76	61	43
Huss, Cumyn, Roberts, Davis, Yandell and Giordano (1993)	73	40	77	50
Davis and Ludvigson (1995)	70+	70+	40-60	40-60
Hilker and Peter (1996)	34	19	9	3

Differences between the prevalence of cheating in high school and university were apparent elsewhere in the literature also. Schab (1966) reported that girls thought that cheating was most prevalent in secondary school whereas the boys felt cheating to be most prevalent in university and primary school. Indeed cheating may well be 'learned' in secondary school (Moffat, 1990). Baird (1980) reported that 85% of respondents said that they had cheated at least once in high school and 75% said they cheated at university. A similar trend was reported by Rittman (1996). Rittman found that 78% of non-honours students and 56% of honours students reported that they had cheated in high school. This contrasted with the overall cheating rate of 16% cheating in university

(100% of cheaters said they had never been caught). Singhal (1982) reported a similarly low self-report detection rate (3%) for university students. Davis and Ludvigson (1995) reported that most students were repeat offenders with an average range of 8 cheating acts reported for high school and 4 for college.

3. Ability

i) Secondary education

Ellenburg (1973) reported that higher ability school students as measured by GPA (Grade Point Average) were less likely to alter the marks they gained on a maths test. Similar findings were reported by Hartshorne and May (1928) even when socio-economic status was partialled out. Cheaters were viewed by students to be of lower ability (Evans and Craig, 1990, Schab, 1996; Woods, 1957) indeed, Rost and Wild (1994) claimed that for German students, lower grades were associated with a higher incidence of cheating. Class standing (as perceived by teachers) was found to positively correlate with reported cheating in primary school children (Kanfer and Duerfeldt, 1968).

ii) Higher education

Able students in higher education were reported to cheat less than lower ability students (Antion and Michael, 1983; Bronzaft, Stuart and Blum, 1973; Kamal and Maruyama, 1994). Bronzaft, Stuart and Blum (1973) claimed that students who scored highly on a 'pre-test' exam cheated less as measured by cheating on an intervention style exam. However, what was not made clear was whether such students had cheated in the first exam in order to get their good grade on the first test, or whether they had cheated using methods other than those identified by the duplication technique used on the intervention test.

American students with high goal GPAs were found to cheat more (Genereux and McLeod, 1995), whilst Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) conversely reported that students who set themselves higher academic standards were slightly less likely to cheat. Drake (1941) claimed that no students in the top 25% ability group reported cheating, whilst only 12% of cheaters were in the lowest 25% ability group. In Britain, higher ability students reported that they both cheated less and engaged in fewer types of cheating behaviour (Newstead et al, 1996).

High achievers from several cultures were reported to view cheating as having a wide spread prevalence (Evans, Craig and Meitzel, 1993). However, this may have been an artefact of

honesty. For example those people who filed correct tax returns were far more likely to overestimate the prevalence of corruption (Webley, 2001, personal communication). According to Platt-Jendrek (1992), higher achievers were less likely to report that they had observed cheating in higher education.

2.8 Correlates of cheating

Correlates of cheating refer to all of the variables that researchers have studied alongside cheating in order to gain a wider understanding of cheating. The range of variables studied is extensive and a few have been reviewed here to give a flavour of the types of research conducted. The range of evidence for each correlate did not necessarily cover both secondary and higher education. A greater proportion of studies were at the tertiary level of education. It appeared that secondary level researchers used the education system (i.e., classroom characteristics and learning styles) as a focus for their research. Where there was enough literature to merit division into two, educational level has been used as an organising framework for the following discussion of correlates of cheating.

1. University students' perceptions of the seriousness of cheating

Ames and Eskridge (1992) reported that students who had been on ethics courses viewed cheating behaviours more leniently than those students who had not been on ethics courses. However, these students did not translate their lenient views into an increased prevalence of cheating behaviour. The perception that respondents cheated less and were more ethical than their peers was detected by Stevens (1984) whilst non-cheaters perceived cheating behaviour more seriously than cheaters (Tom and Borin, 1988). Further, leniency towards exams specifically was reported only by students who only engaged in exam cheating.

Spanish students were less neutral towards cheating behaviours than Arabic and American students. American students were most negative towards behaviours that involved collaboration, whilst these were the behaviours that were most positively perceived by Arabic students (Kuehn, Stanwyck and Holland, 1990). Similarly, Pennington (1996) reported that New Zealand students were least likely to perceive collaborative behaviours as cheating. Plagiarism and collaboration were perceived with different levels of seriousness for students studying at two British universities, but overall, like Pennington (1996), the same survey revealed that the less seriously perceived behaviours were related to coursework (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995).

McLaughlin and Ross (1989) found that active behaviours were more seriously rated than passive behaviours and, like Pennington (1996), exams were reported as the most serious context for cheating. Further, study methods were perceived as least likely to be cheating as was homework by the students in Michaels and Miethe's (1989) study. Behaviours that were perceived to be more serious were reported to occur less frequently (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995).

2. University students' reasons for cheating

Reasons given for cheating by university students were many and varied. However, the most frequently reported reasons centred on similar themes. Cheating was seen as a route of less effort and the best way to get ahead (Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen, 1994; Stevens and Stevens, 1987); a method of getting a better grade and saving time (Baird, 1980; Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995; Pennington, 1996), because work interfered with study time (Davis and Ludvigson, 1995). Competition for grades was mentioned as reasons for cheating by Singhal (1982) and Stevens (1984) and Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, (1995). That cheating would improve grades was endorsed by both cheaters and non-cheaters alike (Rittman, 1996).

Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor (1992) reported that 88% of students would allow another person to see their answers on an exam if he or she was a friend. However, only three reasons for cheating were given as forced-choice options in their survey. 'Other' reasons volunteered by students on the survey included allowing another person to see their answers if it was known that they understood the material. Pennington (1996) also reported that helping friends was a frequently cited reason for cheating. Davis and Ludvigson (1995) reported cheating in order to enhance grades even though studying had taken place was frequently cited as acceptable, whilst Robert and Rabinowitz (1992) found that students 'with a need' were seen as less of a cheater than those who cheated through laziness. According to Steininger, Johnson and Kirtis (1964), nearly 100% of the students in their survey claimed that cheating could be justified in some situations and that the more negative the situation, the more justified was the cheating.

Causes of cheating were not perceived by the students in Genereaux and McLeod's (1995) study to differ according to whether or not the cheating was planned or spontaneous. For these students cheating was most likely to occur when teachers did not care about cheating and set unfair exams or when grades were linked to finances. Payne and Nantz (1994) found that the metaphors that students used to describe cheating may indicate causative factors. For example

cheating was seen as a game where winning was important, as an addiction or a disease and as an easy way out.

Reasons given for not cheating included cheating as wrong or immoral and dishonest (Newstead et al, 1996), the cost of getting caught was too high and that the likelihood of being caught was too high (Graham et al, 1994).

3. Academic orientation

This section on academic orientation is a discussion of the studies that were in the applied setting of the learning environment, and were not focused on perceptions of cheating. There was a degree of overlap with the causes of cheating, especially regarding aspects such as teacher characteristics.

i) Secondary education

Calabrese and Cochran (1990) claimed that cheating was more likely to occur in alienated students who perceived the school and teachers to be unfair. Anderman, Greisinger, and Westerfield (1998) investigated learning issues related to cheating and found that cheaters perceived school as performance oriented. Such cheaters were typically also less mastery oriented and used more self handicapping strategies and fewer deep learning strategies. Cheating and work avoidance in school were also found to increase when the drive to fail increased (Rost and Wild, 1994)

Evans and Craig (1990) found that teachers who were perceived as dull, boring, performance oriented, had poor learning objectives, taught difficult material and who were unfriendly would encounter more cheating. Marking on a curve was felt to lead to inevitable failure for some students (Montor, 1971).

ii) Higher education

Pulvers and Diekhoff (1999) suggested that students who cheated perceived their learning environment to be less personalised, less satisfying and task oriented, whilst Abouserie (1997) suggested that Welsh students with a deep approach to studying cheated less. Similarly, Newstead et al (1996) reported that British students who were studying for personal, intrinsic reasons were less likely to cheat than those who wanted a degree as a means to an end. German

students were found by Evans, Craig and Meitzel (1993) to be less likely to attribute cheating to external factors than were American students.

Learning and grade orientation (LOGO) was studied by several researchers. Learning orientation was found to be positively and negatively related to cheating (Huss, Curnyn, Roberts, Davis, Yandell and Giordano, 1993; Weiss, Gilbert, Giordano and Davis, 1993). Grade orientation was more likely only to be positively related to cheating (Huss et al, 1993). Davis, Noble, Zak and Dreyer (1994) found that American students claimed they were learning oriented, but that their cheating behaviour suggested they were grade oriented. This was in contrast to Australian students who were more likely to report themselves as learning oriented and behave accordingly. Norton, Tilley, Newstead and Franklyn-Stokes (2001) reported that the more students adopted a 'Rules of the game' approach to essay writing the more they tended to cheat. 'Rules of the game' referred to a range of strategies that included lecturer impressing and faking bibliographies. All of the strategies were based on beliefs held by students and not on the actual efficacy of those strategies.

In a series of learned industriousness studies, students were found to resort to cheating less quickly if they had been given effort training (Eisenberger and Masterson, 1983; Eisenberger and Shank, 1985). It was argued by Eisenberger and colleagues that the ability to persist distracted the students from the temptation to cheat. High need achievers were found to cheat more frequently and move up a greater number of letter grades as a result of cheating (Johnson, 1981).

4. Parental and peer pressure

Having friends who cheated was often perceived as a cause of cheating in both levels of education (Evans and Craig, 1990; Michaels and Miethe, 1989), as were parental pressures (McCabe, 1992). Schab (1991) reported that parental pressures as a reason for cheating in secondary school was as common as it was 30 years previously. Gay (1990) reported that school teachers themselves perceived parental pressure and peer pressure to be the main causes of cheating.

School students perceived that cheaters felt pressured to do well (Evans and Craig, 1990) and that parental pressure was a major determinant of alienation (Calabrese and Cochran, 1990) which in itself may lead to cheating (Montor, 1971). Parental help was perceived as cheating by some school students but not all. Parental help was permitted if the main aim of the help was to promote learning and understanding (Curtis, 1996).

Fear of failure was reported to be an indicator of propensity to cheat (Evans and Craig, 1990; Monte and Fish, 1980) and was the most frequently cited reason by secondary school respondents in Schab's studies of cheating over a 30 year period. University students described as in high need of approval were reported to cheat more (Jacobson, Berger and Millham, 1970).

Research into the theory of planned behaviour has been variously reported as demonstrating a link between intention and behaviours regarding cheating in university students. Normative beliefs of firstly, close friends and secondly, family regarding cheating were found to be predictors of cheating by Devries and Azjen (1971). However, for Israeli students, it was the family that were the prime components of the normative beliefs (Enker, 1987), followed by the peer group.

Fraternity membership was typically associated with more cheating than non-fraternity membership (Anzivino, 1997; Drake, 1941; Moffat, 1990), as systems were in place for fraternity members to receive help with 'studying'. Members of fraternities were also more likely to be approached for help with cheating (Platt-Jendrek, 1992).

5. Moral development

The relationship between moral development and deviance was affected, according to Rest and Thoma (1985) by age, gender and education. Situational forces were also accepted by Kohlberg to be a mediator between moral development and deviance (Lanza-Kaduce and Klug, 1986). This brief review of the research has led to the conclusion that moral development as a factor in explaining cheating was a poor contender for explaining any great degree of variance between cheaters and non-cheaters.

Little direct evidence linking moral development and cheating exists and of those researchers investigating the relationship, questionable methodologies were employed. For example, Bruggeman and Hart (1996) used the Rest Defining Issues Test to examine the relationship between actual cheating and moral development as defined by Kohlberg's stage theory. They found that whatever the stage of moral reasoning, all participants cheated to some extent. Similar results were reported by Leming (1986).

Rest's Defining Issues Test (DIT) was a popular instrument for measuring moral development. This was probably because it was a convenient tool to administer and it was purported to measure moral actions (as opposed to moral judgements). Two potentially problematic methodological and theoretical issues arose however, from the widespread use of the DIT. Firstly, when scoring the tests, the ideal situation was to have all participants falling either into

the moral development stages or between them. Those that spanned one or more levels (and many did) were often discarded.

Secondly, the age groups studied, (usually post-adolescence) are assumed to be post-conventional in their moral reasoning. Consequently only those participants with high post-conventional scores (p-scores) were retained. Furthermore, in those instances where other stages were investigated, a single value from the p-scores was employed and extrapolated to fit the participants into pre-conventional, conventional and post-conventional groups. This detracted from the DIT as a tool as it was specifically designed to measure the first two levels of moral development and therefore extrapolation should not have been necessary.

However, the interpretation of the cheating and moral reasoning research has also been affected by the validity of the model upon which the moral theories were based. The validity of stages five and six of Kohlberg's moral development theory have been disputed, as have the role of gender differences. It was thought by many authors, for example, Gilligan and Murphy (1986) that the last two stages of Kohlberg's theory did not capture the late adolescent and early adult population as presupposed. Adolescent age groups were found to temporarily regress to stage 2. This regression finding is important because cheating researchers have relied heavily on participants between the ages of 18 and 22 (the late adolescent, early adult age group).

Cheating, as has been demonstrated elsewhere is probably both social and moral (McClaughlin and Ross, 1989). Cheating is also by its nature applied, i.e., not abstract like a researcher's cheating scenario. When free to choose (invent) their own moral scenarios, females opted for a care-orientation (Gilligan, 1982), which suggests females may understand and react to cheating in a different way to males. However, Thoma (1986) noted the lack of empirical research regarding the care-orientation construct.

The DIT and other moral development questionnaires were not the only tools used to assess morality and cheating. Mitchell (1985) used Kelly's covariance model to measure differences in morality. Participants either had to report about their own actions or a confederates. When the reason for not cheating was because it was not worth it and surveillance was high, situational factors were given as causes for non-cheating. Higher levels of moral reasoning level were found to be related to cheating when the perceived risk of cheating was high, but when the risk was low, cheating occurred regardless of level of moral reasoning (Leming, 1979).

No differences between Catholic and secular university students were reported by Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen (1994) or between Catholic and secular secondary school students

Bruggeman and Hart (1996). However, cheating was highly correlated with lying and the cheaters' perceived the cheating behaviours to be less severe and that other students cheated more than the respondents themselves. Israeli Catholic school pupils were reported by Guttman (1984) to cheat more than secular school pupils, but that the higher confession rates of the Catholic pupils may have been a consequence of the confession-is-good culture.

Perhaps a more useful focus for cheating research therefore is the use of risk perception instead of measures of morality. Few studies have found any differences between those who reported themselves to be religious (a measure of moral development for Bruggeman and Hart, 1996). When an element of risk was introduced, any differences between morality measures disappeared.

This focus away from morality and towards risk perception also more makes sense if moral development is not seen as an isolated human characteristic which only certain groups of the population are thought to be taught or able to master (e.g., those at religious schools). Honor programmes in the USA and the PSME (personal social and moral education) programmes in the UK are designed specifically to teach 'character education'. In theory, therefore a far wider section of the population should share these characteristics.

6. Other personality correlates of cheating

The relationship between test anxiety and cheating is covered in more depth in chapter 6, however, briefly, Shelton and Hill (1969) reported that debilitating test anxiety scores were correlated with cheating in secondary school students, whilst Bronzaft, Stuart and Blum (1973) found no relationship between anxiety and cheating in university students and Antion and Michael (1983) reported only a weak correlation. Type A behaviour characteristics were reported to be associated with lower rates of cheating, whilst type B behaviour characteristics were associated with higher rates of cheating (Weiss, Gilbert, Giordano and Davis, 1993).

The relationship of cheating to locus of control is discussed in chapter 5. However, alienation is a measure of out-group perception that has been applied to adolescents by researchers such as Calabrese and Cochran (1990). Cheaters have been found to perceive school as more non-inclusive than non-cheaters. Further, a related topic to alienation, that of neutralisation (e.g., Haines, Diekhoff, LaBeff and Clark, 1986), whilst mentioned briefly in this chapter is discussed in greater depth in chapter 5. Neutralisation has been used as a framework through which

justifications for cheating have been explained. Most of these justifications were found to be external to the self in nature.

Other issues to do with cheating, such as teacher perceptions of cheating and the differences between staff and students regarding cheating form the focus of chapter 7. Intra-student differences in the perception of cheating is the focus of chapter 4.

The final correlates of cheating research findings presented here relate to personality theory. Mackinnon (1938) used a psychoanalytic framework to explore the differences between cheaters and non-cheaters. He suggested that cheaters were more verbally aggressive and that they had an anal erotic character. Kelly and Worrell (1978) described cheaters in similarly expressive ways. Males were reported to be 'vindictive, opportunistic', whilst females were reported to be 'socially alienated, impulsive and conspicuously attention seeking. The act of cheating itself rather than the status accrued from high grades may [have been] reinforcing' (p187).

2.9 The wider educational context

Cheating in school cannot be studied without reference to the education system and the society in which the cheaters and non-cheaters live. This has been demonstrated through the discussion of some of the issues unique to the American way of life (e.g., part-time work pressures during school time). Other issues have also been highlighted that affect whether or not a person will cheat, for example, learning grade orientation.

Both of these issues have been briefly studied in relation to cheating, but not in this country. At various intervals throughout the thesis, reference has been made to these wider issues and how they may impact on the students' life.

It is important to place cheating in context. Cheating is perhaps but one facet of the coping strategies that adolescents use in (and out of) school. As education is the overall setting for cheating, it should be used to explain student behaviour. Education is a very wide umbrella and encompasses many different psychological and sociological phenomena. It would take several theses to capture all that the wider field of education has to offer, but a flavour of how it may relate to cheating has been given to place cheating in the wider educational context.

2.10 Summary

The literature regarding cheating in education is, as has been demonstrated, heavily biased towards higher education. The methodologies that have been employed in the study of cheating

have not been overly ambitious (due to ethical considerations) and the designs of studies have, in the main, been less than robust. This has meant that confidence in the individual differences that have been reported is low and that differences in the characteristics of the cheater and non-cheater have had to be interpreted with caution. It has also been difficult to draw any firm conclusions about the correlates of cheating other than that they appeared to have been affected by situational factors.

Several research questions can be identified from the literature which formed the basis for this thesis. For example, the dearth of research on cheating in Britain, coupled with the total lack of British cheating research with secondary school populations has left a *tabula rasa* in terms of what research is necessary (see Chapter 1). Therefore, asking simple exploratory questions has been the focus for each of the subsequent chapters. In addition, the foundations of what is known about cheating have been stabilised through the use of a range of methodologies (triangulation).

Which simple questions that needed to be asked, were identified from the first exploratory study presented in Chapter 3. Focus groups of Guides and Scouts were asked to discuss what they understood by the word 'cheating' and how they viewed cheating within the school situation. The qualitative data gained from the focus groups was the first step in a process of gathering data that investigated cheating using both between method and within method triangulation. Through the use of triangulation in these ways it was hoped that stable foundations for future research could be made. As Jick (1979) pointed out:

"The convergent approach uses qualitative methods to illuminate 'behaviour in context' (Chronbach, 1975) where situational factors play a prominent role." (p609)

3

Study 1

"In maths, the teacher has no control ... everybody just shouts out the answers"

Dan (focus group participant)



TES 20/4/01

Exploring students' understanding of cheating

3.1 Introduction

This first methodology chapter examines how adolescents approach the question 'What is cheating?'. The British younger adolescent population have not as yet been canvassed for their views about cheating and only a handful of studies have examined the perceptions of older British adolescents (e.g., Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995). The method through which the answers to this question was sought was the focus group. The focus group has not as yet to the author's knowledge, been employed to answer this type of question in the USA. Current perceptions about what cheating is and is not, are primarily based on questionnaire research with older adolescents (undergraduates) and adults (teaching staff). There are many methodological and theoretical reasons as to why a research technique generally thought to be valid only with adult participants is being employed in this instance (e.g Blizter, 1991). One theoretical reason is that although adults have been used in the development of cheating behaviour questionnaires, their perceptions have been found to differ over the exact nature and seriousness of individual cheating behaviours (e.g., Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995; Singhal, 1982). Similarly, research using qualitative methods has found that adolescents and adults tend to present differing perspectives on the research issue of interest (e.g., Hale, Tardy and Farley-Lucas, 1995). In the field of education these different perspectives have often been ignored, with the adult perspective taking precedence.

Byers and Wilcox (1990) suggested that the use of the focus group as a research method was especially appropriate when the aim was to explore what '...lay persons know about a topic' (p410). For the current research, adolescents and not adults were the target population and what they had to say, and *the way* in which they said it was the fundamental source of data.

As the aim of this study was to explore the constructs that adolescents used to perceive cheating, the adolescents' voice was treated as a valid source of data. At face value this was a simple task requiring only a questionnaire. Participants would have to merely tick those behaviours which they deemed to be cheating. However, as Fass (1986) pointed out, a common understanding of 'cheating' does not exist and there is little written in handbooks about cheating (usually given in terms of 'unfair advantage'). Cheating has yet to be adequately operationalised (Anderman, Griesinger and Westerfield, 1998). It is doubtful whether UK secondary schools have handbooks or guidelines regarding cheating. Barnett and Dalton (1981) said, on the lack of commonality: 'There is evidence that some students cheat because they do not understand that particular behaviours constitute cheating or they refuse to accept common definitions of cheating' (p548). They asked whether participants thought cheating behaviours were right or wrong. However, statistical analyses of such frequency data do not necessarily correlate with the respondents *own* perceptions of cheating. The terms right and wrong can invite closed and or open-ended responses.

When conducting research with children and adolescents, the researcher has to distinguish between two (at least) types of talk. Firstly, adolescents may well be competent enough to discuss cheating in terms of the received wisdom of teachers, parents and society, but what are their own views?

Secondly, the questions that have been developed by the researcher may be understood in a different way to that which the researcher intended. For example whether or not the same judgement criteria between researcher and participant were employed regarding cheating, has not been made clear by researchers such as Barnett and Dalton (1981). This use of externally imposed (researcher developed) behaviour lists in questionnaires, do not allow analysis of the participants' perspective. At best they can provide insights into behaviours, which on a theoretical level, can be wrong. Few studies in the literature report how the behaviour checklists were developed. This suggests two possibilities. Firstly it is possible that the researchers 'thought up' a list of behaviours based upon incidents that they had come across in their capacity as 'teachers'.

Secondly, so called students (often graduates) may have been asked to generate lists of all the kinds of cheating they thought possible. Both of these explanations lead to the conclusions that however developed, the *process and results* were not considered important enough for further study or comment. Both methods of development are potentially flawed. The researchers checklist may consist of notorious incidents and behaviours which the faculty perceived to be cheating (because the system punished the offenders). The student list may be, as previously mentioned, an hypothetical one which will not necessarily reflect what they *think* cheating is; students may demonstrate an ability to discuss a topic for example, moral issues (competence), but definitions of actual cheating behaviours may stem from performance. For example, a student may be very familiar with the behaviour of copying (and all that that conveys) because it may be a behaviour they frequently exhibit (performance). Their construct of cheating may therefore be focused around this kind of behaviour as opposed to, for example, impersonation, a behaviour which they may have only heard about, but not experienced at first hand.

As discussed in Chapter 2, Hartshorne and May's (1928) research concerned the devising of tests and techniques for measuring deceptive behaviours with school children. The methods they used studied cheating from the perspective of trying to 'manufacture' it. Why the children fell into the traps or how the children perceived the cheating was completely overlooked. The assumption put forward by adults, was that if a behaviour was physically possible, then it must have been cheating. This was despite the fact that some children may have been unable to conceptualise the underlying intricate and complicated abstract ideas which the researcher wanted to study (for example, motivation and moral development). The work of Hartshorne and May has spawned too many studies 'blindly' taking the 'detection and how much' pathway. Examples include those of Hetherington and Feldman (1964) who set up three examination situations to detect cheating. The results (cheating or not cheating) were correlated with a variety of personal, social and educational variables. From detection rates and basic demographic information, Hetherington and Feldman's wide reaching (or far fetched) conclusions followed: 'The social-active cheater is readily characterised as an individual who is unable to achieve in either academic or social situations because of his dependency needs. He is a first born who never relinquished the infantile desire to be protected and succored by others' (p217). The validity of such conclusions has to be questioned. Data in the form of codes and counts cannot provide such rich and detailed insights into human behaviour. Although all investigations will have methodological weaknesses, many cheating studies suffer from, to a greater or lesser extent, similar validity problems.

Karlins, Michaels and Podlogar (1988) recognised the problems inherent in using questionnaires to collect information on the frequency of cheating, i.e., the data obtained were what students *said* they did and not what they actually did. By looking at what students actually did, indirectly, Karlins et al suggested that what students perceived cheating to be could be studied. Collecting these kind of data has been notoriously difficult to do and raises ethical questions. Karlins et al chose to directly study cheating through copying. They aimed to validate previous estimates of cheating frequencies. By their own admission they were not entirely successful, because the task on which cheating could occur was too easy to complete (students were 'given' the opportunity to submit one piece of work for two different courses). Cheating in the event, may have been 'not worth it'. These situational variables were introduced by the authors, to explain their results which suggested that to fully appreciate 'copying', the students' perspective of it as a cheating behaviour *in everyday life* needed to be studied. However, as pointed out in Chapter 2, if this had been done, still only one behaviour would have been investigated.

Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor (1992) incorporated the participants' perspective into a large scale survey on cheating. They asked questions such as 'Is it wrong to cheat?'. Respondents could respond 'yes' and more interestingly, 'no'. Asking such questions brings the researcher closer toward investigating what *students* perceived to be cheating.

In addition to asking whether it was wrong to cheat, Davis et al posed general questions asking whether students should cheat if the risk was high/low etc. Although potentially informative, cheating is type and situation dependent/specific (Genereux and McLeod, 1995). For a survey to be comprehensive in this manner (right-wrong/ high risk-low risk) would probably require hundreds of questions. The questions would then need to be analysed and interpreted according to the *style* in which the respondents themselves interpreted them (i.e., the situation). This would make both the reliability and validity of such responses (and conclusions) open to criticism. Encouragingly however, Davis et al also employed scenarios to try to account for situation and context. Once again though, the assumption that cheating, a multifaceted concept, could be removed from the everyday life situation and successfully described in a few sentences on paper, in what is still a limited/inflexible setting, is still methodologically problematic. Many studies have employed the use of scenarios and self reports, the results of which may well be valid.

Nevertheless, approaching such cheating research questions from different angles may help to indicate the extent of the validity (triangulation). It is generally accepted that the status of a behaviour in relation to cheating is affected by both exogenous and endogenous variables (e.g.,

Whitley, 1998). Baird (1980) should therefore be commended for encouraging respondents to tick more than one reason (out of eight) for cheating. However, this method still may not have accessed the complexities noted, even if the results were found to be similar to other traditional studies. All researchers using the same flawed design process may well have similar findings, but repetition does not make congruous findings necessarily valid.

An example of research which was qualitative, which could be used to validate (through triangulation) existing work was conducted by Blaxter and Tight (1993). Undergraduates were interviewed about their reasons for undertaking a degree. It was concluded that motivation for studying fell into general groups. These matched those found by Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) (stop gap, means to an end and personal), which positively correlated with self-reports of frequency of cheating. Of course, correlations do not imply causes. However, the findings of Newstead et al offered researchers more information with which to develop cheating research a step further. This also suggested that if these simple qualitative techniques were employed to study cheating, similar additional sources of information may be obtained.

Few cheating studies have employed qualitative methods in either the pilot or the main investigations. Green and Saxe (1993) devoted a few sentences to discussing the development of a cheating behaviour checklist. He used one four-person focus group and selected 15 behaviours from the discussion for his questionnaire. It is not known how representative the behaviours were of the target population. It is also not known to what *extent* the chosen behaviours were perceived to be cheating.

Research into business ethics has perhaps given more insight into the participants' perspective than traditional cheating studies. This may have been because the word 'ethics' may not convey a concrete set of behaviours in the same way that 'cheating' can. Ethical issues are associated with findings related to 'perceptions' more so than 'types' or 'frequencies'. Using the word 'ethics' implies some kind of discursive process.

Stevens (1984) reviewed the kinds of methods employed in the study of ethics and concluded that open ended methodologies using narratives achieved the 'better' results.

Using focus groups to study cheating questions was a departure from previous research methods in this field. It is the individual respondent or participant that is usually studied in cheating investigations. With focus groups, group effects may compromise the validity of responses. However, Wang and Anderson (1994) suggested that cheating involves decision making in

situations of joint responsibility. It seems sensible therefore, to encourage a discussion of such ideas.

Whilst discussion should be encouraged, other group effects need to be considered. These effects do not apply solely to the focus group, but to situations in which group decision making may be involved. For example, there is the risky shift (group polarisation), where a group's opinion drifts towards an extreme position and not the average stand point (Sussman, Burton, Dent, Stacy and Flay, 1991). The novelty of discussion in a focus group about cheating may cause participants to gather their opinions more unfavourably (or favourably) around a group of behaviours. Alternatively, the focus group situation may lead to more creative brainstorming, another group effect, this time synergistic (Sussman et al, 1991).

From the literature it would appear that the focus group can answer this research question standing alone from either quantitative or other qualitative methods (e.g., Hale, Tardy and Farley-Lucas, 1995). However, most praise (in the positivist sense) has been forthcoming when the focus group was presented as an 'intervention' (e.g., Sussman et al, 1991) sandwiched between pre and post-test measures and *disregarded* as a source of data in itself.

Another popular alternative use has been firstly, a combination of the qualitative with quantitative. For example, VanMeter, Yokoi and Pressley, (1994) used original preliminary focus group ideas combined with additional one-to-one interviews and subsequent focus groups, in an almost 'expert system' technique. A second alternative was quantitative with qualitative. For example Garton and Pratt, (1995) used the focus group as a precursor to the development of an inventory.

In each of these cases, the studies mentioned sought to justify the methods employed by (naturally) arguing that they would answer the research question. The justifications were usually aimed at appeasing those (usually positivist) researchers who frowned upon the focus group *per se*. This resulted in a repetition of why and how the spoken word and self-report were advantageous and *not* on justifying how the method could be used to fit the niche posed by the research aims/questions/goals. This apologetic approach did not clarify the technique, nor did it impress upon the reader its diverse and robust applications. It has been successfully employed by both academia and industry resulting in myriad applications (e.g., advertising, marketing, educational research on essay writing). However it is used, it produces material (data) that would not emerge from other kinds of 'conversations', or methodologies (Morgan, 1988).

The idea of the 'conversation' is given another dimension when children and adolescents are involved. Studies with children, usually gave the adult 'view and perspective' on child

behaviour more credence. Blitzer (1991) believed that the focus group was a way to redress the balance and introduce the child's voice to the world of research, as a legitimate perspective for study: to let their voice become an active (rather than passive) object of investigations. Indeed the academic can take the focus group further than the market researcher (a traditional strong-hold of the focus group). He/she can choose to look for motives, themes, perspectives - ways of talking about and viewing the world - to understand the voices of the group members as both a sample of a specific group and as individuals functioning within a microcosm.

Where on the interview-participant observation dimension of research the focus group lies depends (once again) on the aims of the research and the views of the researcher (Morgan, 1988). There are those who feel that the 'light-the-blue-touch-paper-and-stand-well-back' method is best, because it avoids the problems associated with the researcher 'contaminating' the data. The researcher or moderator suggests a topic to the group; the group discusses it without intervention from the researcher. This technique has its place, but it does not necessarily transfer to all situations. For example, children may find this technique too inhibiting and therefore careful guiding and re-assurance from the moderator is required - at least to start things off and build confidence.

The perspective which the researcher takes ultimately affects the reliability and validity of the data. The researcher sets the series of topics to be discussed which arguably meets face validity. However, focus group research is more often criticised over criterion, instrumental and theoretical validity. Criterion validity is the ability to show that the data obtained, matches that which has been generated by an alternative but pre-validated procedure. The field of psychometrics is the traditional home of the many empirical measures of reliability and validity. For criterion validity, psychometric tests rarely obtain validity coefficients much above correlations of 0.3 (poor), yet obtaining this value level, has been argued as a stringent adherence to the 'good research method' - whatever that may be (Morgan, 1988). Problems also arise with instrumental validity. It is not possible be sure if any tests measure what researchers say they do, as for example, intelligence, is an abstract concept. Both of these validity problems are dealt with in focus group research by triangulation. On its own the 'single round of focus groups' as a tool is questionable. Triangulation involves a process of going backwards, or forwards (or both) to other tools or focus groups, to check, re-check and validate the data (Knodel, 1993). This can be done by, for example, developing a questionnaire based on the results of a preliminary focus group. This is one of the more accepted validation techniques as the relationship between focus group

and questionnaire can be quantified. However, if the purpose of the research is to explore an issue and learn about it from the focus group members, then going over the transcripts to identify themes and build an understanding of the issues is relevant and perhaps the best method. Gaps of knowledge or ambiguities of speech will be evident (VanMeter et al, 1994). Going back to the population for clarification, or to fill knowledge gaps is just as valid, if not more so than the questionnaire. The questionnaire usually is at worst, forced choice and at best categorical. It loses the richness of the spoken word. It does not, for example, allow for further probing of issues.

Theoretical validity (construct validity) is perhaps the hardest of all the validities to resolve with qualitative research. It is a higher order form of face validity. How can something which is not visible be measured? According to Kirk and Miller (1986) 'experiments' cannot test theoretical validity as easily as qualitative methods, because they cannot penetrate through the other layers of validity so well. Researchers in the field of 'computer simulation of thinking' argued that theoretical validity based on 'speech' (and thus the self-report) used a form of protocol analysis. Protocol analysis was thought to be inherently biased and prone to mis-interpretation (Banyard and Hayes, 1991). Banyard and Hayes strongly suggested that respondents in investigations were not (or could not be) aware of their true thoughts and feelings about the tasks or topics with which they were confronted. However, Ericsson and Simon (1984) suggested that 'think aloud' could be used as a viable method as long as the person was describing what they were doing at that moment, (rather than what they previously did) and that secondly, what they were saying was reflected in their actual behaviour. Indeed, Morgan and Kreuger (1993) championed the focus group as an ideal tool to enable articulation of thoughts, especially when complex behaviours or motivations were being studied. It is useful for gaining insights and can make participants aware of things that they had not thought of before.

However, Youngs, Rathage, Mullis and Mullis (1990) pointed out that children have been found to have problems with recalling (whether verbally or not) events even after a short period of time (one month) had passed. To counter this view, it must be borne in mind that the context of the research is important. Focus group research does not have to aim to find out whether or not the group members can recall for example, cheating or not. The emphasis should be in exploring views about cheating and what the participants think about it. This kind of (mis) understanding of the focus group purpose is found in many areas of research. Morgan and Kreuger (1993) made the same comment about the criticism levelled at the focus group of produced conformity (see later). They suggested that researchers often confuse focus groups with other group methods.

Before discussing reliability, reactivity should be briefly discussed. Language comprehension in adolescents is different to that of adults. If agreement occurs on a topic as a result of reactivity (the measurement/ intervention produces a change in attitudes and knowledge), there may be the beneficial outcome of a series of discussed and organised thoughts designed to best convey what the participants collectively feel. Adolescent participants who may not be used to articulating their thoughts proficiently without the use of a sounding board may well use reactivity to achieve clarity. For the present study, the focus group process required some form of *intervention* and was a necessary part of the discussion process. This was because, as previously mentioned, cheating behaviours are carried out at the individual and group level; individual differences and general behaviour trends needed to be identified.

The prospect of poor reliability may be a just cause for not using focus groups. Reliability is argued to be more in keeping with the positivist tradition. However, positivists should not deny the human ability, need or desire to formulate, reformulate and *change* opinions and views. If they did not change, the requirement of good research to demonstrate, for example, test re-test reliability would not need to function as a superior research goal. Reliability of the test-re-test variety can be examined through triangulation. Later studies can go back to the adolescent population to confirm or reject these focus group findings. Split-half reliability is more complicated as it traditionally refers to individual questionnaire items. However, if the spirit of the term is kept, then studying more than one focus group may be a way of accessing reliability. However, it is arguable in this instance that demonstrating reliability may invalidate the research, as it prevents identification of the underlying intra and inter-individual emergent themes in the search for conformity across groups.

The evidence presented thus far identified a gap in the literature, which was the focus of this chapter. The field of academic dishonesty needs the answer to the question: what is cheating?, from the respondents' and in particular, the adolescents' perspective. However, there is also a second more general gap in the literature. It is interesting to note that only two of the cheating studies discussed in this chapter have been of UK research. Concluding from previous non-UK studies that cheating functions in the same way in this country compounds reliability and validity criticisms. Cultural differences may make generalisations from, for example, US populations to UK populations, low in ecological validity. The 'hypothesis' put forward by the media that the UK is five years behind the trends set in the USA may also bring into question issues of reliability of perceptions over time between US and UK populations.

3.2 Method

3.2.1 Participants

The participants were seven males aged between 11 and 16 and 11 females aged between 11 and 15 (a total of 18 participants). All the participants belonged to either the Scouting or Guiding movements, are youth based charity organisations which promote personal, social and moral development. Cheating is a sensitive topic whose natural environment is the school. Carrying out focus groups in the school setting may have led to under disclosure (Zeller, 1993). Therefore focus groups were conducted at the participants' after school club venues. None of the focus group participants were known to the researcher.

All of the participants were at secondary schools in Plymouth, except one male who had left school the previous summer. Participants were requested to give themselves pseudonyms to maintain a sense of anonymity and encourage frank discussion. The pseudonyms of the participants are given below in table 3.2.1 in group order, beginning with the first group to be run:

Table 3.2.1. Participant names, focus group allocation and year group in school.

Group 1 (male)	Year	Group 2 (female)	Year	Group 3 (male)	Year	Group 4 (female)	Year	Group 5 (female)	Year
Dan	10	Steve	7	X	7	Hi	9	Fred	9
Fred	12	Egg	7	Q	7	Marie	9	Kan	9
Tom	9	Jo	8			Beavis	8		
Joe	9	Raz	7						
Robbie	9	Kelly	7						
		Worm	7						

3.2.2 Materials

Pilot study

The university checklist was piloted for comprehensibility with a range of students from the secondary school at which the research worked as a teacher. The behaviour checklist was developed from the Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) cheating behaviour questionnaire (used with university students). The university checklist consisted of 21 behaviours which lecturers and undergraduates perceived to be cheating.

The version used with the focus groups is given in table 3.2.2. [Words in bold type were in the checklist given to the participants. They emphasised either key behaviours or words which subtly distinguished one behaviour from another]. Behaviours relating to plagiarism and paraphrasing were re-worded using copying as the key descriptor. Other minimal changes were

made to improve comprehensibility in a younger age group. In addition, references to homework were included with the original behaviours relating solely to coursework. An item relating to parental and teacher help with homework was also included.

Information letters (for parents and participants) and cheating behaviour checklists were handed out prior to discussion sessions.

A tape recorder and microphone, plus 120 minute cassette tapes were used to record the discussions. An additional cassette tape was used to play pre-recorded instructions. The instructions were also on a typed sheet for participants to read. Sticky labels were provided on which each participant wrote their pseudonyms. In anticipation of lots of talking a can of fizzy drink for each participant was also provided. A room was provided (by the organisations) which was out of the way from the main activities of the evening. Finally a topic guide sheet was used (appendix 1).

3.2.3 Preparation

Various Guide and Scout leaders were approached for their participation in the project. Several groups agreed to participate, but only two met the age range and number of young people needed for sampling purposes.

A week before the first focus group was set to run the investigator went to the Guide and Scout meetings to explain the project to the prospective participants and to hand out informed consent letters. The letter requested further contact with the investigator only if the parents of the young person did not wish them to participate. A cheating behaviour checklist was also distributed. Its function was explained as a 'primer' as to what kinds of topics would be in the discussion groups. It was presented to potential participants ahead of the focus group session as a moderator of reactivity (change in attitude caused by discussion). In such a situation it can serve to reduce bias/prejudice and enhance the responses because the participants have had time to mull over the ideas (Zeller, 1993). Reactivity was discussed in the introduction as a positive component of the focus group. Presenting the checklist ahead of time allowed participants to develop an idea of their own, which could then be supported and discussed within the group. Participants were reassured that the purpose of the checklist was not to find out whether the participants had or had not cheated at school.

Table 3.2.2. Behaviour checklist used with participants in the focus groups.

- A. Allowing your own coursework or homework to be copied by another student.
- B. Taking banned material into an examination or test (e.g. 'notes').
- C. Lying about medical (or for example, home circumstances) to get special consideration by examiners. For example, the examination board takes a more lenient view of your results or you are given extra time to complete an examination or test.
- D. Copying another student's coursework and they know about it (i.e., they let you).
- E. Lying about medical (or other circumstances) to get an extended deadline or let off from doing a piece of work or coursework.
- F. Handing in coursework or homework which came from an outside source (e.g. a former student offers to sell pre-prepared essays).
- G. Taking an examination or test for someone else or having someone else take an examination or test for you.
- H. In a situation where students mark each other's work, coming to an agreement with another student(s) to mark each other's work more generously than you should.
- I. Copying another student's coursework or homework without the student knowing about it.
- J. Deliberately gaining information about the contents of an examination paper or test before you take it.
- K. Making up results e.g. for a practical science experiment, because you didn't finish the experiment in class.
- L. Making sure that books in the library are available for yourself by deliberately mis-shelving them so that other students cannot find them, or by cutting out the relevant pages or chapter.
- M. Copying paragraphs from a text book, and re-arranging the words, to make them sound like you wrote them.
- N. Directly copying material from a book, without changing the words, for coursework or homework and saying that you made it up.
- O. Two or more students agreeing before hand to communicate answers to each other during an examination or test.
- P. Handing in coursework or homework that was done with the help of your parent(s)/guardian as if it was your own work.
- Q. Copying from a neighbour during an examination or test without them realising.
- R. Altering results of, for example, a geography project, so that you get the results that you want so that you can get a better mark.
- S. Doing another student's coursework or homework for them
- T. Handing in a piece of coursework or homework as an individual piece of work when it has actually been written jointly with another student
- U. Attempting to get your teacher to give you extra help or credit by taking them presents or by using your friendship with them.
- V. Handing in coursework or homework that was done with the help of your teacher(s), as if it was your own work.

3.2.4 Break characteristics of the focus groups

Break characteristics are a method which can be employed to overcome the problems associated with recalling behaviours or events. Participants of similar year groups were grouped together. They were only asked to discuss their particular situation and not to recall events from lower school, if for example they were in the upper school. The break characteristic of age was also important because of the introduction of many educational changes at a national level at the time of

the investigation. Some students were familiar with for example, Standard Assessment Tests (SATs) and others, as yet, were not.

Two separate sessions for first to third year and fourth and fifth year age groups were arranged for both males and females, thus four groups in total were anticipated, each hopefully containing five-to-six participants. However, the reality was a little different. Pragmatics forced the older female group to be split into two groups, one of three participants and one of two participants.

3.2.5 Procedure and ethics

At the beginning of each session the company or troop was informed of the age-range required and a request was made for volunteers. Those who agreed to participate had a brief re-explanation of the purpose (and participant rights) of the focus group, were invited to sign an informed consent sheet and asked to invent a name for themselves which they were to write in bold letters on a sticky label, so that each member of the group would be easily able to see it. The group were asked to individually write a short fictitious story (paragraph) about someone who had cheated (appendix 2). [This was employed as a method of dealing with a sensitive topic (Hoppe, Wells, Morrison, Gillmore and Wilson, 1995; Zeller, 1993). The stories were read aloud to help get things started and avoid the 'me too' syndrome]. The group then read the instruction sheet whilst simultaneously listening to a recorded version on cassette tape (appendix 3). This was in order that the instructions were 'doubly' taken in and to make sure that the slow-readers felt that they could take the time to understand what was required of them. The group members then introduced themselves on tape and each read aloud their story. The discussion went on from there and was based upon the topic guide questions. For example, participants were asked to generate things/ideas which they believed to be cheating. They then went through the behaviour checklist and discussed each behaviour. When the checklist had been completed, participants were asked if they had any other comments to add to the discussion. They were then thanked and debriefed. Participants were told how to contact the researcher should they have any concerns or further questions regarding the study.

3.3 Results

The focus group data were transcribed (appendix 4) and content analysis used to develop a list of cheating behaviours. The data were then read and re-read to uncover the perceptions of the status of those cheating behaviours. Finally, themes were selected which represented the

participants' perceptions of causes of cheating and a general discussion of cheating in school (based on the topic guide).

At this early stage in the development of the thesis, the use of grounded theory was a little pre-emptive. Grounded theory would be a systematic method which uses induction to arrive at a theory of a phenomenon. In this respect, the content analysis used here was systematic and inductive. However, it was not a theory of a phenomenon; the findings did not meet the criteria of fit, understanding, generality and control (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). The data could not be used to predict events in the real world. However, as part of a triangulative research method, the predictive power of the data may be assessed by going back to the population for further confirmation of categories.

Therefore, whilst grounded theory was not used in this instance it was employed in future studies that were less exploratory. Rather a thematic content analysis was used where the open-coding principles of grounded theory were applied in the development of categories. A description of the application of this technique has been detailed in Chapter 5, where it was used as part of a grounded theory analysis.

3.3.1 Categories of cheating behaviours.

The cheating behaviours that were recalled by the participants in the initial free recall component of the discussion were categorised by the researcher into conceptually similar items. The stories that the participants wrote as part of the ice-breaker were not included, as these were not part of the focus group discussion. Items that were conceptually similar were clustered into categories. Five loose categories were developed. The first type was labelled **cheating requiring no preparation**. This included looking around in an examination in an attempt to see other people's answers and whispering answers. In order to carry out these behaviours, minimal preparation before the evaluative event was required. These behaviours were mostly non verbal. The second cheating category was **cheating requiring advance preparation**. This category included such behaviours as taking text books into exams; writing on pencil cases, undersides of tables or parts of the body; writing crib sheets and placing them in pens or pencil cases etc. All of the behaviours in this category required the investment of time, on top of revision (or in place of revision) and were mentioned in relation to examinations. The third category, labelled **collusion** comprised the behaviours which required the co-operation (usually) of friends, peers or parents. The most common behaviour under this heading was copying another person's work. It should be

noted that this behaviour does not necessarily require the 'permission' of another party before it can commence. However, for the present, it is placed here. Other behaviours in this category included the swapping of practical results, working together, agreeing to do another's homework and vice versa. The fourth category of cheating behaviours related to **test situations**. Included were opportunistic cheating behaviours such as getting answers from the front of the class, writing in the answers to tests after the test has finished and similarly, changing answers to tests after they have finished. The distinction was made by the participants between cheating in the examination and test situation. Both situations could potentially employ any of the behaviours mentioned in the examination and test categories thus far defined. The remainder of the cheating behaviours were allocated to the **miscellaneous** category and included using a calculator when forbidden, forging sick notes and 'breaking the rules'. It could be argued that forging a sick note was something which requires preparation time. However, insufficient context was provided from this part of the investigation, to enable its inclusion in the former category.

The description of the categories given above was comparable with the literature, the categories were based on very few behaviours (approximately 20 responses). Participants found the spontaneous generation of cheating behaviours very difficult and were reluctant to enter into discussion with each other. This brevity in the list of cheating behaviours combined with the results shortly to be presented suggested that a distinction between competency and performance may be required; there may be a difference between the perception of *actual* typical behaviours carried out in schools and the *total range* of possible behaviours which are recognised as cheating. Behaviours that were more frequently generated were possibly those that were known to be more frequently performed by the participants' peer group.

3.3.2 Perceptions of the status of cheating behaviours

Some behaviours were excluded from detailed discussion. The discussion of the behaviours related to those on the pre-generated checklist (see table 3.2.2) and was less intensive than had been anticipated. Despite careful piloting of the behaviour checklist, few of these participants showed familiarity with the behaviours relating to lying and medical circumstances. If anything, it was argued that lying was 'lying' and therefore not cheating. The status of each behaviour or a group of behaviours (indicated in the text) are described below. In addition, the behaviour regarding library book mis-shelving ('L'), was dropped all together because it was perceived as irrelevant by the participants.

i) Copying coursework/homework

'Copying each other's coursework' appeared to be alive and well. There was across the board consensus that it was wrong. Almost all of the participants qualified their 'yes, it's cheating' statements. Firstly, copying each other's work was not reported as very serious - it only merited a detention as the penalty. Copying was perceived as more serious if it was done out of laziness. Having a 'real' excuse was all right, e.g., did not get time because had to go to Guides; was ill; genuinely forgotten. Even though this difference was evident some participants believed they would still let their friends copy no matter what the 'excuse'. This was an example of the ambivalence reasoning that was a type of 'do as I say, not as I do', i.e., I might say it is wrong, but I still do it.

Secondly, there was also ambivalence regarding 'copying another student's coursework and they know about it' (behaviour 'D'). This was not perceived as cheating because another person had sanctioned it. However, both parties that were involved were considered to be cheating. One participant made the distinction between copying 'word for word' and copying 'ideas' from someone else's coursework. For this participant's focus group paraphrasing was understood (in all but name) and copying ideas was not cheating:

"I look at my sister's coursework and just get ideas. It's different to just copying directly. Just getting ideas isn't cheating really." (Kan: female, year 9)

Finally for this group of behaviours, 'copying another student's coursework or homework without the student knowing about it' (behaviour I) was seen as unrealistic and unfair. It was viewed as the worst form of copying. Although it was definitely wrong, in reality 'people' were not thought to be that careless (leaving materials around to be copied) and in the event of it happening two people would get into trouble, when in fact one was perceived as innocent.

ii) Taking banned material into an examination/test

This was definitely a 'wrong thing' to do. It was slightly complicated by the fact that in some situations a crib sheet was allowed by teachers of the focus group participants. In these kinds of situations, it was reported that as much information was crammed onto the allowed space as possible - mimicking real 'cribbing' on a larger scale. A situational difference between the kinds of tests/exams was noted. In the examination hall use of crib sheets was said to be very wrong; for end of term tests however, it was not seen as serious. Typical attitudes towards this behaviour are

exemplified by the following extracts from focus group four. Initially the participants were discussing how to cheat. A short while later they discussed how serious this behaviour was. The distinction between tests and exams was clear, as was the degree of ambivalence towards performing the behaviour and general attitudes towards such transgressions:

Marie: Yeah and sometimes you can put notes inside your pencil case and then read off the notes

Hi: It's quite easy really because most of the time during tests teachers are marking other work

And later

Researcher: Taking banned material into an exam or test, for example notes

Hi: I think that's quite major ... because it's a test and you're supposed to learn and revise things from the previous lessons

Marie: It's worse taking it into the exam hall

iii) Lying about medical or other circumstances

This behaviour was separated into two behaviours ('C' and 'E'). The difference was not appreciated by the participants. It was also unheard of as actually happening in a cheating context. The participants preferred to call it plain 'lying', which in their minds was still wrong. However, when related to GCSE work, it was seen as a form of 'cheating'. Interestingly the younger female group decided that this kind of lying was OK if people's parents lied for them.

iv) Selling essays

Everyone agreed that this was cheating. The younger participants believed it to be cheating, but had slightly different reasons. For the females it was 'just cheating'. The males considered it to be fruitless because teachers would recognise people's handwriting (or presumably lack of it) and in addition to this, the only person who would lose out would be the 'buyer', because they would have to say that the seller came from a different school, and or lie about the school and no further action could be taken against the fictitious seller.

The older groups were more reserved in their judgement of seriousness. To them it depended upon the subject and whether or not the person was a friend. If it was a friend then it would not be sold, just given over ('swapping always goes on' Fred: male, year 12). In addition, if it

was a non-core subject then swapping was not as serious. However, once again, if the piece of work counted towards a final GCSE mark, then selling/swapping was more serious.

v) Impersonation

This was treated in a light hearted manner. It was not seen as realistic or possible, unless you had a twin. The situation appears to have been portrayed on television, resulting in no success for the 'actors'. The participants believed that the teachers would know immediately if a person was 'missing' and that as an idea it was stupid and a waste of time. However, if it did happen, then it would be a serious matter.

vi) Peer marking

The attitude taken towards this behaviour very much depended upon the reason for being able to mark each other's work, the subject in question and the school attended. In some schools it was allowed, but the teacher always checked the work. This suggested that cheating in this case was pointless. However, clever craftsmanship with the same pen could prove fruitful! All the participants knew that it was wrong to mis-mark work, but theory did not correspond with practice. If the test was small and non-significant (e.g., spellings) then changing the answers was not perceived in a serious manner. If a person could see that their friend knew the answer but did not quite get it right, then that was OK too. Of course, as one participant said:

"Teachers know that you are a bit generous if your friends mark it." (Hi: female, year 9)

It appeared that this may be a signal from the teachers to the students about the classroom environment and cheating. This theme was also picked up by another participant who expressed the opinion that:

"It can't be that bad because they wouldn't let you mark your own ... you can tell it's more important if they shuffle the tests and you mark someone else's." (X: male, year 7)

If the teacher gave out serious signals the test was treated as such and either peer marked and reviewed or marked by the teacher. If the test was spellings, or one word answers it was not perceived as serious and self-marking would be used. This kind of test was frequently experienced

by participants. The greater the frequency of the test type, the greater the reported amount of cheating; GCSEs examinations were infrequent, taken in a different environment/room and the students teachers' did not mark the scripts, therefore cheating, it was speculated would be less frequent.

vii) Gaining advance information about the contents of an examination paper

There was more to this behaviour than met the eye. Personally taking an examination paper was seen as 'very bad' especially if it contained the answers. However, if a third party had the paper or had seen the paper (a far more realistic and common scenario) then this was viewed very differently. Gaining information through a friend was sensible revision or 'topic spotting'. If this kind of information fell into a person's lap by whatever method, it was an opportunity not to be wasted. Again, unfortunately the teachers may have had something to do with this. Staggering identical end of module tests for a year group allowed information to be passed between groups and of course, teachers leaving the answer sheets on their desk did not help either!

The following two extracts illustrate how the cheating behaviour could be tempered by firstly temptation and the importance of an assessment (focus group 3) and secondly, the unfair advantage that would be gained (focus group 2):

Q: If like a lot of people would do that ... a lot of people who saw the test paper lying about on the table when they was alone ... a lot of people would look ... 'cos they like if you saw your test paper lying down there then ... they're just tempted

Researcher: Yeah, but it's cheating...
Bad or not bad?

Q Quite bad

X Depends how important it is ... and in my class he couldn't do that really because we've got three learning support teachers

And

Researcher: What about finding the questions without the answers?

Worm: That's still cheating

Raz: Like then you could keep that sheet ... but without the answers and then you could find the answers to all the questions

Researcher: So is that cheating then if you've gone off and found your own answers?

Raz: 'Cos you know the answers ... and then other people might not know the questions

viii) Altering data

This was received with mixed feelings. If data were altered, this was something wrong. However, teachers often encouraged sensible guesses in science practicals etc. This was compounded by the view that not getting time to do the work in the first place was the teachers' fault. Subsequently falsifying the data which were incorrect led to punishment. Conversely, in some situations, correctly guessed data avoided punishment. The outcome appeared to be dependent on the individual teacher.

Despite this confusion it was not seen as serious - merely a method of getting through the day as painlessly and quickly as possible:

"Sometimes we are told to make them up if we don't get time to finish." (Beavis: female, year 8)

These views need to be contrasted with a familiar response of 'if you couldn't be bothered or were lazy then it's wrong'. This appears to contradict the above. According to the participants (as will be highlighted later), the opposite to laziness was 'understanding'. 'Understanding' was the notion that if the processes underlying the problem had already been mastered then cheating was permitted as no loss of learning would occur. However, there was a degree of ambivalence towards understanding. Cheating was also permitted if it was a coping mechanism for not fully understanding the task parameters. Laziness and understanding formed two ends of a continuum in the participants' eyes. Making life easier through short cuts did not mean that there was not time for understanding! This may have been a type of work avoidance, which was briefly mentioned in Chapter 2 and is re-visited in Study 3.

ix) Paraphrasing

The true meaning of the word paraphrasing was not fully understood. As far as the participants were concerned there was 'outright copying' and 'changing the words around'. Copying was wrong: changing words was what was expected of participants. It appeared that teachers did not tolerate copying. However if the situation arose where a student copied because they did not understand what they had to do, then cheating was excused. The following extract

from focus group 1 (the older male group) is an example where paraphrasing was more clearly understood:

- Researcher: And what about copying paragraphs for a text book and re-arranging the words and saying...
- Rob: No we are allowed to do that
- Tom: As long as you read it
- Researcher: How do you know that?
- Joe: 'Cos the teachers tell you
- Tom: The teachers' tell you ... paragraphs ... you gotta learn that and you could like
- Rob: You read it and you like ... you got to put it into your own words
- Dan: You get a computer print out and he says it must be in your own words "cos I'll not accept it"

Focus group 2 were not quite so strict in their interpretation of paraphrasing:

- Researcher: ... and writing out something from a text book and saying "that's my idea"
- Jo: If you were researching it and um you had to write it on your own words, you just changed a few ... then that would be OK
- Egg: If you've read it
- Kelly: If you've actually taken it in then that's OK I think

x) Agreeing beforehand to communicate answers in an examination or test

This was another behaviour that was alive and well. The participants said that they did not actually agree before hand to communicate the answers, but that communication just happened. They admitted that it was only possible in subjects that required short answers or being spaced closely together (but that being spaced apart didn't make that much of a difference!) Communicating answers as part of classwork was seen as a natural part of life, but in tests it was cheating.

xi) Copying from your neighbour

This behaviour fell between 'copying coursework' and 'communicating answers'. In examination situations it was argued that friends tended to sit together and the behaviour was received with mixed responses. On the one hand this was described as commonplace and was

perceived to be acceptable between friends. But if the friend did not know that the copying took place, then it was viewed as misplacing trust and therefore wrong. In each case, the act of copying, for whatever reason was still seen as cheating.

Researcher: Copying from a neighbour during a test or exam and they didn't realise it?

Marie: Yeah I think that's quite bad

Beavis: Quite bad

Marie: Especially if they were your friend because you thought you could trust them

(Focus group 4)

xii) Parents helping with homework

This sample of participants had very good parents, who helped their children but did not do the work for them. This kind of helping and guiding was seen as legitimate and very useful for gaining understanding. All of the participants were adamant that parents doing the work for them was cheating and not to be tolerated. Dan, an older male, tried to set a limit for parental help by suggesting that 60% (minimum) of any piece of work should be the student's own. This tolerance of parental help may have been because teachers were viewed differently to parents. The younger female group suggested that parents actually had to *work* at the homework to some extent.

Teachers knew the curriculum and therefore did not have to!

Teachers could influence the external learning environment. If they set limits on a piece of work, breaking those limits was perceived as a more serious infraction. For example, if the teacher specifically told the students not to have parental help with the work, then doing so was 'doubly' wrong.

xiii) Working together

This had a similar kind of response to the above behaviour. A friend could discuss a topic and demonstrate how to solve a problem. Friends were seen as being more in tune with the requirements of the homework than parents. The males considered it to be cheating more than the females. The females classed it as not quite cheating, because helping was not the same as cheating. One involved the process (allowed), the other involved only the outcome (answers; not allowed). Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clark (1986) presented a series of factors which students used to justify cheating. 'Appeal to higher loyalties' was a factor in which students argued that the needs of their friends sometimes outweighed any negative perceptions associated with cheating.

Further Calabrese and Cochran (1990) identified helping behaviours as a focus for sex differences. Females reported cheating more on behaviours that were deemed to be altruistic.

xiv) Doing another student's homework

This was viewed as cheating, but motive was all important. There were those situations where the participants would have refused point blank to do another person's homework. However, if a friend was in need they would cheat, especially if they could be sure that the other party understood the material. A little confusion arose as to who the guilty party was in such instances. As in other behaviours passivity/ laziness was not admired: the person receiving the completed homework was seen as more guilty and punishable for cheating. One participant, Kan, insisted that the person doing someone else's homework was not cheating.

xv) Attempting to get your teacher to give you extra help or credit

This was interpreted quite liberally. In its original form, in the university questionnaire, 'bribery, corruption, seduction', was perceived as fantasy during the adolescent pilot phase and not capable of working. The thought that teachers would do anything other than offer help where it was asked for, was alien to the participants. However the issue was more ambiguous regarding general classroom behaviour. Being nice to the teacher or sitting at the front of the class were felt to have a potential effect on grades, especially end of year reports. The older male group thought that females probably could cheat this way using their 'wiles'. However, being nice did not have to have an ulterior motive and motive seemed to be important in deciding whether something was cheating or not.

xvi) Teachers helping you when they should not

Teachers were perceived as existing expressly for the purpose of providing help. If a teacher gave help for GCSE work and they were not supposed to then this was classed as wrong. This was also the case when the extra help was restricted by the teachers to certain individuals. If the whole group was given help then this was viewed as acceptable. On the whole however, it was felt that if the teacher was not supposed to help then they would know not to offer it (and should get punished if they did). It was felt to be something that would not happen.

3.3.3. Perceived seriousness of cheating behaviours

The focus group participants described behaviours in a way that suggested that some behaviours were viewed in a similar fashion to one other. As a crude method of distinguishing between them, the behaviours of the checklist were collated under the headings given in Table 3.3.1 Copying behaviours 'A', 'D' and 'I' were collapsed into one behaviour, as were the lying behaviours, 'C' and 'E'; behaviours 'M' and 'N' into paraphrasing and 'R' and 'K', altering data. The placement of the behaviours along the continuum was achieved by 'qualitatively averaging' the comments made about each behaviour. This was a crude method, but one which was appropriate because most focus group participants had discussed the behaviours by starting with their perceptions of right/wrong and severity using short one word answers.

Table 3.3.1. Categorisation of cheating behaviours

Not cheating		Unsure		Wrong but NOT serious		Wrong		Serious cheating	
P	Parental help	R, K	Altering data	A, D, I	Copying	M, N	Paraphrasing	B	Banned materials in exams
T	Working together	T	Working together	F	Selling essays			F	Selling essays
E, C	Lying about circumstances	U	Bribing teacher	U	Bribing teacher			G	Impersonation
J	Gaining advance information			R, K	Altering data			J	Gaining advance information
V	Teachers help			O	Communicating answers				
				H	Changing answers				
				Q	Copying from a neighbour				
				S	Doing another's homework				
				P	Parental help				

The categories form a continuum from 'not cheating' to 'serious cheating'. As can be seen from table 3.3.1, some behaviours appeared in more than one category (parental help, altering data, selling essays, working together and gaining advance information). This was because the perceived status of these behaviours were situation dependent.

1. Not cheating

The perceived status of cheating behaviours can be interpreted in relation to the focus group discussion on the individual behaviours and in relation to the general views expressed toward cheating. Parental help, working together, gaining advance information and general lying about coursework were considered (in some instances) not to be cheating. However, the specific behaviour 'lying about medical (or other circumstances) to get an extended deadline or let off from doing a piece of work/coursework', was not viewed as cheating because to lie was to have a different motivation to that of cheating. However, lying was still perceived as wrong. This was interesting because, as will be discussed later, it was quite difficult for the participants to determine when a behaviour moved from not cheating to cheating. The definite perceived difference identified for lying, possibly stemmed from the wording of the behaviours. The lying behaviours were quite complex for the participants to understand, (especially the pre-GCSE participants) and in light of this complexity, the word 'lying' may have been a familiar concept which particularly stood out. This behaviour requires further study with a GCSE age group to determine whether it should be dropped or reserved for older student checklists only. However, research by Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) found that university staff and students agreed about lying about medical or other circumstances; neither group perceived it to be very serious. In general, however, most cheating behaviours were viewed from opposing standpoints by staff and students. For the remainder of the behaviours in the 'not cheating' category, the participants appeared to express a common perception. The behaviours were felt to be an integral part of the learning process. In certain situations they were perceived as not cheating if the outcome was understanding how to learn or apply an aspect of a course. Like lying, help from teachers was perceived as definitely not cheating. The role of the teacher was perceived to be one of providing help. Again, whether the same views are held by GCSE aged participants is unknown.

2. Unsure

The second category identified was labelled 'unsure' because respondents were unsure about where on the continuum of wrong to seriousness these behaviours lay. Confusion arose in the participants' minds with regard to altering data. This was reported to be allowed in some situations by teachers, which begged the question when was it not allowed and did teachers make this explicit? 'Attempting to get your teacher to give you extra help or credit by taking them presents or using your friendship with them', was viewed as an unrealistic scenario for schools.

However, it was not dismissed out of hand. It was felt that teachers would not allow it, or that they would not understand the purpose of the undeserved attention. Working together also appeared in this category. The line between helping the learning process and breaking the rules was seen to be very fine.

3. Wrong but NOT serious

The third category of 'wrong but not serious' contained the majority of the behaviours. Of the eight behaviours, four were also categorised elsewhere (selling essays; altering data; teacher help; parental help).

The four solely 'wrong but not serious' behaviours (copying; communicating answers; doing another's homework; copying from a neighbour) could be described as not requiring the participation of an authority figure (parent/teacher). The behaviours were confined to transactions or agreements between a small group of students. These behaviours were often justified in terms of how much work had been done solely by the individual student and how much help had been received from others. The greater the individual effort, the less seriously the behaviour was perceived to be. Seriousness also depended upon the purpose or function of the cheating. For example, a classroom test was not as important as an end of term examination. Often the physical environment indicated to the students how to rate the importance of a test. Many of the 'justifications' given related to external factors (e.g., environmental cues, authority figures, 'the other person said...'). The 'process of learning' justifications given for cheating, may be the participants' way of expressing external beliefs.

4. Wrong

The fourth category of 'wrong' contained only one behaviour (paraphrasing). This behaviour was probably not fully understood by the participants. They expressed the opinion that it was different to directly copying, but could not say why. The closest they came to a full understanding was 're-arranging the words'. Perhaps the reason why it was perceived as 'wrong' was that the teachers gave clear signals to the students. In some situations it was allowed (usually lower school) and in others, explicit verbal or written statements of 'do not copy' were given.

5. Serious

The final category, 'serious', contained four behaviours, two of which spanned other categories (gaining advance information and selling essays) and two of which were solely in this category (taking banned materials into a test or examination and impersonation). Impersonation and selling essays were not thought to happen and thus such an event would be rare and automatically serious. Taking banned materials into a test or examination was perceived to be serious if the cheating was in response to a lack of effort and if the examination could result in higher future academic groupings or formal examination results.

A cautionary note

Selling essays, impersonation and lying about medical or other circumstances (as already mentioned) do not fit well into the categories. These require further study to ascertain their continued inclusion in future research. They may be viewed as cheating because they are hypothetically possible, (from television examples etc.) but they may not actually happen in everyday school life.

3.4 Discussion of the general themes

Five emergent themes were identified from the categorisation of the behaviours and the discussion of cheating with the participants. These were the **learning process; personal effort; environmental cues; authority figures and individual age differences**. They affected the perception of the behaviours differentially depending upon the situation of the cheating. For this discussion, the learning process and personal effort have been grouped together under one heading, as have environmental cues and authority figures.

3.4.1 The learning process and personal effort

The learning process and personal effort were themes explicitly identified by participants. These came across as very important to the participants. Taking time and or effort to actually do a piece of work, regardless of its academic merit was perceived to be far superior compared with resorting to cheating. It is hypothesised that for some students this was an abstract or purely theoretical value. The participants suggested that failure would be preferable to cheating in some situations. For example, failing to get top marks in an end of year exam would have led to appropriate (a 'good thing') ability grouping in the following academic year. Cheating and getting

top marks would have meant additional pressures to maintain the achievement lie. However, these plausible examples were conditioned by comments which suggested that the 'failure is better' mentality was a yard stick by which others and not the self was judged. This view point was particularly apparent in behaviours which occurred between friends (collusion and working together). By sharing the cheating, the blame or guilt was halved. This perspective related to the 'joint responsibility' research of Wang and Anderson (1994). Traditionally studies using cheating scenarios have found that the *situation* was blamed for the cheating more than significant others. Wang and Anderson's research is an example of the few studies which looked at joint responsibility for cheating. They found that under conditions of joint responsibility, *others* were blamed more than the situation or the self. This explanation was related to the cheating which was reported by the focus group participants in 'walk-over's' classes (teachers who cannot maintain classroom control). Cheating was considered to be 'fair game' and the responsibility for cheating was placed onto the teacher. This was a joint responsibility situation on a macro scale. Joint responsibility was thought by Wang and Anderson to indicate an external locus of control. In the current investigation participants beliefs suggested that they relied upon internal beliefs to monitor their own behaviours (personal effort, learning process). Objectively, however, these beliefs may actually be partly or wholly external. Roberts and Toombs (1993) studied the difference between staff and student perceptions of cheating. They found the 'smallest perceptual difference' between staff and students related to obtaining old exam papers to study with. They suggested the effort invested, in some way cancelled out the 'bad deed' of gaining the revision-edge on peers. The bad deed may in fact have proved to be beneficial!

The notion that another person was the focus for blame was in line with the fundamental attribution error (FAE). Whilst this social psychological theory has not been used as an interpretive framework, the similarity between the participants' excuse-making and the fundamental attribution error cannot pass without comment. James and Nisbett (1972, as cited in Hewstone, 1989) described the FAE in the present situation as the tendency to under emphasize dispositions and to over emphasize situational influences as causes of behaviour, with the results that the person (e.g., the teacher) was the focus of blame. To participants the behaviour of the teachers may have been the most salient factor. However, how robust the person as a cause of cheating is for all cheating behaviours cannot be estimated from these data.

3.4.2 Authority figures and environmental cues

These two themes emerged from reactions to the cheating behaviour checklist and a general discussion of cheating in school based on the topic guide. Authority figures (here teachers) were considered to have an impact on cheating in their own right and to provide a range of environmental cues about when cheating was and was not acceptable. Three general differences between teachers were identified by participants in addition to the difference between teachers with strict and lenient teaching styles.

1. Authority figures

The lenient teacher it was felt could choose to ignore the cheating, give the guilty party a good talking to and let them 'off the hook' or provide a 'stare' which would stop the cheating. The strict teacher on the other hand, was felt to probably view all of the behaviours on the checklist as cheating. As already noted, many participants expressed the opinion that if the opportunity arose and the teacher was described as a 'walk-over' they would cheat. Participants referred to their teachers a great deal. Teachers formed part of the basis on which decisions were made about the legitimacy of a behaviour. In some situations with teachers behaviour X was acceptable and in others it was not. Likewise, in other situations with teachers, the opportunity to cheat arose and in others it did not.

Teachers were also reported by the participants to differ in three secondary ways. Firstly, in their approaches to coursework, secondly in identifying cheaters and thirdly, in the setting of guidelines.

Regarding GCSE coursework, some teachers apparently sanctioned completion either at home or over a longer duration than the exam board would have allowed. The participants felt that these individual teacher differences were present in all schools. One participant made the general comment that a teacher who wanted a good reputation with students tended to be more lenient in their attitude towards coursework and homework. The validity of this issue needs to be researched further because there were few participants who had actually completed any GCSE coursework and if the perceptions were accurate, this issue was a source of confusion to students about appropriate academic behaviour.

Before moving on to the second way in which teachers were felt to differ, a discussion of student perceptions of school is warranted. The discussion may help interpret the focus group participants' views about their teachers. Whilst there was no evidence (known to the researcher) in

the cheating literature to support the participants' views that teachers behave in the manner in which they outlined, the perceived ambivalence of teachers may have related to the differential pressures and activities associated with the mixed learning environments that exists in British schools (Cooper and McIntyre, 1995; Harris, Wallace and Rudduck, 1995).

Harris, Wallace and Rudduck (1995) investigated British secondary school students' experiences of being learners in school. Adolescents in school years 8 to 11 were interviewed as part of a four year longitudinal study.

By the time a student reached year 10, the authors argued, the lower school emphasis on project work positively impacted on the completion of coursework. Students were already familiar with aspects of coursework, such as research techniques. 'Scaffolding', the learning process whereby previous knowledge was used as a scaffold on which to build new knowledge, provided the base for the positivity. However, this positive impact may have become masked for students by the introduction of the unknown learning processes involved in the sitting of formal examinations. Students in Harris et al's study reported feeling unprepared to tackle the learning activities associated with the new experience of intensive revision for example. In addition, new challenges faced by students with regard to coursework portfolios further subtracted from previous positive learning experiences:

"For students juggling up to 7 or 8 different subjects, the production of a coursework portfolio brings new responsibilities for the organisation of their time, over and above the demands of the challenges of more advanced content. Managing different assignments for different deadlines becomes a key skill. Students must learn to plan and prioritise their work at home as well as at school with help from parents. They must take a far greater degree of personal responsibility than had previously been required by the demands of homework" (of year 10 students, p260).

The way teachers help students to meet these challenges may also add or subtract from the learning experience. The evidence reported from Harris et al's study does not appear to directly relate to the experience as described by the focus group participants. However, what it does do is to highlight the pressures and demands faced by students, particularly by year 10 students. These pressures need to be explored as a background to adolescent perceptions towards school and cheating. It is arguable that cheating is a form of coping with the difficult learning process. The timing of this focus group research was contiguous with Harris et al's research (1995). Thus, the reported feelings and behaviours of the year 10 students in Harris et al's study may have been synonymous with those of the focus group participants.

It should be noted that whilst the emphasis presented by Harris et al was on the deficits in the learner's process and progress towards GCSEs, the challenges faced by contemporary secondary school students may have changed. Today there may be a greater awareness of the need to train students in learning skills. As a result today's students may be less daunted by the prospect of GCSEs. Further, testing under exam conditions is a more frequent occurrence for all students now that SATs have been fully integrated into the curriculum.

Harris et al (1995) reported that teachers too had to make adjustments to the learning environment. For example, the change in the way English GCSE was assessed at this time (pre 1995) was to lessen the coursework input to 20% of the final GCSE mark. Teachers, however, did not always adapt their classroom teaching to reflect this change and maintained the previous level of coursework requirement from their students. This kind of behaviour on the behalf of teachers may have lead to disaffection in students. Cooper and McIntyre (1995) and Harris et al (1995) reported that teachers relied on a variety of teaching styles to communicate syllabus content and abstract information such as research skills. The teaching styles crossed a span from transmission (you listen, you repeat, you learn) to independent learning (you set your own goals, the teacher equips the student with the skills for achieving the goals). Cooper and McIntyre (1995) reported that the school year 7 students (from Devon) in their study, had an understanding of the different teaching strategies teachers used with them. The students knew how to respond to the different needs of the subject and teacher. Considering that there are many lessons in a day and many teachers for students to come into contact with, this use of students' 'craft knowledge' (tips on how to learn picked up through experience) is admirable. However, whilst students understood the range of behaviours expected of them, if the teachers' method of engagement did not match the students' preferred learning style, they would 'restrict their engagement where conditions [were] not felt to be congenial' (Cooper and McIntyre, 1995, p198).

Blatchford (1996) also found that British secondary school students who were low-achievers (as opposed to simply low-in-ability) became bored and disaffected when the lessons became too hard or they could not keep up. In addition teaching style may be used by students as an excuse to use cheating to overcome perceived unfairness by teachers. Montor (1971) discussed cheating to overcome unfairness with American high school students. She concluded that this reason for cheating was used by students because 'teachers fail[ed] to praise publicly and reprove privately' (p97).

Moon and Callaghan (1999) investigated American middle school students' attitudes towards school (ages 10-11 years). They found that the schools in their study had not managed to foster positive attitudes towards school or learning. One reason for this finding may have been the mandatory testing of students which resulted in teachers relying heavily on the transmission model of learning. As the classes in the study were not streamed the teachers may have had difficulty in challenging all of the students. Thus gifted students and low achieving students who were reported to be the most disaffected with school may have been omitted from the teachers learning span by virtue of concentrating on the 'average student'. Curtis (1996) commented that :

"Children receive mixed signals from their teachers and are often actually encouraged to cheat by the structure of [the] evaluation process and by pressures induced by both their schools and their parents." (p37)

Mandatory testing in British secondary schools has gradually become more widespread since the staged introduction of testing for 7, 11 and 14 year olds in the 1990's. Pressure has been further placed on students by the introduction of Action Zones in areas of the country where the required proportion of students are not achieving set educational targets (e.g., West Devon). The evidence presented by Harris et al (1995) and Cooper and McIntyre (1995) suggested that 1) students were faced with various demands in the classroom ranging from selecting the right behaviour script to match the teacher and subject, through to selecting the most appropriate self-directed learning strategy; 2) an overview of the learning process was absent, which meant there was little to guide appropriate behaviour; 3) students were capable of meeting those demands provided they receive appropriate help; 4) students could become quickly disaffected if help in meeting the demands was not provided; and 5) the demands placed on students changed as they progressed through school.

It is the author's contention that firstly, the teachers in the two research papers by Harris et al (1995) and Cooper and McIntyre (1995) mentioned here were at least 'averagely good'. It is hard to imagine a teacher who was known not to be a good communicator taking part in such research. However, every school has teachers for whom students cannot or do not want to engage in learning. In addition, whilst a typical subject can be taught with using a variety of teaching methods, the typical class of students is made up of a number of preferred learning styles. Teachers cannot be expected to engage all of the students all of the time. They too may become disaffected in their teaching and appear to students as a 'walk-over' for example. Secondly, the description of the teacher differences described by the participants in the focus groups, were the

participants' ways of describing the conflict that arises when meeting the demands of the many and varied learning situations that they encountered with 'good' and 'not so good' teachers. These two factors together lead to a tentative conclusion that participants' processed the learning demands and coped with them by expressing them in terms of 'the teacher is to blame' and 'cheating is therefore inevitable'.

The second way in which teachers were felt by the focus group participants to differ was in identifying a cheater. Strict teachers were reported to make more accusations of cheating than were actually felt to have occurred. For example, a student looking around the room during an exam or test would be told to 'stop cheating'. It may be possible that the language that the teacher used was interpreted by the students as meaning something which the teacher did not set out to convey. For example, 'stop copying' was a phrase employed in many classroom situations. The participants felt that its specific use announced that the teacher thought a student was cheating. However, the teacher may have meant 'do your own work to help you learn and understand'. It may be that teachers' understanding of the use of such language differs from that of students. The literature cites many studies which have found differences in staff and student perceptions indicating what constitutes cheating and how serious it is. However, Evans and Craig's (1990) study was one of only a few (e.g., Labeff, Clark, Haines, and Diekhoff, 1990; Payne and Nantz, 1994) to report perceptions of the teacher as a cause of cheating. In their study of secondary school and college students, causal attributions about cheating were gathered. They found that students who reported a higher achievement status were more likely to give teacher behaviours as reasons for cheating. Teacher behaviours such as the following were particularly emphasised by the pre-college age group: being disorganised, doing little to prevent cheating, being unavailable for student queries and recalcitrant in providing students with help. Younger students referred to boring or dull teachers, whilst a significant age difference relating to student achievement expectations was found between pre-college and college students; pre-college students perceived cheating to be more prevalent in classes where teachers had high expectations. Whilst this evidence generally supports the views of the participants given here, the method of data collection (questionnaire) by Evans and Craig did not enable the identification of the subtler differences such as those found in the present study.

The participants in the present study discussed how the legitimate classroom language and non-verbal behaviours were often mixed up or confused with the non-verbal behaviours in an exam (by both students and staff), which could have been either innocent or fraudulent. The

question therefore arises as to whether cheating should be studied as a sub-category of general classroom behaviour. The participants did not appear to appreciate cheating as a concept in its own right, in the way that adults may.

This confusion was interesting because communication is a fundamental aspect of the education process. In some situations it is encouraged (working together in the classroom); discouraged (working in silence in the classroom) and can be 'banned' (theoretically), in exams. The inconsistency between the communication styles in the two classroom settings and the variety of examination styles, may have constituted a variable-interval reinforcement schedule; effective learning is reduced to the level of short cuts and repeated attempts to avoid learning through cheating because at irregular intervals, it was overlooked, allowed or mistaken for an innocent behaviour. This behavioural set may be an expression of coping strategies resulting from the many and varied learning demands outlined earlier. However, it is doubtful whether the relationship between language and cheating is a simple one. The physical characteristics of the exam or test situation probably interact with the teacher-student message. This is also an hypothesis which requires further study.

Although the role that authority figures have been given here is discussed in terms of educational demands and an external locus of control, an alternative or maybe more appropriate context is available. LaBeff, Clark, Haines and Diekhoff (1990) studied the reasons university students gave for cheating. They took open-ended questionnaire responses and compared them to Sykes and Matza's (1957) categories of neutralisation. Neutralisation referred to the justifications for deviant behaviours, which were perceived by the individual as valid, but not as valid by society. LaBeff et al reported that 'condemnation of the condemners' figured in participant responses. They described it as shifting attention onto others, usually authority figures. For example, comparing a meagre cheating incident with the negative and uncaring attitudes of staff. The rationale for neutralisation was that a person could hold an internal set of beliefs (or moral code) which could deviate under special circumstances. The flexibility of the internal beliefs (deviation) allowed integrity to be maintained and guilt removed. However, the population in question were US university students and age differences may be important; internalised moral codes have been found to increase with age (Murk and Addleman, 1992). Therefore participants in the present investigation may have been exhibiting 'true' external beliefs and not external beliefs masquerading the participants' 'true' internal beliefs. This explanation may also go part of way to

explaining the apparent internal beliefs expressed by the learning process and personal effort themes, which to the observer, may appear to be external.

2. Environmental cues

The third way in which teachers were felt to differ, was in their setting of guidelines. The participants reported that overt actions gave clear indications about cheating. Cheating behaviours were perceived as not acceptable (even if they were subsequently carried out) if an explicit verbal warning was given or for example, there was a clear anti-cheating classroom layout. However, these alone do not explain why students still cheat in such contexts!

The other techniques teachers were reported to use included repeatedly reminding the class about a test. SATs were prominent in the minds of the participants at the time of the focus groups. The results of these SATs are presented in publicly available league tables (in England, and until recently, in Wales). How teachers prepare students for SATs may be an important example where the communication process can be studied from the staff and student perspectives together.

The overt anti-cheating signals may have been perceived as powerful, but other practices employed by teachers may have been counter-productive. Placing an able student next to a weaker student to encourage learning; laughing at obvious cheating by the bottom ability group (reported by participants) and non-spacing of students in class tests (for obvious practical reasons) were viewed as a 'licence' to copy. These kinds of actions and or the absence of the anti-cheating messages mentioned, served a purpose; the participants reported that they indicated when something was of low importance or significance.

The description of how actions and physical characteristics of the classroom affected cheating may be difficult to study directly. Studying the consistency of messages given between strict and lenient teachers is methodologically complex. What constitutes a 'nice' teacher is both subjective and dependent upon personal preferences of academic subject and is beyond the scope of this thesis.

3.4.3 Individual age differences

The fifth theme, individual age differences emerged as a by-product of the discussions and is integrated with the other four themes. There is the potential for large inter and intra-individual differences between students. It was evident that a student's journey from the first to the fifth form, involved differences in treatment from the school system, dependent upon the age of the student.

It may depend upon how capable and responsible the student is perceived to be. For example, paraphrasing may be tolerated in the first year but not for GCSE related coursework. In the same way, whispering in a test may be overlooked by the teacher of the bottom group in the third year, but the same teacher would not be so lenient with a third year top group. Thus the student had to learn and un-learn sets of acceptable behaviours as they progressed from year to year and from ability level to ability level (which may vary in itself depending upon the subject). In addition to the repertoire of academic behaviours which were expected from students, there were cognitive differences. As has been demonstrated, many of the behaviours were viewed differently by the different age groups.

3.4.4 Reactivity

The list of cheating behaviours generated by the participants requires reflection. Compared to the behaviour checklist used for the discussions, the self generated list was very brief. This suggested that there was a difference between the perceptions of the researcher and participant. This is not a new finding. Many studies have found differences in perceptions between staff and students (e.g., Plat-Jendrek, 1992). What was interesting was that the number of behaviours generated compared very poorly with those which were discussed competently by participants. Being able to discuss a large number of behaviours as hypothetical situations may involve a different set of perceptions or schemas (competence), to those used by students for the personal day to day conceptions of cheating (performance). This difference may well link with the suggestion that cheating is a sub-category of general classroom behaviour and it may be that only adults view cheating as having a distinct identity in the educational setting.

3.5 Summary and indicative content of the subsequent chapters

This aim of this study was to use the focus group methodology in the study of adolescent perceptions of which behaviours constituted cheating. Three aspects of the focus group discussions were presented reflecting the three types of data generated by the participants. Firstly participants were asked to freely generate their own list of cheating behaviours. These behaviours reflected their performance of cheating behaviours rather than their understanding of the wider range of possible cheating behaviours. The categories in which these behaviours were grouped referred to the amount of preparation time required and collaboration. Some behaviours could be

spontaneously performed whilst others required advance preparation (such as crib sheets). Other behaviours required the help and collusion of others.

Secondly, the range of checklist behaviours which participants discussed supported research which has found that the status of cheating is situation-dependent (e.g., Wang and Anderson, 1994). In the current study participants placed the cheating behaviours on a scale from not cheating to serious cheating by referring to when one form of a behaviour was more acceptable or less serious than a subtle permutation of the same behaviour. Behaviours were subsequently arranged by the researcher along the scale devised from the descriptors given by the participants. The behaviours were arranged transitively which reflected how relative seriousness was altered in accordance with the situations in which the cheater found themselves. It is probable that the behaviours which were most frequently carried out by adolescents were those on the perceptual margins of cheating, such as parental help (defined as 'not cheating') and altering data (defined as 'not sure'). Similarly, those behaviours defined as serious cheating were rarely performed (e.g., impersonation).

Thirdly, participants talked about how they identified whether a behaviour was cheating or not cheating and how school affected their decision making. A series of themes emerged reflecting the personal work ethic of the participants and their perceptions of school authority figures. Cheating was deemed unacceptable if the primary goal was not well intentioned (i.e., to promote learning). However, if authorities such as teachers were lax or too strict, cheating became legitimate and external causes were blamed for misdemeanours. Teachers were perceived to give out mixed signals which made decision making about cheating behaviours difficult. Individual differences between adolescent ages and abilities across subjects further compounded these mixed signals. Students required a repertoire of behaviours for each of their lessons. In some, it was expected that all aspects of their behaviour should be constrained, whereas in others a far more *laissez-faire* attitude was taken. Confusion arose about when to use or not use certain behaviours. The risk of being caught varied with each lesson. The differences between staff and student perceptions about cheating were probably far more subtle than the reported findings in the literature of perceptual differences in seriousness.

3.5.1 Limitations of the study

As outlined earlier, the participants' generation of items was less comprehensive than was anticipated. Further, the focus group discussions in general were less in-depth than were

expected. This brevity of discussion was evaluated against the background preparations set out by various authors such as Morgan (1988). Preparation for the focus groups with regard to the combined potential difficulties of adolescent participants and a sensitive topic were as systematic as practicable. For example, similar age groups were grouped together, males and female groups were held separately and 'warm-up' activities were provided (story telling). The researcher's involvement in guiding, involving, interacting with and reflecting back to participants was greater than anticipated. This high degree of involvement may have biased the participant discussions. Further, the questions that each focus group prompted the researcher to ask were different from group to group. Therefore, whilst the key topic guide questions were covered by all, there were some aspects of cheating that were not discussed by all of the groups with the same degree of probing.

Whilst none of the groups were particularly vocal, the older male participants appeared to be less vocal than the older female participants. X and Q, the younger male participants were very vocal and were more likely to wander off the topic than the other groups! It was likely that these two young adolescents were generally more talkative than their peers as they were the first to eagerly volunteer their help with the study. This potential gender difference in response to the methodology requires addressing. The perceptions that the males held, needed to be engaged with more fully and perhaps this could have been remedied with a different methodology, such as the written word.

Future research needs to re-visit the cheating constructs which adolescents hold. The participant population were not representative of typical school constituents in the South West region of the UK and a greater diversity of age groups is required. However, it should not be assumed that Guides and Scouts are whiter than white! The contrary is often the case. Whilst the data presented here give the participants' voices primary focus, re-affirming these findings through other research methods will provide evidence which, when taken together with the current findings is robust. Research leading on from participant perceptions of the behaviour checklist needs to take into account the situation.

As a first step Chapter 4 is the report of the investigation of spontaneously generated cheating behaviours by adolescents across a number of schools in the South of England. The generation of cheating behaviours was taken forward from the current study and expanded in the next study to increase the range of behaviours sampled in the secondary school environment. Frequency data, the situational referents of time, assessment event and seriousness of the

generated behaviours were investigated, as were the possible differences between cheating behaviour comprehension and cheating behaviour performance.

4

Study 2

Situational aspects of
'What is cheating?'

4.1 Introduction

4.1.1 The function of the situation

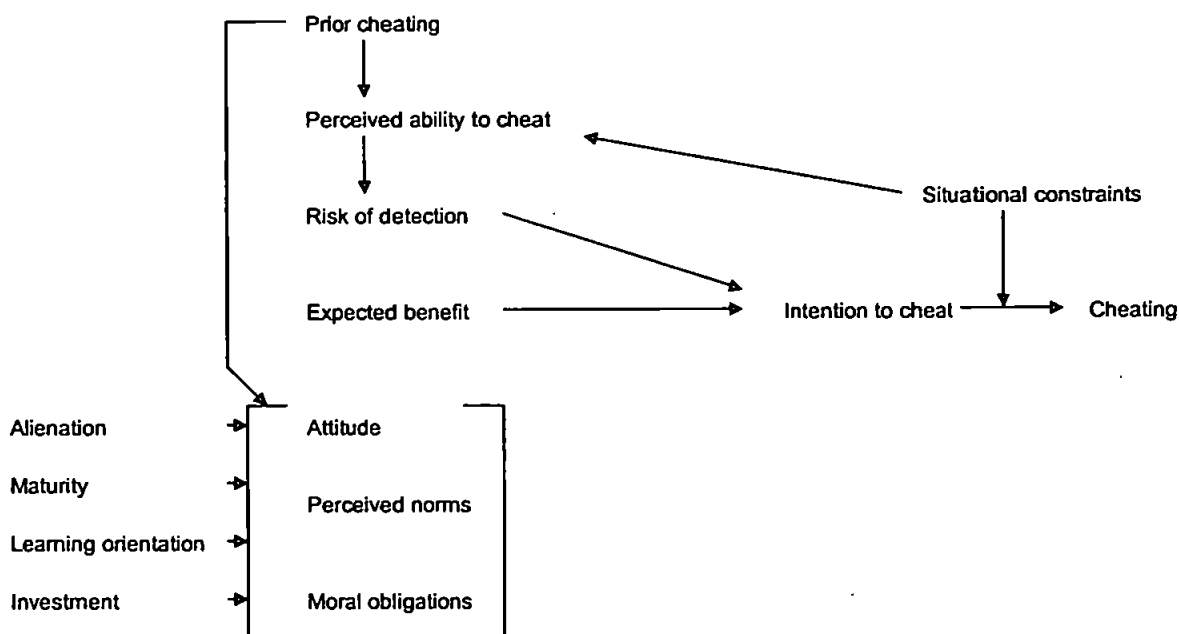
The conclusions of Chapter 3 were that student perceptions of cheating required much investigation. For example, it was not clear how students made judgements about what constituted cheating or how they made judgements about the relative severity of those behaviours. Recall, that when the focus group participants were deciding how serious each behaviour was, some behaviours straddled more than one descriptor (e.g. a behaviour could be both wrong *and* serious). One relevant factor in the decision making process appeared to be the context of the cheating behaviour or the *situation* in which the potential perpetrator found themselves. The situation in some way provided information about the relative standing of a behaviour. It served to elevate or demote a behaviour, increasing or decreasing the likelihood of both its perpetration and subsequent rationalisation. However, the situation has rarely been the primary focus of cheating research.

Whitley (1998) suggested, from a meta analysis of 107 cheating studies that 'situational constraints' was the factor which intervened between a student's intention to cheat and their actual cheating behaviour. Situational constraints can be anything about the cheating environment that is salient enough to the potential cheater to influence behaviour. It could be the room, the type of

exam, the teacher, the risk involved and so on. Whitley (1998) proposed a model of cheating in which the variables reported to effect cheating fed into the model's focal point; 'the intention to cheat' (see figure 4.1.1).

The model was somewhat of a departure from previous research findings. It has usually been the case that situational constraints have been overlooked by researchers or mentioned briefly in response to the obvious role played, but not developed because the relationship was poorly understood. Situational constraints therefore have traditionally been given a peripheral role in the explanation of cheating or been cited as the backdrop against which cheating should be understood. Whitley has tried to be more precise in his articulation of the role of situational constraints.

Figure 4.1.1. Proximal variables proposed as predictors of cheating (from Whitley, 1998)



For example, factors such as alienation (Calabrese and Cochran, 1990) and perceived norms (Genereaux and McLeod, 1995) have been studied in order to unlock what leads students to cheat. In Whitley's model such factors as these, are, using a term borrowed from factor analysis, second or third order. This interpretation of the model is made more understandable if it is rotated through 90 degrees so that 'cheating' is at the bottom of the model and not on the right hand-side. From this perspective, it can be interpreted, perhaps, in terms of a top down and/or bottom up approach. 'Actual cheating' and the 'intention to cheat' are at the bottom, with the 'situational

constraints' intervening. All of the other psychological factors (correlates) lead *up and away* from the 'intention to cheat'.

A conclusion which might be drawn from Whitley's model and from the fact that so much research has been unable to account for the situation, is that researchers have approached the issue of cheating from a *top down* perspective (concentrating on the correlates of cheating) when in fact they should be interested in the *bottom up* approach (purely concentrating on cheating). This of course assumes that it *is* the situation which is some how responsible for moderating or mediating all the other factors. A contention outlined in this thesis in Chapter 1 is that a bottom up approach should be taken in order to develop the building blocks of academic dishonesty research.

There are two distinctions that need to be drawn when discussing cheating intentions and cheating behaviours with regard to situational constraints (one of which is a bottom up issue). Firstly there is the distinction between attitudes and intentions, which was briefly outlined in Chapter 2. Secondly there is the distinction between comprehension and performance, i.e., students know about a range of cheating behaviours and can talk about them (comprehension), but whether or not that knowledge transforms into the performance of those behaviours may be directly or not at all related to the knowledge. For example, students may know about the cheating behaviour of 'impersonation'. However, it is unlikely that they would perform that behaviour, choosing instead to rely on 'copying', an easier and less risky behaviour to perpetrate. The difference between comprehension and performance may also be important in understanding perceptions of cheating. This relates to a bottom up approach to cheating research.

If the situation of cheating can be unlocked, then perhaps the relationship between the many variables given in the literature will become a little clearer. The present investigation employed a bottom up approach. Using students' own words, the many ways in which cheating was applied to the school situation were examined. Students were simply asked to list and then rank behaviours that they considered to be cheating. In Study 1 (Chapter 3), it was evident that the comprehension of the merits of a behaviour depended on several factors, but that the sampling of the behaviour types covered in Chapter 3 was not wide-enough or student-centred enough. The behaviour types discussed were based on a university student behaviour checklist and where spontaneous generation of cheating behaviours took place, different adolescents spoke about them in different ways. Unless adolescents' perceptions about cheating are ascertained, the foundations (higher order variables) upon which further cheating research is based will be unsound (again, indicating that a bottom up approach is required). In this respect, the focus group study did not

fully achieve student-centredness, because there was an element of researcher-led questioning regarding behaviours that *university* students performed.

Hetherington and Feldman (1964) conducted three studies across two different situations. Two of the studies investigated cheating in test situations and one in a viva-voce examination. Within these two situations, further manipulations were present. One test used multiple-choice items and the other was based on written essays taken from a series of questions given out prior to the test. In Study 1, the multiple-choice test was deliberately poorly invigilated. Students were subsequently allowed to mark their own work. In Study 2, undergraduates had easy access to formal test answer booklets in which to write complete answers and smuggle them into the test. In the third study, the same students were given an oral test of very hard questions. The professor giving the oral test left the question booklet on his desk whilst he temporarily left the room. Hetherington and Feldman found that the greatest proportion of cheating took place in studies one and two, (the multiple-choice and essay situations). Although Hetherington and Feldman did not discuss what constituted cheating, they provided indirect evidence about the perceptions towards different cheating behaviours. The risk of cheating in situations one and two may have been perceived to be lower than in situation three. Opportunities to cheat were also greater in situations one and two. Taking the risk of looking through a professor's desk with no way of monitoring the environment outside of the room (i.e. keeping *cave*), may have been perceived as too great a risk to take. Research has suggested that the more seriously a behaviour was perceived to be the less frequently it was carried out (e.g. Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995).

Further Hetherington and Feldman reported different rates of cheating for the same type of assessment event, the two tests (essays and multiple-choice), suggesting that something about the assessment event interacted with the cheating behaviour type and created a situation where student perceptions of cheating were affected, perhaps by perceptions of severity. This interaction effect is given in Whitley's model (figure 4.1.1). Situational constraints fed back into the ability to cheat, which in turn fed into factors such as risk perception.

As Hetherington and Feldman's studies were conducted in the 1960's it may be argued that the findings may not reflect the behaviour of today's contemporary undergraduate population. However, the studies should be held up as example of research high in ecological validity (there were also unusually for this time period, an equal number of male and female 'participants').

Roberts and Rabinowitz (1992) studied cheating by investigating under what circumstances a behaviour was considered to be cheating. Using one scenario, four main

variables, (low and high) need, provocation, opportunity and intentionality were manipulated into 16 possible combinations and college students questioned about their perceptions of cheating. Students reported that in all 16 scenarios the person had done wrong and that they should be punished. However, the decision to punish was less robust compared with the perception of whether or not cheating had taken place; respondents were reluctant to pass judgement on their hypothetical peer, regardless of the scenario manipulation (or situation). Opportunity for cheating was not found to have a significant effect. This was counter-intuitive as opportunity (risk) has often been quoted as an important factor in determining whether or not students cheat (Michaels and Miethe, 1989). It may have been the case that the scale on which respondents recorded their views in Roberts and Rabinowitz's (1992) study was not discriminatory enough. The authors reported that the punishment scale did not differentiate enough between participants and this may also have been true for the opportunity factor. The results of this study suggest that whilst students may know right from wrong, i.e. at face value what constitutes cheating, they do not always practice what they preach. The underlying layers of comprehension vs. performance have yet to be tapped with regard to the situation.

4.1.2 Consensus data and perceptions of severity

Whilst it is clear therefore that the situation in some way mediated how cheating behaviours were perceived and when they were performed, more information regarding the 'base' behaviours is required. In the majority of cases where consensus data were gathered to investigate what constituted cheating, the list of behaviours for which perceptions were sought had been generated by researchers. The evidence supporting a student-centred perception of what cheating was, is limited.

The 'situation' when discussed in relation to cheating could mean the physical place or context of the evaluative event, such as an in-class test or an examination; homework or coursework. 'Situation' could also refer to the circumstances surrounding cheating, such as the exact nature of the evaluative event (multiple choice or essay questions), opportunities to cheat and teacher characteristics. In order to appreciate what the respondents in this study felt to be cheating, it is necessary to examine the literature about what other groups of adolescents have perceived to be cheating.

The methods employed for studying what cheating is have varied from asking students to report what they had actually done (Davis, Grover, Becker and McGregor, 1992) to requesting

respondents to mark on likert scales of varying lengths whether the behaviour was for example, 'not at all serious' through to 'very serious' (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995), to say how ethical the behaviour was (Stevens and Stevens, 1987) or to simply report whether or not (yes, no) they thought the behaviour was cheating (McLaughlin and Ross, 1989).

How these measurement scales were used to determine perceptions of cheating also varied. Some researchers combined all of the responses that were those other than 'not cheating' to arrive at prevalence data for perceptions of cheating. Others, (e.g. Abouserie, 1997) combined 'definitely not' and 'probably not' against 'definitely yes' and 'probably yes'. Still others used the mean rating as an indication of behaviour severity (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995). This 'combination effect' of dealing with such data meant that comparisons across studies were difficult. For example, at which cut off point did a behaviour constitute cheating to all respondents if rated according to severity? And if rated according to whether or not a behaviour was or was not cheating, did 90% agreement constitute disagreement between students?

The implication of the different response styles ('is it cheating?' and 'how serious is it?') was that perceptions of severity were often bound up with measures of whether or not a behaviour constituted cheating. For example, McLaughlin and Ross (1989) used a scale that went from 'very severe' to 'not cheating', a mixture of the two. Behaviours perceived as less serious have often been discussed as those causing most confusion to students regarding whether or not cheating has occurred. Therefore comparison of these two response formats may not be wise.

When participants were allowed free reign to describe their own cheating behaviours, Davis et al (1992) recorded surprisingly little variance in the sorts of behaviours that students reported performing. This was a similar finding to those of the focus groups (Study 1, Chapter 3), that few behaviours were generated.

However, five behaviour types were found to exist in response to the question 'how did you cheat?' (Davis, et al, 1992). These were, 1) using a system of hand and feet communication during tests; 2) using a system of answer-desk position communication during tests; 3) obtaining a copy of the test and revising the answers; 4) trading papers during tests and comparing answers and 5) opening a book and looking at the answers during a test. Interestingly, the behaviours were cited in the original paper devoid of the situation. They have been presented in the test situation here for clarity. In addition no order of frequency was mentioned regarding the behaviours. However, it may well have been that the first two behaviours were most frequently reported because multiple choice tests are very common in the American university system (both behaviours are more appropriate in

multiple-choice tests) and the two behaviours are very similar in nature. This conceptual similarity was interesting in itself because the behaviours were generated by the respondents and it demonstrated the way in which individual methods of cheating could be subtly altered and performed in a way deemed appropriate for the specific situation. It is unlikely that using pre-determined checklists of behaviours would pick up this subtlety unless researchers specifically wanted to investigate this particular situation.

Researchers such as Evans and Craig (1990) and Evans, Craig and Mietzel (1993) investigated what secondary school students perceived to constitute cheating. A 90% consensus was obtained by Evans and Craig's respondents on cheating items such as 'the use of crib sheets', 'copying directly from other students' and 'signalling to other students during examinations' (Evans and Craig labelled these 'active cheating'). Only a 50% consensus was found regarding cheating items such as the 'altering of marks', 'plagiarism' and 'swapping test information outside of class' (called 'passive cheating' by Evans and Craig). Evans, Craig and Mietzel (1993) repeated the study with secondary school students from Germany, Costa Rica and America. German students recognised fewer of the behaviours as cheating, whereas the American students classified the greatest number of behaviours as cheating. The differences between the German students and the American and Costa Rican students were quite marked on a number of items (see table 4.1.1).

One reason why the German students were found to have such relaxed attitudes to cheating may have been related to their academic ability. The sample consisted of academically gifted students, who the authors suggested may have been more liberal because of their guaranteed prospective academic successes. Whilst stark differences were found across all three samples of students, it was found that they all recognised cheating as implying a 'shirking of academic responsibility ...' (p598).

However, Evans et al did not highlight for discussion items that may not have had relevance for the student samples. For example, in Chapter 3, the focus group participants did not feel that falsifying a bibliography was relevant to their academic situation (see point 3, table 4.1.1). It is questionable as to whether the younger participants of the countries included in Evans, Craig and Mietzel's study found such an item wholly applicable.

Table 4.1.1. Representative items of academic cheating showing strong dissimilarity across 11th grade students from three cultures (from Evans, Craig and Mietzel, 1993)

		% agreement		
		Costa Rica	Germany	U.S
Cheating is:				
1	Examining a copy of an old test that the teacher does not want you to see because it is just like the one you will soon be having	80	22	92
2	Hiding or not reporting a mistake in a teacher's test scoring that results in a higher grade than you deserve.	59	04	46
3	Listing books or articles that you didn't read in the bibliography or class paper.	61	23	81
4	Allowing another student to use a class paper you have written to get credit for their class.	77	31	87
5	Letting another student copy answers from your homework papers.	82	39	86

A comparison of the most seriously perceived behaviours (or those for which there were was greatest agreement) may suggest trends in the way cheating behaviours have been perceived by students. In table 4.1.2, perceptions of the most serious or most agreed upon behaviours have been presented for five cheating articles. The first two (McLaughlin and Ross, 1989 and Stevens and Stevens, 1987) are consensus data and are measures of cheating or not cheating. However, comparisons should be made with caution as Stevens and Stevens' medical student respondents made judgements about whether or not the behaviours were *ethical*. The remaining three reports referred to perceptions of the severity of cheating behaviours (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995; Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen, 1994; Tom and Borin, 1988).

It was apparent that impersonation (having one person sit an exam for another person), copying and the use of crib sheets were common behaviours across the five studies. In addition, the exam setting was frequently mentioned in behaviours. However, McLaughlin and Ross' findings deserve further discussion. Firstly, there was reference to 'looking at notes during an exam'. This was not linked with any form of cheating in the wording of the item, but the assumption was made that looking was synonymous with cheating. They reported that 'looking', whilst, scoring high in severity was eighth in occurrence. Stevens and Stevens reported that 88% of medical students perceived 'looking at someone else's work but keeping the answer the same if the two students answers matched', to be cheating. This subtle articulation of copying has rarely been covered in studies of cheating and again, as with the research of Davis et al (1992) suggests that a

description of cheating as *defined by the perpetrators* is required in order to be able to fully understand how cheating is perceived.

Table 4.1.2. Behaviours most perceived to be cheating or perceived as most serious forms of cheating.

McLaughlin and Ross (1989)	Stevens and Stevens (1987)	Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen (1994)	Tom and Borin (1988)	Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995)
Copying during an exam	Copying in an end of block exam	Impersonation	Exchanging papers during an exam	Impersonation
Looking at notes during an exam	Copying from crib sheets	Copying a term paper	Impersonation	Taking unauthorised materials into an exam
Asking someone for the answers in an exam	Impersonation	Writing a term paper for someone else	Bribery or blackmail	Gaining advance information an exam
Copying homework or a term paper	Changing marks after grading and requesting a remark	Giving answers during an exam	Asking someone for the answers in an exam	Copying coursework without knowledge
Arranging to give answers by signalling	Permitting other students to copy during an end of block exam	Copying in an exam	Using crib sheets during an exam	Copying from a neighbour without their knowledge

Secondly McLaughlin and Ross referred to homework (cheating on which was reported to occur frequently). Again, it was unusual to have homework mentioned in studies of cheating, possibly perhaps because it is referred to in a majority of university level institutions as coursework. None of the adolescent research previously discussed referred to homework, which was surprising as homework forms a large part (or should form a large part) of academic life for this particular age group. It is also interesting that homework was mentioned alongside term papers in the same item (see table 4.1.2). Was this an assumption that homework and term papers were perceived in the same way by respondents? Combining two such disparate assessments in the same item may have been misleading in terms of whether or not they were both perceived as cheating to the same degree (and if they were, was it for the same reason?). Situational constraints must surely be a factor in this example.

Other trends regarding the severity of cheating behaviours were apparent. Those behaviours that were reported to be the most serious were also more likely to be perpetrated the least frequently (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995; Graham et al, 1994). However, Abouserie (1997) found a discrepancy between what students reported cheating to be and whether or not they had actually performed the behaviour. Of the behaviours for which data were gathered pertaining to the *status* of cheating around 30-40% of respondents reported that they had

performed the behaviours. With regard to specific behaviours, less than 20% said that 'using information in past essays to produce new essays' and 'not owning up if a test was incorrectly marked' constituted cheating. Therefore few respondents felt the behaviour was cheating whilst many more performed the behaviour. In contrast, over 80% reported plagiarism to be cheating with over 40% reporting to have plagiarised; over 70% reported that obtaining information about a test that others had taken ahead of them was cheating, yet over 30% said they had done this. This suggests that whilst an inverse severity/frequency interaction exists, a similar linear relationship between frequency and consensus may not exist.

The data pertaining to the least seriously perceived behaviours and the behaviours for which there was least consensus were equally interesting. In table 4.1.3, the same studies as those presented in table 4.1.2 have been used.

Table 4.1.3. Behaviours least perceived to be cheating or perceived as least serious forms of cheating

McLaughlin and Ross (1989)	Stevens and Stevens (1987)	Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen (1994)	Tom and Borin (1988)	Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995)
Studying from notes taken by someone else	Collaborating on an assignment that should have been written independently	Using an old paper for more than one class	Studying from someone else's notes	Fabricating references
Using memory devices	Observing someone copying and doing nothing	Using an old test to study without the teachers permission	Failing to report a grading error	Writing after the exam has ended
Using old papers to revise from that the teacher has provided	Looking at someone's exam paper and keeping your answer if they are both the same	Allowing someone to copy your homework	Copying homework	Paraphrasing without referencing the source
Using old papers to revise from that only a few students have	Writing up a practical report without doing the work	Social loafing	Visiting a professor after an exam to bias grading	Allowing coursework to be copied
Copying answers unintentionally left on the black board	Deliberately mis-shelving library books	Giving test answers to people who have yet to take the test	Social loafing	Copying work without referencing the source

Study methods and social loafing were two behaviours that were mentioned by more than one study. However, in three cases, there were direct contrasts with the high severity data in table 4.1.2. Firstly, 'failure to report a grading error' (Tom and Borin, 1988) was included in a slightly different form in the least serious table (4.1.3). However, the consensus data for Stevens and Stevens (1987) suggested that 'asking for a re-grading after altering answers' was *very unethical*. It

could be that consensus data about what is and is not ethical, like what is and is not cheating, cannot be compared to severity data or that the subtle permutations of one behaviour were treated very differently by respondents, depending on the situation of that behaviour.

The second case where there was a discrepancy between the high and low severity perceptions was regarding the 'looking' behaviours. In McLaughlin and Ross' study, it was in the top of the consensus table (serious), whereas for Stevens and Stevens it was in the bottom of the consensus table (less serious). However, consensus ratings did not fall below 70% for the respondents in Stevens and Stevens' study, which for data of these kind, consistently high consensus (above 70%) was unusual. It may be that the method by which Stevens and Stevens' measured consensus was, like Roberts and Rabinowitz (1992, mentioned above), not discriminatory enough.

The third discrepancy related to homework. Homework, when a behaviour in its own right, was not severely perceived (Tom and Borin, 1988), but when combined with 'copying a term paper', was perceived to be a strong example of cheating (McLaughlin and Ross, 1989). Once again, the comparison between consensus and severity makes interpretation difficult, but it may well be that homework was perceived differently when isolated as an individual cheating behaviour.

The wider range of behaviours cited in the least serious table (4.1.3) compared with the most serious (4.1.2) may be an indication of where the real differences in perceptions of cheating lie. This greater variety of less serious cheating behaviours may have at least two origins. Firstly, institutional differences may occur for such behaviours where some establishments allow various practices as part of the learning process (e.g. studying from past papers). Researchers may not have included these behaviours in their surveys. This may be particularly so for secondary schools which have a different ethos and assessment system to the tertiary sector. However, as there are no data pertaining to secondary school students regarding this issue, the validity of this hypothesis is unknown. Further, if differences in ethos do exist, then those data in the literature reporting such non-permitted behaviours would be of little relevance for comparison with systems where they were permitted.

Secondly, there may be assessment differences. Again, this is perhaps a difference at the institutional level, but refers to what individual assessment setters prefer to do. These differences range from the type of assessments set (essays vs. multiple choice) to the kinds of preparation and instructions given to students regarding cheating. It may be that specific types of cheating are

associated with particular types of assessments or individual (teacher characteristics) ways of being assessed.

When all of the consensus data and severity data are considered, there does appear to be one clear trend, that of assessment type. Exam cheating appeared frequently in the 'top' lists, whilst, coursework and plagiarism behaviours occurred much lower down, usually at the bottom. Researchers frequently made the distinction between exams and plagiarism because one appeared to be well understood by respondents (exams) whilst the other (plagiarism) appeared to be little understood. Coursework is also probably wide open to interpretation.

However, the distinction between assessments was not drawn in the surveys discussed. Public exams are different from tests that are not public (e.g., in-class tests), which again are different to coursework and homework. In addition, 'ordinary' classroom behaviours can invite cheating even when there are no formal assessment procedures, but where individuals are required to work on their own. Further there are differences between these types of assessment according to the level of education (secondary or higher). For example, class sizes are small (typically) at secondary education, which may alter the perception of risk regarding cheating.

How the situation or in this example, assessment type can effect the perception of the cheating behaviour is open to question. Tom and Borin (1988) reported a behaviour (the use of crib sheets) that is carried out fairly frequently, to be amongst the top five most seriously perceived behaviours. The situation probably elevated the status of this frequently performed behaviour. The key word was 'examination'. The situation in which the cheating was placed may have provided cues as to the 'appropriateness' of a behaviour. Cheating in examinations for example, was generally viewed as more serious than cheating in a class test.

4.1.3 Individual differences

Trends of age and gender have been noted in the literature regarding cheating in general. However, with regard to consensus and severity, research evidence is limited. Evans and Craig (1990) reported significant age differences in the perceptions (cognitions) of what constituted cheating. There was a 'grade level trend to show increased [cheating] cognitions as students move[d] to successively higher levels of schooling', (p332). Cognitions were grouped around years 7,8 and 9, then around years 10, 11 and 12 (lower versus upper school). Older and more academically able students understood cheating on a deeper, more intricate level. Older students scored more highly on the scale of cheating, suggesting that they had a greater consensus of

opinion than younger students and that more behaviours were perceived to be cheating rather than not to be cheating.

Gender differences in the perception of cheating were less forthcoming. References to gender differences in Chapter 2 were mostly in relation to general perceptions of cheating. For example, in the literature, females were generally found to view cheating more seriously overall than males and that they held the view that males cheated to a greater extent (Schab, 1991).

4.1.4 Summary

What conclusions can be drawn regarding the evidence presented thus far? It appeared that cultural differences regarding the severity of cheating were identified and that the type of behaviour was perceived differentially according to the situation, in particular according to the assessment type. However, it was equally evident that researcher-driven lists of cheating behaviours produced different data to those of the free recall type. There was also evidence to suggest that whilst some behaviours were poorly conceived by students (i.e. plagiarism) others were very well understood and subtle differences well comprehended (e.g. signalling in an exam). These subtle differences appeared once again to be situation-dependent.

Care should be taken with all of these findings however, as social desirability in responding probably occurred. For example, Abouserie (1997) reported discrepancies between whether or not a behaviour was deemed cheating and whether or not it was reported to have occurred. It is highly likely that reported occurrences of cheating were subject to a suppresser effect (Randall and Fernandes, 1991), whereas reported severity of cheating was subject to over-agreement. Both under-reporting and over-reporting may reflect a desire on the behalf of the participants to appear to have been behaving in a way that was socially acceptable.

This bias in reporting may have resulted in skewed data. Topics of a sensitive nature or moral slant typically produce skewed results and therefore another way to measure or distinguish more finely between behaviours at this level of perceived similarity is required.

4.1.5 Aims of the present study

In Study 1 (Chapter 3), the list of cheating behaviours developed from a higher education study was used as stimulus material. The resulting data were therefore not wholly the representations of the students' original or individual perceptions. That is not to say that the data were in some way inferior. They served to shed light upon an otherwise unexplored area of

educational research. The present investigation aimed to build on the avenues opened by the earlier research. This chapter is a report of the assessment of what students in secondary school viewed as typical cheating behaviours and how those behaviours were perceived in terms of severity. In order to collect these data, students were asked to list all the behaviours they could think of, which they believed to constitute cheating and to rank those behaviours according to how serious they felt them to be. Three basic research hypotheses were formulated, based on the literature.

Firstly, it was hypothesised that a far greater range of behaviours would be generated than those presented in the surveys outlined above, but that many of those behaviours would be subtle permutations of a few behaviour types.

Secondly, it was hypothesised that the data would cluster into cheating situations and that the most infrequent form of cheating behaviours, those perpetrated during formal exams, would be perceived as the most serious.

Thirdly, it was predicted that in order to list behaviours, students of this age would place them in a situation, because the behaviour would then become more concrete and less abstract.

The remaining findings from the gathered data were not predicted *a priori* as the chosen method of analysis relied on analysis techniques taken from grounded theory. The principles of grounded theory, more of which are covered in Chapter 5, were used in order to produce a picture of adolescent cheating that was as objective as possible.

4.2 Method

4.2.1 Participants and method of recruitment

Two hundred and fifty three students participated from 11 schools across South and East Devon. There were two respondents who did not provide any demographic details. For ease of analysis, these data were discarded, reducing the sample size to 251 participants. In addition, a further seventy-eight students participated from three schools West Sussex and Hampshire giving an overall total of 329 participants.

Schools in Devon were approached in May 1997 and invited to take part in the study. A request was made for lower school classes to be made available to the researcher. The Summer term contains public examinations, and brings to schools unavoidable timetable rescheduling and other upheavals. It was thought that years 10 and 11 (ages 15 and 16) would not be released from their examination studies in order to participate, and this was indeed the case. Consequently, years

7, 8 and 9 formed the bulk of the sample, with 4 participants from year 6 (from a school with a mixed year 6 and 7 first year). The number of classes sampled were not equal across the three years; headteachers made classes available according to convenience and to the school's routine. In September of 1999, one school from West Sussex and two from Hampshire were approached to help increase the number of year 10 and 11 students in the total sample. The time delay between data collection for the lower school years and upper school years was not intentional. Data were collected when the researcher was able to co-ordinate the school timetables with her own research timetable. The impact of gathering data over two years meant that the students in years 10 and 11 were the same age as those students sampled from years 8 and 9, if sampling had been conducted with the same schools two years on. Therefore, there was an element of a quasi-longitudinal design in the study.

In total, 16 schools were approached. Two did not take part in the study through timetabling difficulties rather than a desire not to participate.

4.2.2 Demographic details

School status

The status of the schools in the sample varied. There were three independent schools (one single sex, male; one single sex, female; one co-educational); four community colleges and five comprehensive schools (two of which were split into upper and lower school campuses). One of the schools was affiliated to a religious organisation (Roman Catholic).

Gender and age

In total, there were 136 males and 191 females. The participants' ages ranged from 10 to 16 years old. Table 4.2.1 gives details of how many participants came from each age. A note was made of year group by the researcher after each classroom data collection session.

Table 4.2.1. Number of participants as a function of age

Age 10	Age 11	Age 12	Age 13	Age 14	Age 15	Age 16
4	23	97	74	64	57	9

4.2.3 Materials

For the purposes of the study a simple questionnaire was produced. It consisted of an A3 sheet of paper folded in half. On one side of the sheet were the instructions and a space for respondents to circle their age and sex. A miniaturised version of the questionnaire is presented in figure 4.2.1. Where appropriate, arrows from a paragraph of instructions pointed to the part of the questionnaire which it explained.

On the right-hand side of the sheet was the questionnaire. This was a simple table of two columns. The first column asked the respondent to list all of the behaviours which they thought constituted cheating and the second asked them to rank their responses according to item severity, beginning with 1, for the most serious. The questionnaire was designed to be folded in half (for confidentiality) when completed and to be straightforward should a teacher wish to administer the questionnaire in the researcher's absence.

4.2.4 Ethical considerations

Accessing schools

Included in the letters that were sent to the headteachers of all 16 schools were examples of the questionnaire to be administered to the students. Assurances were given regarding anonymity, confidentiality and the researcher's desire to avoid gathering any student data related to actual cheating behaviour. Common sense and the literature suggest that institutions are unwilling to let their students participate in research which asks them whether or not they have cheated. Research that does directly ask this question may be affected by social desirability. In addition, the widest possible range of cheating behaviours needed to be accessed. It has been acknowledged by researchers such as Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) that the more seriously a behaviour is perceived, the less frequently it is actually perpetrated. Therefore asking for students' knowledge of behaviours rather than for those for which they have had direct experience was expected to generate a larger number and range of items than those described in Chapter 3 (Study 1).

Participant confidentiality

The students who were released by headteachers to participate in the study were told that they had the right not to participate and the right to withdraw at anytime during the data

collection phase without penalty. The response sheets were anonymous and only requested age and gender information. Students were provided with a method of contacting the researcher and were asked whether they would like to receive information about the findings of the study.

4.2.5 Procedure

The students participating in the study did so in the room of their timetabled lesson. The students were encouraged to look at the questionnaire whilst the researcher explained why she was asking them to complete a questionnaire on cheating. It was emphasised that reporting actual cheating behaviour was not part of the research, but that if the students felt that their answers could be better expressed by referring to examples, then this would be fine. Each of the instruction paragraphs were discussed and an emphasis was placed on including any and every behaviour which the students felt to be cheating. To ensure a wide range of behaviours were generated, the researcher asked the students to report things that mattered to themselves and not what they thought would matter to the researcher or to the class teacher. The students were told that it did not matter if they could not fill up the entire table with examples

Where possible, the class teacher was asked to leave for the duration of the study. This was to re-assure the students that their responses would be confidential to the researcher. When the whole class had completed the exercise, a student volunteer was asked to collect all of the questionnaires (no distinction was made between complete or uncompleted) and in front of the class place them in a plain brown envelope which they then sealed. The envelope was then placed in a box with other filled envelopes from other classes and schools.

4.2.6 Summary

The data collected were a list of up to 10 student generated cheating items, with an associated numerical representation of severity for each item. The numerical representation was a rank out of the total number of items listed, beginning at '1' for the most serious behaviour and finishing with the number corresponding to the total number of items they had listed.

4.2.7 Preparation of the data for analysis

The completed questionnaires were individually transferred onto computer and prepared for input into the qualitative software package, Nud*ist (Non-numerical Data, Indexing, Searching

and Theorising). Each participant's responses were recorded in a separate document (see appendix 5 for the raw data). This process involved inserting a code at the beginning of each document which provided demographic information that Nud*ist could 'read'. The codes, once read by Nud*ist, partitioned the documents according to demographic information. For example, the line of code %m, %13, %3 denoted the copying of the entire document three times and storage of the copied document in three separate places. One for the division 'male' (%m), one for the division 'age 13' (%13) and one for the division '3rd year' (%3).

Information about the severity ratings of each item given were included in code form *within* the main body of each document. Some participants had used an incorrect method of ranking. For example, they may have used the rank '2' twice, instead of perhaps giving the rank '2.5' to items. In such cases, the responses were **not** transferred into the documents with the ranks corrected. The effect of not correcting the participants' ranking system on the data was important. If a respondent gave 8 items and listed them all as '1', then the true-ranking method re-assigns the seriousness rating to '4.5'. This changes the perceptual label of those items. The net result would be that the level of seriousness overall is artificially de-valued. Any ranks that are tied, are by default assigned to a higher rank value. Higher rank values in this study related to perceptions of less seriousness. The non-use of true-ranking assumed that the respondents deliberately chose to use their own internal calibration system to try to highlight how seriously they perceived the items. Using a correct ranking system would have not allowed for these kinds of differences in perceptions of seriousness to be calculated. Therefore, whilst it is appreciated that the correct method of ranking data was overruled, this was to allow for the respondents' own decisions regarding severity to be employed in analyses.

(a) Open Coding

In order to treat the data as objectively as possible and keep researcher bias to a minimum, the data were initially treated at face value. A weak form of grounded theory was used as the base technique of analysis. It should be clearly understood that these data were not suitable to 'build' a grounded theory. However, the *procedures* upon which grounded theory are based are applicable to all kinds of qualitative data. In the same way that parametric tests use descriptive statistics for calculation of a test statistic, it is not assumed that initially describing a data set using the mean implies that a full parametric test *must* be applied or is the intended outcome of analysis.

Both open and axial coding were performed on the data. It was not proposed that the full range of grounded theory techniques be applied to the data because the data were too un-descriptive and did not represent a substantial sampling of each individual participant's views.

A selection of documents were read and re-read in order that divisions of behaviour types could be identified. The divisions were developed by grouping similarly themed items together. For example, in the early stages of analysis, items were grouped according to whether they referred to traditionally academic issues or traditionally non-academic issues. Descriptors were given to the divisions to provide conceptual labels. These labels further reinforced the relationships that developed between and within the divisions. The conceptual labels were often terms not identified by participants, but which condensed and summarised a series of related items. The labels given to the divisions increased their conceptual power (and are referred to in **bold**). For example, the division **active copying** referred to all items which required the participants to play an active role in transferring material from an illegitimate source to themselves e.g., one content area label was **copying from other people**. This was contrasted with the division of **passive copying** which contained items requiring no action by the participant in transferring the copied material from an illegitimate source to themselves e.g. **getting someone else to do it**.

Sub divisions within the divisions were identified to expand and exemplify the overall conceptual label. For example, the division **passive copying** had five components: **from friends and family; getting someone else to do it; making or paying someone else to do it; letting others copy you and changing the name on the assessment**.

In some instances items referred to more than one form of cheating, for example:

"I think writing the answers somewhere before the test and copying them is cheating or getting the answer paper is cheating". (participant 787)

In the above example, participant 787 referred to three acts of cheating; 'preparing a crib sheet', 'copying', and 'getting advance information about an assessment'. However, items such as these were coded only once according to the first form of cheating listed. The choice to use the first item was arbitrary and based on convenience as no method of determining a value judgement on the subsequent items reported within a single item group was possible. Using the data in this way would make statistical analyses easier, especially if figures could be totalled to 100%. This

method of coding also made it easier to audit trail every item to ensure that it was coded. With over 1000 items this at times was very difficult.

(b) Co-axial coding

Co-axial coding was used to identify relationships between the divisions and to check that the divisions contained the 'correct' items. The process of co-axial coding went in tandem with the later stages of open coding. The researcher immersed herself in the data and coded and re-coded items as new relationships became evident or themes rendered themselves dead-ends. The conceptual labelling of divisions was a fluid process entailing the subsumation of sub-divisions and even whole divisions to new locations within the coding scheme. This movement of divisions was in response to the co-axial coding process of asking questions. For example, in trying to locate a series of items relating to the completion of homework by someone else, questions about how the items related to the existing structure were asked; was it possible to scatter the items within the structure or did these items form a mutually exclusive division? The results of these kinds of questions in this particular instance, lead to part of the overall coding structure being re-developed. 'Impersonation' and 'parents cheating' were established as sub-divisions of two different concepts. These were taken, together with the homework items and merged into a division labelled **passive copying**. Another instance of how co-axial coding was employed was by identifying the *dimensions* of the divisions. To ensure that the development of the divisions was robust, 'physical attributes' (dimensions) of the items, were examined. For example, in the **exchanging information** division, dimensions of frequency (many items or few); number of actors involved in the cheating (one or more than one); whether the cheating was uni or bi-directional (directed toward one person or between two people) amongst others were generated. It was this process that led to the development of a time-related component in the final model.

(c) The role of Nud*ist in theory building.

Nud*ist is a computerised qualitative analysis package. In simple terms it is a computerised index box which employs many of the techniques that manual analyses use. Nud*ist aids the development of a theory (or in this case, a model) in three ways. Firstly it enables the structure of the theory to be elucidated. The divisions (known as 'nodes') that are developed by researcher can be modified in numerous ways, thus maintaining the fluidity of the question-asking

phase of co-axial coding. Secondly, Nud*ist has extensive memoing capabilities. Memos of the coding process can be attached to the node and kept with the material in that node wherever it is subsequently placed or however it is subsequently modified. Memoing in this way allows an audit trail of theory development to be created. Finally, Nud*ist has system closure. This is the function of storing all the searching and indexing processes, in a way that allows the results of such processes to be directly attached and/or merged with the main coding (theory) structure. For example, a 'string' search for all items containing the word **Homework** was performed during the open coding stages. The results of this search were stored as a mutually exclusive division in an early part of the theory's structure for subsequent use in the co-axial coding stage. Similarly, during the co-axial coding phase, more sophisticated 'index' searches were performed which asked questions about patterns of regularities and exceptions to rules in the developing model. For example, an index search was performed to examine the relationship between the severity ratings of items and the gender of the respondents.

4.3 Results 1: The development of the model

In this way the relationships that were salient and robust were identified by the researcher. These relationships were then expressed in diagram form to demonstrate the relationships simply and clearly and to aid the process of model building. The diagram below is the result of many refinements to the model and illustrates how the divisions related to one another.

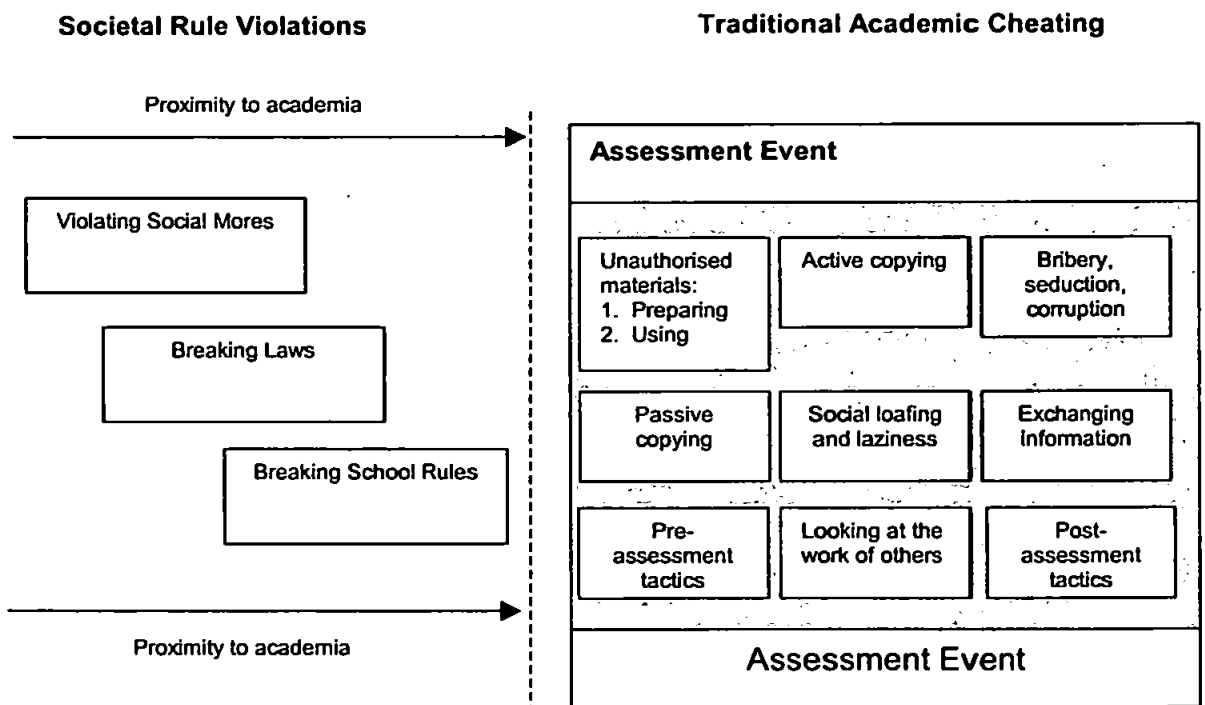
The model in figure 4.3.1, consists of 12 divisions of behaviours which the adolescents perceived to constitute cheating in school. These 12 divisions were sub-divided into two conceptual areas: **Societal Rule Violations (SRV)** and **Traditional Academic Cheating (TAC)**. **Societal Rule Violations** subsumed the divisions of **breaking laws, violating social mores and breaking school rules**. **Traditional Academic Cheating** subsumed the divisions of **looking at the work of others, unauthorised materials, exchanging information, pre-assessment tactics, post-assessment tactics, active copying, passive copying, bribery, seduction and corruption**. Within most of these sub-divisions (content areas), further divisions were made to fully explore the range of cheating behaviours given by the adolescents. The content areas and their sub-divisions are described in the following section.

The function of including these further subdivisions was three-fold. Firstly, cheating as a behavioural domain was made up of many more specific behaviours than those given in the model

below. The model outlined the basic groupings into which specific behaviours fell. Secondly, by discussing the sub-divisions, the model is 'de-constructed' to demonstrate how the final divisions were achieved. Thirdly, during the process of model development a number of interesting off-shoots arose which whilst not central to the model itself, may be important in understanding the way adolescents perceived and comprehended cheating and may possibly also provide information about performance of the behaviours.

The model therefore, is presented thus: a deconstruction of the main structures into their component parts followed by a re-integration of those parts demonstrating how they were arranged to produce the functional (and testable) model.

Figure 4.3.1. Adolescents' definitions of cheating behaviours



4.3.1 Conceptual area 1: Societal Rule Violations

Respondents in the study were asked to provide a list of behaviours that they thought were cheating. The actual phrase they were asked to respond to was, 'I think these things are cheating in school'. The divisions discussed under the heading of **Societal Rule Violations** were technically unrelated to academic dishonesty. However, the majority of the items within these divisions did take place within the school as a whole. Rephrasing the stimulus statement, by changing the

ending to 'in the classroom' thus decreasing the area of focus, would still have resulted in many of the same non-academic items being generated. It was clear that many of the items generated in these divisions could easily have occurred in the classroom setting. Therefore the conclusion that this section of the model is a valid representation of adolescent perceptions of cheating was drawn. The clear distinction that adults draw between classroom and non-classroom activities appeared not to be so easily differentiable in these data. It could be argued that the respondents were misreading the question. However, individual respondents did not just generate non-academic items, they presented a mixture, suggesting that their perceptions toward cheating did not fall into discrete categories. Rather their understanding of cheating may have been based on language use (the word *cheating* has many meanings in the English language) and personal perceptions of what, for them, cheating in school meant.

1. Violating Social Mores

This conceptual label referred to rules by which society abides, but which are often unwritten. Five main divisions were used to describe the different kinds of social mores listed by the adolescents, with one extra division for the handful of miscellaneous violations such as breaking a diet! The main divisions were: **ill-treating friends, relationship rules, strategies to avoid losing games or enhance opportunities for winning, cheating others out of opportunities and lying.**

Deciding where the many sporting misdemeanours fitted into the model in figure 4.3.1 required thought. Whilst sport is a recognised part of the national curriculum, it is not an 'examinable' subject and teachers do not require pupils to take formative or summative assessments to check progress in the same manner as other subjects. In addition sports have recognised rules of conduct. At school level however, these rules are often subject to 'un-written' manipulations, in the same way that other 'games' (e.g. board games) are during childhood and adolescence. The sporting items were therefore placed not in a separate section, but mostly with the two divisions **strategies to avoid losing games or enhance opportunities for winning and cheating others out of opportunities.** In both cases, extra examples have been given to demonstrate how the sporting items fitted into the divisions. These items are highlighted in the following text with an asterisk (*).

1.1 *Ill-treating friends*

Interpersonal relationships between friends and family was the focus for this kind of social more:

- "Blaming someone for something they didn't do" (participant 784)
- "Liking someone one minute and then going bad on them" (participant 770)

1.2 *Relationship rules*

The rules by which girl/boy friends operate:

- "Cheating on your boyfriend, 2 timing" (participant 838)

1.3 *Strategies to avoid losing games or enhance opportunities for winning*

This division encompassed all the items which related to the playing of 'games', such as board games, card games, sporting games and playground games. The conceptual label originally referred to strategies to win games. However, in many of the examples in this division, the strategy would not have secured an outright victory for the participant, merely avoided losing the game completely:

- "When no-one's looking, you put the dice at a certain number" (participant 718)
- "You are playing a game of 'it' and someone hides so you can't catch them" (participant 907)
- "Adding on extra points in sporting events/PE" (participant 308)*
- "Handball in football" (participant 706)*
- "Using drugs to make you win a race or perform better" (participant 821)*

1.4 *Cheating others out of opportunities*

This division described actions related to achieving success, through the process of preventing others from achieving success ahead of the respondent.

- "If you had to judge a competition, making your best friend win even if they didn't deserve to" (participant 880)
- "Tripping someone up in a race so you can win easier" (participant 910)*

1.5 *Lying*

This division contained items about lying in many different situations. It did not contain items about lying to teachers. Those items were placed in the **breaking school rules** division as many schools have a clause about honesty towards authority in their student charters:

"Lying to get out of trouble" (participant 776)
"Telling fibs about other people" (participant 925)

2. Breaking Laws

Breaking laws was the conceptual label given to the items which related to prosecutable offences. There were three sub-divisions, two of which contained the majority of items.

2.1 Age related law breaking

This division contained three items relating to the buying of alcohol and cigarettes underage.

"Buying fags and alcohol underage" (participant 761)

2.2 Financial dishonesty

Items relating to any kind of fraud or monetary deceit:

"Taking money from a fund then lying about it (respondent 887)
"Borrowing some money off somebody and saying you'll pay them back but never paying them back" (respondent 908)

2.3 Stealing

Items relating to any kind of property theft:

"Taking people's personal possessions and personal belongings" (participant 318)
"Stealing from the canteen" (participant 931)

3. Breaking School Rules

The items in the divisions under this heading were quite wide ranging. They took into account activities which occurred at school which were at worst disciplinary offences and at best, breaking social mores. The conceptual labels for this division were, **missing school, lying to authority and social mores (school).**

3.1 Missing school

"Mitching off lessons" (participant 302)
"Taking days off school when you are not ill" (participant 937)

3.2 Lying to authority

"Cheating matron into getting another biscuit when you have had one" (participant 830)

"Cheating your teacher if you are sent to the headteacher and you say you go but don't (participant 905)

"If it's raining outside and you don't want to get wet you write a note, do your mum's signature and get out of doing it" (participant 891)

3.3 Social mores (school)

"Pushing in the dinner queue" (participant 701)

"When a teacher gives us a stamp and then someone wants to transfer it by putting their thumb on it and printing it on the other square" (participant 725)

"Not obeying school rules" (participant 944)

(a) Proximity to academia

In the model in figure 4.3.1 (on page 118) there was a spatial representation of how close the three main **Societal Rule Violations** divisions were to the academic environment in which cheating, in the traditional sense (academic dishonesty) took place. In general, the breaking of school rules does not reflect on any kind of academic grading that adolescents receive for their work (unless effort gradings are being considered). However, this type of **Societal Rule Violations** is the easiest to associate with education as it takes place within the school setting and was therefore situated closest to **Traditional Academic Cheating**.

Breaking laws, the conceptual label governed by the risk of prosecution, belonged nearer to the academia/non-academia dividing line than **violating social mores**. This was because many items within the former division referred to acts committed in the school environment. Whilst prosecution is an action not often linked with education, the **breaking school rules** division in this instance, was closer in item content to academia than **violating social mores**.

Violating social mores was a division which contained items that also took place in the school setting, but were general enough in their description to apply to **Societal Rule Violations** in all social situations.

4.3.2 Conceptual area 2: Traditional Academic Cheating

Traditional Academic Cheating divisions naturally formed themselves into collections of items which occurred within the assessed educational setting. Therefore, the words 'assessment event' were central to the right hand side of the model in figure 4.3.1. The term assessment event was used as a conceptual label that gathered together all of the educational assessments

expressed by respondents. This meant for example, a formal examination, a piece of homework or a classwork based activity. Using the **assessment event** as a pivotal point in the study of cheating in this instance was progressive because it included all of the perceived assessment events given by the respondents. Thus, **Homework** and **Classwork** have been included where they otherwise may have been excluded if other more typical academic dishonesty investigation methods had been employed.

However, the resulting **Traditional Academic Cheating** divisions did not wholly conform to the received wisdom of what constituted cheating. For example, in several places throughout the model, the conceptual label of 'looking' was used. The term 'looking' referred to the behaviour in its literal sense, i.e., looking but not acting. This behaviour has not often been classed as cheating in the literature. Indeed Schneider (1999) reported that prosecutions pertaining to 'looking' and cheating often failed in American universities.

Respondents listed in great quantity acts of cheating that referred only to looking at the work of others and not actually acting subsequent to the looking. From these data it was not possible to ascertain how the 'looking' was used. Therefore, these kinds of items were treated as concepts in their own right and not grouped with other behaviours such as copying. What follows is a detailed description of each component of each division that was given in the model. The purpose of giving such a thick description at this stage was to demonstrate the validity of subsequent iterations that informed the processes involved in the final version of the model. The iterations in the development of the model are discussed in turn, again so that the validity underlying the overall model is clear and theoretically robust.

The first iteration comprised the thick descriptions of the cheating behaviour divisions. The second, third and fourth iterations related explicitly to the situational components that emerged from the data and that were related to the cheating behaviours. For each iteration the model was reworked to show how each situational constraint affected the behaviour.

1. Looking at the work of others

This division encompassed 'looking' in the most basic form. Any items which referred to looking at the work of other people were included. The locus of this division was that the looking involved the work of another person and not simply an exam paper or unauthorised book. There was an actor-recipient relationship evident. There is an argument for amalgamating this division

with the subsequent division of **unauthorised materials**. However, the act of looking at someone's work is technically, not an unauthorised material, even if it is an unauthorised activity. It could be argued that as the original research question put to participants referred to what they thought was cheating in school, this discussion of 'looking' as a separate behaviour may be a red herring. Looking could be synonymous with coping in terms of semantics. Alternatively, respondents may truly see looking as some form of rule breaking and view it as cheating in its own right. However, the process of coding the data required that assumptions about the character and nature of possible semantics were held at a distance. The distance was maintained whilst the data were fully explored.

"Cheating in an exam by looking at somebody else" (participant 781)

"Looking over your shoulder in test, at the next person to your desk" (participant 1001)

"Looking at other people's answers in a classroom setting" (participant 764)

2. Unauthorised Materials

There are many kinds of unauthorised materials that can be used in the process of cheating. The variety of items in these divisions had changed little from the days when the researcher was at school! As with the **looking at the work of others** division above, conceptual labels were used to distinguish between 'looking' at unauthorised materials and 'preparing or using' unauthorised materials. The divisions developed to describe the range of **unauthorised materials** were: **preparation and use of written materials, looking at written materials, use of printed and unauthorised materials, looking at printed and unauthorised materials, looking at or reading answers and calculators**. The first four divisions given here were paired. The first in each pair referred to active use of the unauthorised materials and the second merely to looking at the unauthorised materials.

2.1 Preparation and use of written materials

Crib sheets and the like were a fruitful way of cheating it would appear. The use of the hand and pencil case as 'notepads' were also found to be commonplace.

"In exams, write answers on your arms" (participant 991)

"Having the answers to a test in your pencil case" (participant 322)

"Copy the answers on a piece of paper and bring it on the test or exam" (participant 994)

"Writing answers on your hand in class" (participant 844).

2.2 *Looking at prepared written materials*

This sub-division mirrored the items of the above sub-division. The difference between the two appeared to be straightforward. 'Looking' items suggested that the act of preparing unauthorised materials was a *fait accompli*. However, as before, the distinction between 'looking' and 'using' whilst superficial was drawn to demonstrate the way in which the respondents chose to refer to acts of cheating. It was not possible to conclude from these data that the words used by respondents were semantically concordant, e.g. looking=using=doing etc. In this division, the unauthorised material's presence was acknowledged and the use was alluded to:

"Writing answers on your leg and looking at them in an exam" (participant 833)

The example used to illustrate this sub-division is also illustrative of a point made earlier. At the outset of the coding process a decision was taken to code 'double entry' (or more) items by the first item listed (see 4.2.7a, on page 114). For items where the types of cheating were easy to differentiate between divisions, the procedure was simple. However, for items such as the one above, the differentiation process was within a single division. According to the rule written by the researcher, this item belonged in **preparation and use of written materials** because the first activity mentioned was writing answers on the leg. However, in terms of a real life activity, a greater emphasis could be placed on the act of looking at the prepared material, in effect, 'using' the prepared material. However, is 'looking at' the same as 'using'? This was a basic question which drove the 'looking/using/doing' differentiation process alluded to thus far and which will be returned to later. How this problem was dealt with is also revealed in the re-integrating phase of the description of the model. For now the function of the 'looking' sub-divisions was to help demonstrate the iterative nature of the development of the model.

2.3 *Use of printed and unauthorised materials*

The items in this sub-division referred to the use of existing materials such as text books and answer sheets. The user has not had to prepare anything in advance.

"You bring a text book into an exam when you are not allowed to"

(participant 839)

"Having an ear piece with someone feeding you the answers" (participant 702)

2.4 Looking at printed and unauthorised materials

This sub-division, like 2.1 above was a companion sub-division. It was a list of the items which only alluded to looking at the unauthorised materials. It is important to remember that it was unauthorised materials which were the focus of this sub-division. 'Looking at answers' was not specific enough to belong to this division and was therefore the mainstay of the following division.

"Looking at a book with answers in it during an exam" (participant 934)

"Looking at information that isn't to be used in a test" (participant 1007)

"Reading the teacher's answer books" (participant 748)

"If your maths book has an answer page you look at it" (participant 835)

2.5 Looking at or reading answers

This division as mentioned above did not have a reference object, other than the presence of 'answers'. For this reason it was not amalgamated with the preceding division. In the above division the example 'reading the teacher's answer book' was given. This refers to a specific unauthorised object. The following examples do not:

"Looking at the answers to an important exam" (participant 927)

"Looking at answers" (participant 726)

"Purposely looking at answers before completing the work" (participant 939)

2.6 The use of calculators

In the context of this sub-division, the use of calculators was deemed cheating if their use was prohibited in some way. In this sense, calculators were technically an unauthorised material and therefore should have formed part of a previous division. However, the number of items referring to the use of calculators was large enough to justify having a separate division for the time being.

"Taking a calculator into an exam" (participant 802)

"Cheating could also be disobeying your teacher, e.g. if you were told not to use a calculator or say a dictionary, then the use of these would be cheating on this piece of work" (participant 889)

"Getting asked a question for homework that says DO NOT use your calculator and you use it" (participant 891)

3. Exchanging information

The items in this division referred to the active passage of information from one student to another or between students in situations where these behaviours were prohibited. **Passing notes, asking/giving the answers, collusion and talking** formed the sub-divisions. These four sub-divisions differed very subtly. The conceptual labels differentiated between the method of **exchanging information** and who and how many participants/observers took part. For the purpose of the main investigation in the present study, these sub-divisions were merged into one. However, the distinction is being drawn now for discussion later.

3.1 *Passing notes*

Passing notes implied that more than one person was participating in the cheating. However, passing a note to a friend to request help which was not granted or passing a note to provide an update on the latest boyfriend does not constitute collusion. Two or more people had to actively work together for the behaviour to be classed as collusion. Therefore, whilst some items in this division could be collusion, there was not enough information given to categorically conclude that collusion took place. Collusion and passing notes, whilst both forms of cheating are technically not the same behaviour. The distinction between the two could not always be made with the given amount of information from participants. Second guessing participants' intentions would have been one way of dealing with this problem, but a way which was methodologically unsound and a decision had already been taken *not* to infer intentions on behalf of respondents. Therefore, the distinction was acknowledged as an iteration of the coding process, thus avoiding any possible biases resulting from second guessing intentions. Specific meanings were unclear and therefore good research practice dictated that the items be gathered together under the higher-level umbrella term of exchanging information.

"Passing notes in an exam" (participant 752)

"Passing answers in tests" (participant 305)

"Writing notes to each other" (participant 773)

"Passing notes in class to ask for question answers" (participant 794)

3.2 *Asking/giving the answers*

This sub-division concentrated on the method of cheating and not on the participants. Along with talking, the cheating involved perhaps a different kind of risk to passing notes, a subtle

permutation of the umbrella behaviour. There may have been more or less chance of discovery if vocal help was sought compared to slipping a note onto a friend's desk:

- "Asking someone else the question who is doing the exam" (participant 825)
- "If you're sitting next to your friend in a tables test and you tell them the answer" (participant 725)
- "Asking your friend for answers in class" (participant 844)
- "Telling someone all the answers to their homework" (participant 903)

3.3 Collusion

Several items were grouped together which referred to two or more people actively planning how to work together, instead of the more impromptu passing of notes or asking for answers. The distinction between this sub-division and the others, as before, was subtle:

- "Looking at people and making contact, talking sign language etc., in exams" (participant 882)
- "Helping someone in a test" (participant 704)
- "Thinking up a sign language or code to use in an exam/test" (participant 950)
- "Sharing answers" (participant 752)
- "Conferring in lessons" (participant 301)

3.4 Talking

In some instances in this sub-division, the purpose of the talking was given (e.g., talking to communicate answers). However, in others, it was not.

- "Talking in exams" (participant 938)
- "Speaking while the test is on" (participant 757)
- "Whispering to the person next to you" (participant 756)

4. Pre-Assessment Tactics

This division was given a conceptual label which could have been applied to behaviours presented elsewhere in the model. However, the items in this division targeted an assessment event in a very specific way. The unifying theme of the behaviours was obtaining information that gave precise information about the assessment event and removed all of the guess work in planning and preparing for the event. **Stealing or obtaining official assessment materials and stealing or obtaining answers from friends** were the sub-division labels. One form referred to obtaining information from authority figures ('them') and one to obtaining information from the peer

group. The division of **pre-assessment tactics** also had a temporal component. All of the behaviours took place before the **assessment event**, some only a few minutes before the event.

4.1 *Stealing or obtaining official assessment materials:*

"Seeing the questions posed for an exam before the actual exam takes place" (participant 322)

"Having the answers to all the answers to a test and revising them" (participant 1003)

"Knowing what the answers/questions are to a test/exam" (participant 920)

"When you have been set prep to do, then someone goes and steals the answer sheet" (participant 830)

4.2 *Stealing or obtaining answers from friends:*

"Telling friends the questions on a test you have already had so they will do well when they do it" (participant 904)

"Taking people's work book" (participant 733)

This division was an example of one which had the sub-divisions amalgamated for the final model. The differentiation between the types of **pre-assessment tactics**, authority (official) or peers, was useful during the co-axial coding stage (physical attributes). However, whilst the difference was present in the data, the number of peer related items was sufficiently small ($n=8$) to tentatively conclude that this division was primarily focused on cheating towards authority and not the peer group.

5. Post-Assessment Tactics

This division was the temporal companion to **Pre-assessment tactics**. All of the items given occurred after the assessment event, even if only a few moments later. Again, the items related to specific information about the assessment event. In some cases the contents of the assessment event were known about in detail by the students. Actions taken increased the likelihood of a good mark or of even avoiding the need for a mark. Sub-divisions were **altering marks, creating a delay in order to get answers, creating a delay to get extra time and not doing the assessment at all**.

5.1 *Altering marks:*

"To lie to your parents says I have got 98% in my maths exam and it's not right" (participant 870)

"Marking a test, but filling in the answers as you go along" (participant 312)

"Changing other people's work" (participant 859)

"You've been given some questions to do and you don't do them until the teacher's put the answers on the board" (participant 718)

5.2 *Creating a delay in order to get answers:*

"When you take an exam home to finish checking answers" (participant 1002)
 "Mithing off a lesson when you have a test and then getting your friend's test and copying it when you come round to doing the test" (participant 911).

5.3 *Creating a delay in order to get extra time:*

"Carry on writing when the time is up in exams" (participant 880)
 "Staying off school when there is a test and you are not ill so that you get more time to revise (participant 314)
 "Handing in work late. For example, if everyone had 1 week to do a project, the person who handed it in late would have had more time to spend on it and get a better mark" (participant 898)
 "Making up excuses from your parents to get extra time for coursework" (participant 938)

5.4 *Not doing the assessment at all:*

"Lying about your work, making up an excuse about why you didn't do it" (participant 932)
 "Not doing your homework at all" (participant 1004)
 "Pretending to read a book for school and then asking someone what it is about instead of actually reading the book" (participant 896)

6. Social Loafing and laziness

This small division contained references to cheating behaviours carried out whilst working in groups or alone. Social loafing is a group phenomenon, whereas laziness characterises a behaviour that does not necessarily impact on anyone other than the self.

"Getting someone to do all the work in a group" (participant 317)
 "Saying you can't do something so the teacher does it for you" (participant 940)

7. Active Copying

This division was the largest in the model. It contained the greatest number of items. It was paired with the relatively small division of **passive copying**. The conceptual label of 'copying' was used for ease of reference. However, the more accurate title for these divisions is 'Active/Passive production of work'. These fuller conceptual labels suggested that the nature of the copying (and related behaviours) involved personal effort (active) or the effort of others (passive). There were seven sub-divisions related to **active copying**, including **active copying itself**; **copying from**

other people, copying from unauthorised printed sources, copying with permission, copying without permission, impersonating the author and plagiarism.

7.1 Active copying

- "Copying in a test or exam" (participant 314)
- "Copying classwork" (participant 317)
- "Copying homework" (participant 1002)

7.2 Copying from other people

- "In an oral test copying what someone else has been heard saying" (participant 885)
- "Copying another pupil's work in a test or an exam (participant 721)
- "Copying person next to you" (participant 954)
- "Copying somebody's work in class (participant 996)
- "Copying other people's coursework" (participant 1007)

7.3 Copying from an unauthorised printed source

- "Copying an exam paper" (participant 795)
- "Copying answers in a test or copying the answer out of the answer book" (participant 877)
- "Copying from a course or book when doing a test/exam" (participant 794)
- "Copying the answers out of books" (participant 769)
- "Printing out from a CD-Rom encyclopaedia and handing it in as word processed work (participant 898)
- "Copying chunks from a book and putting it in your coursework/written material" (participant 940)

7.4 Copying with permission

- "Knowing someone is copying you but not doing anything about it" (participant 312)
- "Asking your friend not to cover her work during an internal school test/exam" (participant 886)
- "Copying work that is given to you by another pupil" (participant 305)
- "Copying someone's homework if you've forgotten it, with their permission (participant 932)

7.5 Copying without permission

- "I think that cheating is when people copy you or you copy someone else without them knowing in exams" (participant 786)
- "When you have a test and someone copies you" (participant 770)
- "Copying someone's work without their permission (participant 932)

7.6 Impersonating the author

- "Swapping candidate numbers around" (participant 963)
- "Putting your name on someone else's work and then scribble out their names" (participant 741)
- "Handing in other people's work as your own" (participant 784)
- "Photocopy homework" (participant 701)

7.7 Plagiarism

"Cheating in a test – copying someone else's ideas. Cheating in a test would not hurt somebody you would only be deceiving yourself" (participant 881)

"Take someone's ideas and call them your own" (participant 894)

"Using someone else's ideas in a piece of work" (participant 879)

8. Passive copying

As its name suggests this division was about having work done for you. The person who wished to cheat got a third party to do the hard work! Whilst akin to **active copying**, this division was by no means as large as **active copying**. Sub-divisions were: **help from friends and family, getting someone else to do it, making or paying someone else to do it and letting others copy you.**

8.1 *Help from friends and family:*

"Your mum and dad or brother/sister helping you to revise, writing revision notes, telling you the answers before an exam" (participant 934)

"Parents doing your work" (participant 304)

"Getting extra help for work that is supposed to be yours, e.g. from parents" (participant 933)

"Getting your brother to do your homework for you" (participant 843)

8.2 *Getting someone else to do it*

"Getting somebody else to do important exams for you" (participant 310)

"Getting someone else to do your work for you" (participant 1006)

"Getting someone to do your homework" (participant 910)

8.3 *Making or paying someone else to do it:*

"Paying somebody for answers" (participant 821)

"Making someone smart do your homework" (participant 763)

8.4 *Letting someone copy you:*

"Doing someone's work for them" (participant 984)

"Letting people copy your homework" (participant 888)

This latter sub-division of **letting someone copy you** was interesting from the perspective of the physical attributes (dimensions) of the actors/recipients or passive/active, much in the same way as the authority/peer dichotomy was interesting for the **pre-assessment tactics** division. Evidence of the legitimacy of dimensionalising the division came from the small sub-division of **letting someone copy you**, the opposite to those sub-divisions describing the behaviours which

involved making and getting others to do the work. Like **pre-assessment tactics**, the sub-division was small in item frequency (n=4) and therefore, it was amalgamated with other sub-divisions. The reason for this amalgamation was that it was felt that whilst **letting someone copy you** did not involve the recipient expending effort other than to copy out the work (unlike the other sub-divisions), there was indeed an element of *someone else doing the work*. As an illustrative example, a person being allowed to copy the work was getting the passive aide to do the thinking and expend a greater amount of effort as a consequence. Therefore, the sub-division was re-categorised and placed with the two sub-divisions relating to getting others to do the work (as will be shown in a subsequent iteration of the model).

9. Bribery, seduction and corruption

This small division contained items that related to teachers' cheating, corrupting others to your will, sabotaging the work of others and the probably 'wishful thinking' notion of seduction! This division, in an earlier iteration was separated into '*bribery*', '*teachers' cheating*' and '*seduction*'. The few instances where these behaviours were cited led to the amalgamation of the items into one division with a 'capture-all' conceptual label similar to that used by Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996).

"Sleeping with the exam bod because your grammar's crap" (participant 963)

"Bribing the examiner" (participant 825)

"Bribing someone to do the work for you" (participant 993)

"Bribing teacher to change your grades" (participant 985)

"The teacher telling you the answers" (participant 909)

"The teacher giving you hints about what the question may be so you can revise certain topic areas or answers" (participant 934)

"A teacher giving you a test and you have never done it in class" (participant 808)

"If you're writing an exam and someone asked you about something and teacher punished you because you're not quiet" (participant 872)

10. Cheating

Respondents gave many examples of what they thought cheating was, including the inevitable 'cheating is cheating'!

"Cheating on a quiz" (participant 730)

"Cheating in a test/exam" (participant 958)

"Cheating" (participant 738)

4.3.3 Summary

The model in figure 4.3.1 (on page 118) illustrated the relationship between the divisions and the assessment event. Subsequent to the model was a description of the divisions and sub-divisions. A full description of content areas was given to demonstrate subtle uses of language. Particular examples were references to the word 'Looking' and the use of terms to describe exchanging information. A summary of content areas and subdivisions is given below in tables 4.3.1 and 4.3.2.

Table 4.3.1. Summary of division and sub-division conceptual labels for the content area of Societal Rule Violations (SRV)

Category	Sub-division
1. Violating Social Mores	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Ill-treating friends 2. Relationship rules 3. Strategies to avoid losing games or enhance opportunities for winning 4. Cheating others out of opportunities 5. Lying
2. Breaking Laws	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Age related 2. Financial dishonesty 3. Stealing
3. Breaking School Rules	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Missing school 2. Lying to authority 3. Social mores (school)

As can be seen there is a third column in table 4.3.2 which is not present in table 4.3.1. Table 4.3.2 is a summary of **Traditional Academic Cheating**. Throughout the earlier description of the content area, mention was made of proposed changes to divisions. Several instances of sub-division amalgamation were given. The third column in table 4.3.2 refers to this process of amalgamation or 're-integration' of the model into its final form. The rationale for the amalgamations was practical. In some divisions there were few items. Subdividing the divisions reduced the item count even further. When amalgamations were performed because of small sample sizes, it was ensured that the proposed amalgamations were conceptually robust. Where there was no conceptual basis for amalgamation, categories were left unmerged. Basic descriptive statistics used subsequently to explore the data required data to be present in the first instance, and secondly, preferably in numbers which reached whole percentage figures!

Table 4.3.2. Summary of division and sub-division conceptual labels and amalgamation patterns for the content area of Traditional Academic Cheating (TAC)

Content area	Subdivision	Pattern of amalgamation
1. Looking at the work of others		
2. Unauthorised materials	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Preparation and use of written materials 2. Looking at prepared written materials 3. Use of printed and unauthorised materials 4. Looking at printed and unauthorised materials 5. Looking at or reading answers 6. The use of calculators 	<p>1 & 2 : preparation and use of written materials</p> <p>3, 4 & 6: use of printed and unauthorised materials</p>
3. Exchanging information	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Passing notes 2. Asking for answers 3. Collusion 4. Talking 	1, 2, 3 & 4 : exchanging information
4. Pre-assessment Tactics	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Stealing or obtaining official assessment materials. 2. Stealing or obtaining answers from friends 	1 & 2 : pre-assessment tactics
5. Post-assessment Tactics	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Altering marks 2. Creating a delay in order to get answers 3. Creating a delay in order to get extra time 4. Not doing the assessment at all 	2 & 3: creating a delay
6. Social Loafing and Laziness		
7. Active Copying	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Copying 2. Copying from other people 3. Copying from an unauthorised source 4. Copying with permission 5. Copying without permission 6. Impersonating the author 7. Plagiarism 	2, 4 & 5: copying from other people
8. Passive Copying	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Help from friends and family 2. Getting someone else to do it 3. Making or paying for someone else to do it 4. Letting someone copy you 	2, 3 & 4: getting someone else to do it
9. Bribery, corruption and seduction	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Bribery 2. Teachers' cheating 3. Seduction 	1, 2 & 3: bribery, corruption and seduction
10. Cheating		

These percentage figures will be discussed in the next section. However, before moving on, it is also worth noting that another reason for the amalgamation process in the re-integration of the sub-divisions was linguistic. Whilst attention has been drawn and will continue to be drawn to the use of language by the respondents, identifiable differences in language use were not necessary for the main analysis of the data. Therefore, for example, in the case of **unauthorised materials**, the paired sub-divisions of 'looking' and 'using' were combined. Both of these sub-divisions referred to specific activities and were more obviously conceptually similar than for example, the items in the division of **looking at the work of others** and the items in the division of **active copying**.

4.3.4 Non-model items

A number of items generated by respondents could not be classified into any division within the structure of the model. This was because they either were unintelligible or did not answer the question in a usable format. For example, a small number of items ($n=11$) gave definitions of cheating that were either very broad or had a discussion element to them. The following items are examples of those which were classified in this way:

1. "Cheating is when you pretend to know something you don't that's when you're cheating yourself" (participant 749)
2. "Mucking around (being naughty – you're cheating yourself out of an education)" (participant 780)
3. "Cheating people from their happiness" (participant 831)
4. "If you don't work or study as hard as you can you are 'cheating' yourself in that you're not giving yourself the chance to fulfil your potential" (participant 878)

A number of the above items conveyed the idea that to cheat, one is cheating the self and depriving oneself and others of an education or educational opportunities. These were, in effect, reasons why people should not cheat as opposed to definitions of cheating, which was the anticipated response format. These kinds of responses were more in keeping with those generated by the participants in Study 3 (Chapter 5).

Examples of items that were classified as true miscellany are given below. Some were wishful thinking (as in example 2), others were too vague to be able to apply coding to.

Miscellaneous

1. "Borrowing work to take home" (participant 100)
2. "Mugging and assaulting a teacher and stealing their precious mark book and leaving them bleeding and dying in the gutter" (participant 317)
3. "Cheating by knowing the answers" (participant 746)
4. "Looking at peoples' things" (participant 761)
5. "Mr Iain bowling in cricket low for P1 and high for P2" (participant 762)

An interesting footnote....

Finally, during the coding process it was noticed that some items included a justification to highlight what made the item into 'cheating' as opposed to legitimate school behaviour. These are given below. It is suggested that any behaviour is legitimate, but what makes it into cheating is the motivation behind the act. For example, it is possible to copy someone else's work, because the teacher has given permission for this to take place. Maybe the person was ill and missed the lesson. This adds legitimacy to the act. To make it into cheating, qualifiers (such as those below) may have been given to highlight any perceived contextual differences. Participant 723 (number 3 below) demonstrates this reasoning process. All of these items have been included in the model. Interestingly only a minority of the items below referred to traditional assessment events such as exams and tests. This suggests that when qualification was needed, it was for the items where the 'assessment event' is greyest; in the arena of the classroom and for homework. Whilst some of the items did not say 'in class' they did seem to imply that this may well have been the intended setting. Further, for item 5 below, the question, 'if it is OK, is it cheating?', needs to be asked.

1. "Staying off school when there is a test and you are not ill so that you get more time to revise" (participant 314)
2. "When you are stuck on a subject a school so you copy your friend's work to avoid going to the teacher for help" (participant 314)
3. "Looking at someone else's work if you have been told to do your own thing"(participant 723)
4. "Writing notes on your hand before an exam because you can't remember things" (participant 901)
5. "Looking at someone else's work and using their ideas. It's OK to look at their work and develop their ideas" (participant 903)
6. "Copying homework from someone when they have spent hours doing it" (participant 941)

4.4 Results 2: Descriptive statistics

4.4.1 Distribution of items

Three hundred and twenty nine adolescents participated in the study. In total, they generated 1,749 items in response to the question 'What is cheating in school?' On the response

sheet there were 10 spaces provided in which respondents could write the items that they considered to be cheating. Table 4.4.1 gives the number of items given by respondents. As can be seen 57 respondents generated 3 items each, whereas 17 respondents generated the maximum of 10 items each.

Table 4.4.1. The number of cheating items generated by respondents

No. of items generated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Number of respondents generating the items	8	16	57	51	55	47	44	17	17	17

Not all of the items generated were used in the analysis. Some were nonsense items and some were coded as miscellaneous. There were also several items which were coded as philosophical or definition based. Participants for these items discussed the moral value of cheating or tried to produce a global definition of cheating. Table 4.4.2 is a summary of the percentage of items in the two main content areas, plus the items which were not included in the main analysis.

Table 4.4.2. Distribution of responses across the model (%)

<u>Content area</u>	Number of items	Percentage (1.dp)
Societal Rule Violations (SRV)	292	16.6
Traditional Academic Cheating (TAC)	1412	80.7
Other:	44 subdivided thus:-	2.5
Miscellaneous	13	
Definitions	11	
Nonsense	20	
Total	1749	100%

From table 4.4.2 it can be seen that over three quarters of the items were coded in the **Traditional Academic Cheating** content area with nearly 17% of responses as non-academic (**Societal Rule Violations**). The **Societal Rule Violations** content area is a sizeable proportion of the total data when the literature is considered. No literature definitions or descriptions of academic cheating have been given that included non-academic behaviours. In Chapter 3 (Study 1), attention was drawn to the differences in perceptions of cheating between teachers and pupils. Whilst conclusions should not be drawn from these data, it may be that the description of cheating found in the literature is based on adult perceptions and has overlooked a perceptual focus that the

perpetrators of cheating may hold. It is possible that the 292 items forming the **Societal Rule Violations** content area could represent a mis-reading or mis-interpretation of the question. However, no respondents generated *only* items which fell into **Societal Rule Violations**. Mis-interpretation may be a more likely explanation, but with an average nearing one **Societal Rule Violations** per respondent it seems unlikely to account for all of the data.

In tables 4.4.3 and 4.4.4 the figures have been broken down into the divisions and sub-divisions. It is possible to see from these tables that some sub-divisions contained relatively few items. The figures given are percentages of items in each of the sub-divisions *before* the amalgamation, to demonstrate further why some sub-divisions were amalgamated. In both tables the percentage figure for the division as a whole is given below the division title in the left-hand column, whilst the percentages for the individual sub-divisions have been given separately in the right hand column.

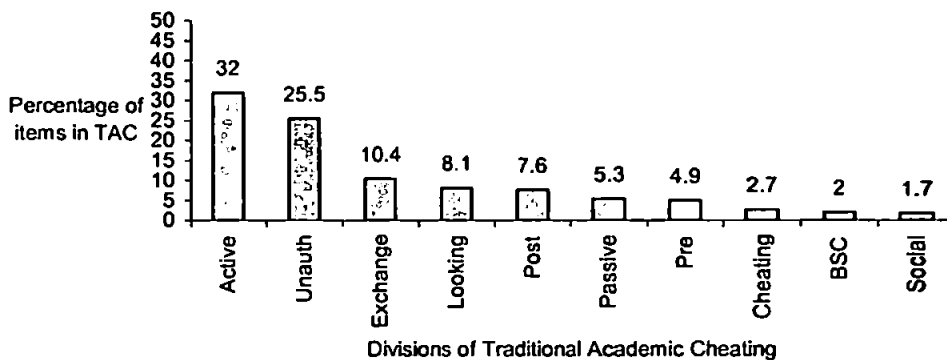
For example, in table 4.4.3, **violating social mores** accounted for 10.6% of the **Societal Rule Violations** data (the largest proportion), whilst **cheating others out of opportunities** accounted for 2.8% of the data and was the sub-division within **violating social mores**, with the greatest number of items.

Table 4.4.3. Percentage of items in the divisions and sub-divisions of Societal Rule Violations

Category	Sub-division	Percentage of the total number of items given by respondents (1 d.p). No. items =1749
1. Violating Social Mores 10.6%	1. Ill-treating friends	2.3
	2. Relationship rules	1.3
	3. Strategies to avoid losing games or enhance opportunities for winning	2.6
	4. Cheating others out of opportunities	2.8
	5. Lying	1.3
	6. Other	0.3
2. Breaking Laws 3.1%	1. Age related	0.2
	2. Financial dishonesty	1.1
	3. Stealing	1.8
3. Breaking School Rules 2.9%	1. Missing school	0.6
	2. Lying to authority	0.7
	3. Social mores (school)	1.6
Total		16.6%

Table 4.4.4. Percentage of items in the divisions and sub-divisions of Traditional Academic Cheating

Division	Subdivision	Percentage of the total number of items given by respondents (1 d.p). No. items =1749
1. Looking at the work of others 6.5%		6.5
2. Unauthorised materials 20.6%	1. Preparation and use of written materials	9.5
	2. Looking at prepared written materials	0.4
	3. Use of printed and unauthorised materials	3.3
	4. Looking at printed and unauthorised materials	2.5
	5. Looking at or reading answers	2.2
	6. The use of calculators	2.7
3. Exchanging information 8.3%	1. Passing notes	0.8
	2. Asking for answers	3.8
	3. Collusion	2.0
	4. Talking	1.7
4. Pre-assessment Tactics 4%	1. Stealing or obtaining official assessment materials.	3.5
	2. Stealing or obtaining answers from friends	0.5
5. Post-assessment Tactics 6%	1. Altering marks	3.5
	2. Creating a delay in order to get answers	0.2
	3. Creating a delay in order to get extra time	1.6
	4. Not doing the assessment at all	0.7
6. Social Loafing and Laziness 1.4%		1.4
7. Active Copying 25.9%	1. Copying	4.5
	2. Copying from other people	13.3
	3. Copying from an unauthorised source	2.2
	4. Copying with permission	0.5
	5. Copying without permission	1.1
	6. Impersonating the author	1.3
	7. Plagiarism	3.0
8. Passive Copying 4.2%	1. Help from friends and family	1.3
	2. Getting someone else to do it	1.8
	3. Making or paying for someone else to do it	0.9
	4. Letting someone copy you	0.2
9. Bribery, corruption and seduction 1.6%		1.6
10. Cheating 2.2%		2.2
Total		80.7%

Figure 4.4.1. Proportion of items in each division of Traditional Academic Cheating (N=1412)**Key**

Active
Unauth
Exchange
Looking
Post

Active Copying
Unauthorised materials
Exchanging information
Looking at the work of others
Post-assessment tactics

Passive
Pre
Cheating
BSC
Social

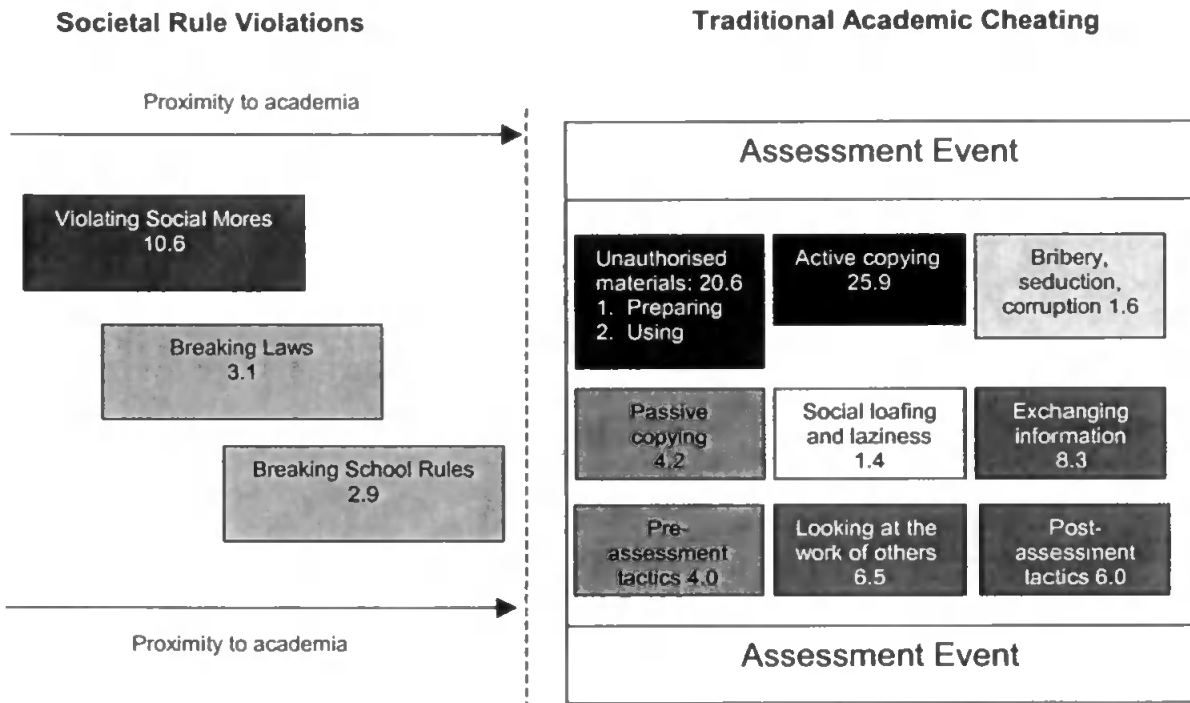
Passive copying
Pre-assessment tactics
Cheating
Bribery, seduction, corruption
Social loafing and laziness

Figure 4.4.1 is a representation of the **Traditional Academic Cheating** items expressed as a proportion of the total **Traditional Academic Cheating** items (N=1412). The largest division was **active copying** (31.9%) and the smallest **social loafing and laziness** (1.7%). The first four divisions accounted for 76% of the **Traditional Academic Cheating** items.

The distribution of data across the divisions of the whole model is given in figure 4.4.2. The model includes the overall percentage frequency data for each division. The darker the colouring of the cell, the greater the proportion of cheating behaviours that were assigned to it. It can be seen that the three most frequently cited divisions were **active copying**, **unauthorised materials** and **violating social mores**. It was unexpected that a non-traditional behaviour would rank so highly in these data. It is also interesting to note the pattern of the **Societal Rule Violations** frequency data. The closer the behaviour came to the **Traditional Academic Cheating** line (proximity to academia), the fewer the number of behaviours were generated relating to that behaviour. What do these data suggest about the perception of cheating? It appeared that the distinction between academic and non-academic cheating in secondary school was blurred. This was evidenced by the fact that behaviours other than **Traditional Academic Cheating** items were generated in no small measure by the respondents. It was also evidenced by the quantity of items generated *within* in each division. **Breaking school rules** was mentioned relatively infrequently compared to **violating social mores**. Perhaps the respondents felt that they were on firmer ground by using definitions of cheating that were more concrete in terms of semantics (i.e. cheating can mean 'in a relationship' 'in business' etc. as well as 'in academia'). However, when it came to **breaking school rules**, the

semantics of cheating were not so clear, and so perhaps were avoided when generating a definition of cheating? Whatever the answer, the semantics of cheating in school were not as distinct for adolescents as they may perhaps be for their teachers, other adults or older students.

Figure 4.4.2. Adolescents' definitions of cheating behaviours with proportion of items for each division.



(a) Cheating division

The division of **Cheating** has been excluded from analyses from this point forward. The data referring to the division of **Cheating** were not included in the breakdown (n=38). This was because the data were a series of statements in the format of 'cheating in..... [write **assessment event** here]' is cheating'. These statements added little to the knowledge base about academic dishonesty, as they did not actually define what cheating was. The statements acknowledged the occurrence of cheating, but this was not the focus of the investigation.

4.4.2 Year in school and gender information

The distribution of the **Traditional Academic Cheating** items by year in school and gender are given in tables 4.4.5 and 4.4.6. In order to compare the distribution of responses between the years and between males and females, percentage data were used. In table 4.4.5, the proportion of items 'allocated' by each year group to each division is given. For example, of the 377

items generated by the year 7 students, 30.5% of those fell into the **unauthorised materials** division. Similarly of the 201 year 10 items, 17.4% fell into the **unauthorised materials** division. In table 4.4.5 the proportion of items generated by each year group has also been given. Year 7 generated the greatest number of items (28.4%) and year 10, the least (15.1%). There was a range of 13.3% between the highest and lowest year which was an 176 item generation difference.

Also included in both tables 4.4.5 and 4.4.6 was rank formation. [It should be noted that the rank data presented here were not the rankings of severity that the respondents were asked to assign to behaviours that they had generated. The severity rankings are not presented until the final iteration of the model. The findings presented here related to the frequency with which items in divisions were generated.]

The proportion of items allocated to each division for each year group has the rank order of the proportion with it. For example, for the year 7, 30.5% of items were allocated to **unauthorised materials** which was the greatest proportion of items and was therefore ranked '1'. The second rank for year 7 was for the **active copying** division (29.4%) and so on. There appeared to be very little difference between the year groups in the distribution of items. Ranks 1 and 2 were spread between **unauthorised materials** and **active copying** for all year groups. However, years 9, 10 and 11 had a greater proportion of items in the **active copying** division, whilst years 7 and 8 had the greatest proportion of items in the **unauthorised materials** division. This difference in the number of items allocated to each division by the year groups was tested using the Chi-square statistic. The four divisions with the greatest number of items (**active copying, unauthorised materials, exchanging information and looking at the work of others**) were included in the chi-square analysis. A significant difference was revealed (χ^2 , 12 N=1031)=125.1, $p<.01$). Ranks 1 and 2 were evenly spread across the top two most frequently used divisions. A greater difference in the allocation of items lay with the third and fourth divisions in the top four ranks (**exchanging information and looking at the work of others**).

Table 4.4.5. Distribution of items across the year groups for Traditional Academic Cheating data

Division	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11
Looking at the work of others	10.6 3	15.6 4	1.9 8.5	3.5 6.5	5.9 5.5
Unauthorised materials	30.5 1	33.2 1	14.9 2	17.4 2	23.3 2
Exchanging Information	10.3 4	19.0 3	9.8 3	7.0 5	5.6 7
Pre-assessment Tactics	4.0 7	3.8 6	4.2 6	7.5 4	5.9 5.5
Post-assessment Tactics	7.7 5	5.7 5	9.3 4	3.5 6.5	12.2 3
Social Loafing and Laziness	1.3 8.5	1.1 9	1.9 8.5	3.0 8	2.1 8.5
Active Copying	29.4 2	17.2 2	47.4 1	44.8 1	33.0 1
Passive Copying	4.5 6	1.5 8	6.5 5	9.0 3	7.3 4
Bribery, corruption and seduction	1.3 8.5	1.9 7	2.8 7	2.5 9	2.1 8.5
Total N=1328	N=377 28.4%	N=262 19.7%	N=215 16.2%	N=201 15.1%	N=288 21.7%

For exchanging information, the lowest rank was 3. This meant that exchanging information was the third most frequently cited division for years 8 and 9. Year 11 students, on the other hand had this same division as being their seventh most frequently cited. The difference between these two ranks (3 and 7) was 4, the 'rank difference range'. For looking at the work of others, the rank difference range of 5.5, was the main difference lying between year 7 (3) and year 9 (8.5). The rank difference range illustrated where differences in perceptions towards cheating may have originated. Drawing conclusions from these data was difficult. The rank difference range could offer little more than the minima and maxima for each division. However, looking more carefully at table 4.4.5, it may be possible to discern a trend. If the table was mentally subdivided into two halves using year 9 as a buffer zone, the rank ordering tended to fall into two camps either side of year 9. Year 9 either joined years 7 and 8 in the frequency count or years 10 and 11. This suggests that the difference in general lies between upper and lower school with year 9 being more malleable in their generation of items about cheating. This may also suggest that the third year of

secondary school is a time when a transition in perceptions about academia occurs. For example, looking at the work of others has a rank for years 7 to 11 as follows, 3, 4, 8.5, 6.5, 5.5. Years 7 and 8 gave looking at the work of others as a cheating behaviour more frequently than did years 10 and 11. Year 9 on the other hand gave it very rarely compared to the other divisions. However, the rank of 8.5 is closer to those of years 10 and 11 suggesting a trend towards their standpoint.

Table 4.4.6. Distribution of items by gender for Traditional Academic Cheating data

Division	Male	Female
Looking at the work of others	9.5 4	7.7 5
Unauthorised materials	33 1	21.8 2
Exchanging information	12.2 3	9.9 3
Pre-assessment Tactics	5.6 6	4.8 7
Post-assessment Tactics	6.4 5	8.8 4
Social Loafing and Laziness	1.0 9	2.3 8
Active Copying	25.3 2	37.0 1
Passive Copying	5.0 7	5.8 6
Bribery, corruption and seduction	2.1 8	2.0 9
Total N=1358	N=518 38.1%	N=804 59.2%

Table 4.4.6 contains the data for the distribution of male and female responses presented in a similar fashion to those of the year groups. The proportion of items generated by the males and females respectively was 38.1% and 59.2%. The difference between the proportion of items generated was 21.1% or 322 items. This distribution of response items reflected the difference in the number of male and female respondents which was 41.6% (male respondents) and 58.4% (female respondents). Thirty three percent of the 518 items generated by the males fell into the **unauthorised materials** division, compared with 21.8% of the 804 items generated by the females fell into the division.

When comparing just two groups (male and female) it was easier to identify similarities than differences. From the table below it was clear that the proportion of items in each division was similar in rank. There was only a difference of one rank between all divisions, except for the division of **exchanging information** where there was no rank difference. The correlations between the divisions by gender was significant ($\rho=.95$, $n=9$, $p<.01$).

4.4.3 Interim summary

The descriptive statistics that have been given thus far identified which cheating behaviour divisions were the most and least frequently cited. The proportion of the items in each division were incorporated into the model. A year group trend was identified that suggested whilst numbers of items generated were fairly similar for each division across year groups, there was a slight difference between upper and lower school, with year 9 being falling somewhere between the two. Lower school students generated more **unauthorised materials** behaviours than the upper school students, whilst upper school students generated more **active copying** behaviours than lower school students. No gender differences were identified in the proportion of items generated by division.

4.4.4 The temporal component of the model

To move the model further forward, a temporal component was added to the **Traditional Academic Cheating** side and the proportion of items in each division collated according to the time periods see figure 4.4.3 (page 148). An overall breakdown of the data by time period can be found in table 4.4.7. The allocation of data to time phases has been a considered process. However, it must be clearly understood that the allocation was proportional and based on intuition arising from the data set. It should therefore be seen as an indicator only and treated with caution. The purpose of dividing the data in this way was to begin to uncover how cheating is used in school in its broadest sense. Data were apportioned to *before*, *during* and *after* the assessment event in which the cheating took place. For clarification, cheating *after* the assessment event related to behaviours such as altering marks *after* the test had finished and copying homework at school, *after* it *should* have been completed at *home*.

Two-thirds of the **bribery** frequency data were allocated to the *before* time period (1.06) and the remaining 1/3rd (0.54) was divided between *during* and *after* time periods. One-sixth (4.3%) of the **active copying** data and **passive copying** data were placed in the *before* time period. This

amount reflected the plagiarism-related behaviours (active) and the exam and parental help behaviours (passive) associated with cheating before an **assessment event**. The remaining 5/6ths (21.5%) of active copying was divided equally between *during* and *after*. Of the remaining 5/6ths of the passive copying data, 3/6ths were allocated to *during* (2.1%) and 2/6ths to *after* the **assessment event** (1.4%).

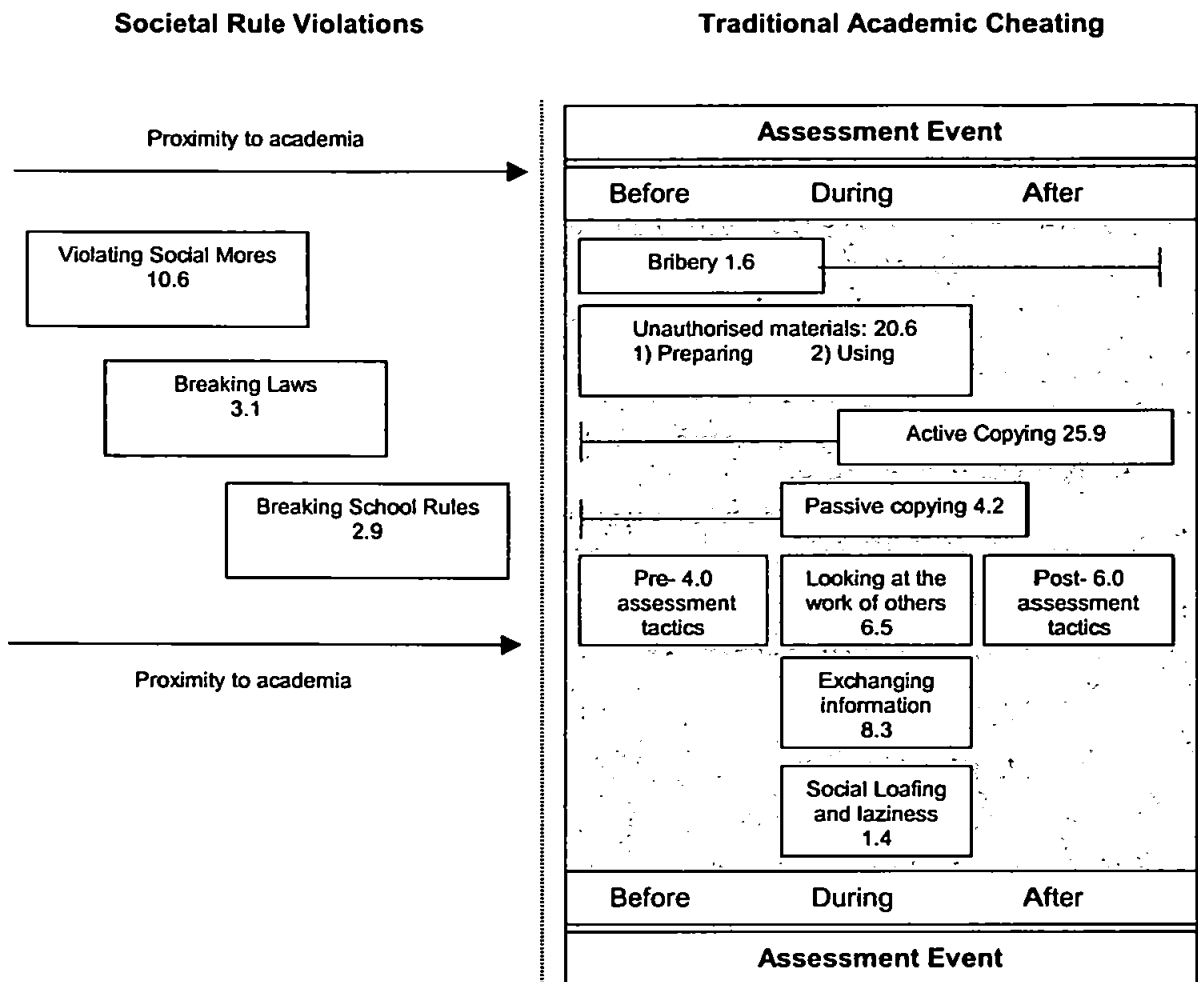
Table 4.4.7. The distribution of Traditional Academic Cheating responses by proximity to the assessment event (77.5%)

Before	During	After
20.38	39.15	17.95

Unauthorised materials were separated with equal percentages going to *before* and *during*. (The 2.2% of data referring to the **cheating** division and the **Societal Rule Violation** data were not included, making the percentage of the total across the three time periods 77.5%. The reason for the exclusion of these two aspects of cheating was straightforward. **Societal Rule Violations** data were not governed by an assessment event; the **cheating** division statements were not divisible into time periods due to the minimalist nature of the information contained in the statements of cheating).

In the model on page 148, the divisions of cheating have been moved to reflect their positions relative to the temporal component. In order to best demonstrate which divisions are *most associated* with each time period, the larger fractions have been represented by the boxes. For example, two-thirds of the bribery frequency data were considered to relate to the *before* time period, with only one-third spread between *during* and *after*. In order to create a model which is uncluttered and interpretable, only the largest portion or portions of each division have been included in the model. A line, much like those used in box plots has been placed next to the divisions for which there are a small amount of data in another time period. These lines are removed in future iterations of the model to prevent cluttering and over complication.

Figure 4.4.3. Adolescents' definitions of cheating behaviours and frequency of item generation across time periods



In the model above, the area allocated to each division was not a mathematical representation of proportion. The model was, as already mentioned separated into three sections, *before*, *during* and *after*. Where a division crossed a time boundary, the box was lengthened to illustrate this at the expense of depth. The loss in depth was purely aesthetic – to enable the figure to fit into a more compact space.

4.4.5 The position of active copying in the model

The model in figure 4.3.1 (page 118) has been modified to take into account the time dimension of the cheating behaviours (see figure 4.4.3). In the new model, **active copying** could occur at any time *before*, *during* and *after* an assessment event. However it was primarily linked with *during* and *after* the assessment event. This was because it was felt by the researcher that the forms of copying given in this division had a greater frequency of behaviours relating to *during* and

after. For example, the assessment event of homework often has some form of copying associated with it. The homework is supposed to be completed after and away from school. It was hypothesised, based on the researcher's personal experience and from talking to adolescents, that the copying takes place in school at some point *before* the deadline time (i.e., morning registration, break-time or in the class in question!) but in actual fact the copying was taking place after the assessment event because the homework should have been completed at home.

Situations in which the copying took place in for example, a test, an exam or in class were considered to be *during* the assessment event. 'Impersonating the author' sat towards the *before* and *during* end of the time continuum as it included handing in work which had had a change of author and impersonation of another during an exam etc. 'Plagiarism' was also placed nearer the *before* end of the continuum because by its nature ideas are taken and developed further specifically for an assessment event. These latter two behaviour sub-divisions whilst important were not as numerically frequent as the former sub-divisions.

The placement of active copying in the model demonstrated the range of issues that were taken into account during the allocation of behaviours to time periods. Not only were the behaviours themselves considered, but the situations in which the cheating took place. The discussion of the *role* of the situation in which the cheating takes place is reserved for a subsequent section.

4.5 Results 3: Moving the model forward

4.5.1 Summary

In phase 1 of the research the data were collated according to items of similar conceptual identity. In phase 2, the concepts were formed into divisions and sub-divisions, which were then merged, remerged and amalgamated to form the two major conceptual divisions **Societal Rule Violations** and **Traditional Academic Cheating**. In phase 3, the divisions were organised according to their proximity to the assessment event; **Societal Rule Violations** were placed furthest away from the assessment event, whilst the **Traditional Academic Cheating** divisions divided the assessment event in three clusters (*before*, *during* and *after* the assessment event).

The model resulting from the three phase process, given in figure 4.4.3 (on page 148) was a representation of three aspects of academic dishonesty in secondary school as perceived by the respondents. Firstly there were the academic cheating behaviours, described as divisions. These

behaviours were well known within the literature and there were few surprises as to what the adolescents perceived to constitute 'academic' cheating.

Secondly there were the non-academic behaviours. It was here that the model moved away from the received wisdom of cheating and incorporated areas of research which were in the wider realms of social and developmental psychology, for example, the psychology of social conventions and moral development. These aspects of cheating have not been reported alongside the traditional academic behaviours in the literature.

Thirdly, there was the transitional component of the model, the time element. To date, models of cheating have included intentionality and attribution of cause and blame (e.g. Theory of planned action and models of attribution) and whether the behaviour in question was active, passive or group-oriented and how big the perceived risks associated with the behaviour were. Time, as yet has not been utilised as a component of understanding cheating in secondary school.

However, in order to understand how cheating functioned within the school system and within the mind of the adolescent, a 'map' of what it is that happens and when, needs to be designed. To do this two further additions needed to be made to the current model based on the data given by the respondents.

The first additional component was already present in the given model as a closed box, the lid of which needs to be removed in order to give it functionality i.e. the **assessment event**. Without the **assessment event**, the term cheating, as applied to academe, would not exist. Many models of cheating have dealt poorly with the **assessment event**, placing it at the periphery in the levels of explanation.

The second component outstanding is the severity of the cheating behaviours as perceived by the respondents. Severity can be used in conjunction with the risk perception literature to identify the ideal cheating opportunity. It can make the 'when' of cheating (**assessment event**) more robust. Studies on the severity of cheating behaviours have also looked at the frequency of the performance of behaviours and found an inverse link between the two (e.g., Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995). Performance has been found by some researchers to correlate with perceived severity and perceived risk of detection (level of opportunity). However, what has been lacking is more definite information (i.e., the **assessment event**) about when risks were perceived as too high or the cheating behaviours perceived as too serious to contemplate performing.

In combination all of these factors build a model which takes into account some of the major situational constraints affecting the perception of when a behaviour is deemed to be cheating.

4.5.2 The situation and the assessment event

A key facet of when something is and is not cheating is the situation/context in which the cheating occurs. Situation can refer to many things and in this section it is the **assessment event** which is the focal point. In this study, respondents were asked to list the things that they thought were cheating in secondary school. Many chose to do this by referring to a specific **assessment event**. The use of the **assessment event**, as will be demonstrated shortly, was a way in which the respondents demonstrated the transient nature of the behaviour with reference to perceived severity. More than one **assessment event** was given for the same behaviour. For example, instead of responding with the single item:

Looking at the work of your friend is cheating,

For this study, as no context was imposed on respondents and free rein for interpretation abounded, two items may have been given thus:

Looking at the work of your friend in an exam
Looking at the work of your friend in class

Or, to demonstrate how malleable a single behaviour was, two or more contexts were combined into the single item:

Looking at the work of your friend in an exam or in class

The data given by respondents were classified according to items of similar conceptual identity in the same way as the divisions for the model were developed. Six categories or contexts emerged based purely on the language given by the respondents. These were:

1. Exams only
2. Tests or Exams
3. Tests only
4. Non-specific
5. Classwork
6. Homework

The category of **homework**, strictly speaking is not an **assessment event** because it is a task to be completed in the context of the home. It is however, an event which is assessed by the

teacher. Secondly, although an exam can be construed as a physical situation as can a test, the **non-specific** category contained items that did not refer to any situations, i.e. they were, to use the examples cited above, situation-free. However, the concept that drew all the items (or cheating examples) together was that they all described an action or activity. Specifically, an activity which was linked to a task, which was assessed in some way.

The items that were distributed across the six **assessment events** were only those which were classed as **Traditional Academic Cheating**. In essence, the sub-divisions of the **Societal Rule Violations** data had labels which already reflected context.

Table 4.5.1 is a breakdown of the major **Traditional Academic Cheating** divisions, by the six **assessment events**. In effect it is a six by 10 matrix, in which the total number of **Traditional Academic Cheating** items across 60 cells were distributed. This meant that the average cell content was only 23 items. This figure decreased further when the sub-divisions were taken into account.

The **assessment events Exams and Tests** each accounted for 18% of the data, whilst the category **Exam/Test** accounted for less than 5% of the data. It could be argued from these figures that both 'forms' of cheating were equally salient in the minds of the respondents and that there was a certain degree of overlap regarding perceptions about cheating. Fifty items had **Exam/Test** as the **assessment event** descriptor. Over 40% of the data were accounted for by the **Non-specific** category. This was by far the largest category (containing over 600 items). This category was the largest because the data that did not fit elsewhere were placed there. For example, many items referred to a cheating act surrounding the task of 'work' (e.g., looking at somebody's work). It was not possible to second guess to what 'work' referred. It could have been **Classwork** or it could have been work in a **Test** or **Exam**. The possibility that it could well have referred to **Classwork** is attested by the fact that respondents did occasionally specify **Classwork** as a cheating **assessment event** (5.4%) in its own right. In fact in the early phases of the development of the **assessment event** categories, **Classwork** contained many more items. It was not possible to sustain the size of the category however, based on the low-interpretability of the word 'work'.

It is argued at this point that whilst **Classwork** specifically was mentioned infrequently, the language slide between 'work' and **Classwork** was unknown, but probably accounted for a substantial proportion of the **Non-specific** items. This was particularly relevant if **Classwork** was revealed to be a non-serious cheating arena. In general it may be that the less seriously the

behaviour was perceived to be, the less likely it may be singled out for detailed description; the behaviour was overlooked as constituting an inappropriate act because it was second nature and part of the everyday repertoire of school conduct, i.e. it is nothing special, not cheating.

Table 4.5.1. The proportion of items in the Traditional Academic Cheating divisions, expressed according to the assessment event.

Content area	Subdivision	Exams	Tests	Tests/ Exams	Non- Specific	Class Work	Home Work
1. Looking at the work of others 114 (8.0%)		19.3	25.4	3.5	49.1	2.6	0
2. Unauthorised materials 359 (25.4%)	Preparation and use of written materials	19.8	13.1	3.1	12	.6	0
	Use of printed and unauthorised materials	9.5	7.0	.3	22	1.7	.6
	Looking at or reading answers	1.9	3.1	0	4.5	1.1	0
3. Exchanging information 147 (10.4%)		17	23.1	4.1	53.7	2	0
4. Pre-assessment Tactics 69 (4.9%)	Stealing or obtaining official assessment materials.	33	26	1.4	26	0	1.4
	Stealing or obtaining answers from friends	1.4	7.2	0	2.9	0	0
5. Post-assessment Tactics 107 (7.6%)	Altering marks	4.7	15.9	0	27.1	10.3	0
	Creating a delay to get answers or extra time	5.6	3.7	0	2.8	2.8	15
	Not doing the assessment at all	0	0	0	3.7	0	9
6. Social Loafing and Laziness 24 (1.7%)		0	0	0	95.8	4.2	0
7. Active Copying 452 (32%)	Copying	2.9	3.3	1.8	3.3	1.8	4.2
	Copying from other people	5.3	7.5	2.2	26.8	3.5	12.2
	Copying from an unauthorised source	.4	1.3	.2	4.6	.4	1.5
	Plagiarism	.7	.4	0	10.2	3.8	1.5
8. Passive Copying 75 (5.3%)	Help from friends and family	1.3	0	0	5.3	1.3	22.7
	Getting or making someone else do it	1.3	0	1.3	29.3	0	32
	Letting someone copy you	0	0	0	1.3	0	4
9. Bribery, corruption and seduction 28 (2.0%)		35.7	10.7	0	53.6	0	0
Total 1374	Total proportion for each assessment event (100%):	18.1%	18.2%	3.1%	43.3%	5.6%	11.7%

Finally the category of **Homework** contained 11% of the data and instead of being spread fairly evenly across the divisions, was restricted in the main to **active and passive copying**. **Classwork** too, like **Homework** had a different distribution in comparison to the other assessment events. In all but two instances the **Non-specific** category of cheating had the greatest frequency

of items across the divisions. The first exception was **passive copying**, where **Homework** was the key assessment event most likely to be targeted by respondents. The second exception was **pre-assessment tactics**. This division referred to '....precise information about the assessment event [that] removed all of the guess work in planning and preparing for the event' (4.3.4, 4, on page 128). This division by its nature then, was designed to be used with a named assessment event. The low proportion of the items in this division suggested a low salience in the minds of the respondents, with perhaps a low actual occurrence. Thus, when it was elicited as a form of cheating, it had particular associations preventing its transference to a general cheating behaviour as evidenced for example, by the loose use of 'looking' across all of the divisions and assessment events. This event-behaviour association (or clustering) was precisely what was hoped would emerge from the data.

4.5.3 Assessment event by cheating behaviour emphases

For each of the divisions, the number of items in the assessment events were presented. The **Non-specific** assessment event accounted for most of the data. It was not possible to distribute these items with any clarity across the other assessment events. Guesses could have been made, but they would only be guesses without evidence, be it conjecture or anecdotal. What the **Non-specific** category served to highlight was the relative saliency of the assessment event in the minds of the respondents.

As previously discussed, **pre-assessment tactics** may be linked clearly in the minds of the respondents to **Exams** and **Tests**, whereas the other forms of cheating were more fluid in their associations. The following points are a description of relative emphasis of the assessment event for each **Traditional Academic Cheating** division. Proportions were calculated for each individual division (excluding the **Cheating** division), thus percentages added up to 100.

1. Looking at the work of others

Looking as a behaviour was one which could have been applied to any form of assessment event. Nearly 50% of the items in this division were **Non-specific**. However, **Tests** and **Exams** featured as the main cheating arena at the cost of the other assessment events (25% and 19% respectively). Common sense suggests that **looking at the work of others** occurs a great deal in the classroom. The 2.6% of items which classed looking at **Classwork** as cheating suggested that not many respondents viewed this behaviour as cheating. However, without being

able to peel back the layers of the **Non-specific** category, this hypothesis was speculation. It could be that **Non-specific** items were durable across all behavioural divisions.

2. Unauthorised materials

There was a more even spread of items across the top three assessment events (**Tests, Exams and Non-specific**). In a majority of divisions, these three assessment events remained the top three assessment events, but in differing proportions. **Exams** gained 30% of the items, whilst **Non-specific** registered 38%. This may have been due to the nature of the assessment event. Contained within this division were non-opportunistic behaviours that required pre-planning, thus reducing the fluidity of the behaviour set. Indeed table 4.5.1 shows that the 'preparation' behaviours were less likely to be **Non-specific** than the 'using materials' behaviours.

3. Exchanging information

This division, like **looking at the work of others** above had a substantial proportion of items in the **Non-specific** category. Over 50% of the items were **Non-specific**, with fewer items than above (23% and 17%) allocated to **Tests** and **Exams**. This behaviour set, it would appear, like **looking at the work of others**, was very fluid and was a general 'weapon' for the cheating armoury.

4. Pre-assessment tactics

The spread again was more even between the assessment events. However, this time, the slant was away from **Non-specific** (29%) and toward the named assessment events (**Exams**, 34.7% and **Tests**, 33.3%). This may be a reflection of how these behaviours were constructed in the minds of the respondents; **Classwork** was not mentioned once in this division.

5. Post-assessment tactics

This division, along with one other (**active copying**) was one which demonstrated a distribution which encompassed a wider variety of assessment events. Whilst the other divisions did feature other assessment events, the proportion of respondents referring to them was very low. In this instance, however, whilst **Non-specific** figured highly (33.6%) so too did **Homework** (23.4%) and **Tests** (19.6%), **Classwork** (13%) and **Exams** (10.3%). The only assessment event to get zero was **Test/Exam**.

6. Social Loafing and Laziness

This division was small and contained 24 items. Almost all were placed in the **Non-specific** category. However, it is interesting to note that a majority of the items referred not just to the concept of group work, (as was the earlier title of one of the two divisions which constituted **social loafing and laziness**), but also to attitudes, such as laziness. Therefore, in the minds of a few of the respondents, cheating was not simply to do with behaviours, it was also to do with intentions and attitudes. A second issue that arose from this category was whether the items that did refer to group work should have been placed within the **assessment event** of **Classwork** and not **Non-specific**. Following the guidelines set out by the researcher; those of using the language which the respondents gave, if no context was given then the item was placed in the **Non-specific** category. The problem here was that group work could be viewed as a context in its own right. It is a context within a context, because group work is often but not always, **Classwork** based. Ten of the items could possibly have been re-classified as **Classwork** based cheating. This would have had the effect of re-framing the picture of the **assessment event** cheating into something more intuitive, i.e., social loafing occurs mostly in the classroom (viz. **Classwork**), with laziness staying with **Non-specific**, because it permeates all aspects of education. However examination of the laziness items suggested that these too were more likely to occur in the classroom or even in the home, whilst completing coursework/homework, but as the context was unclear, these assumptions of location could not be made.

7. Active Copying

Like **post-assessment tactics** above the distribution of items across the **assessment events** was wider. By far the largest proportion of responses fell under the **Non-specific** category (45%) but again, **Homework**, came in second at 19%. As before, the order of proportion followed the same pattern: **Tests** (12%), **Classwork** (9.5%), **Exams** (9.3%) and **Test/Exam** with 4.2%.

8. Passive Copying

Homework once more figured highly in this division. Fifty-nine percent of the responses were associated with **Homework**, most of the remainder referred to **Non-specific** events (36%). As with **pre-assessment tactics**, **Classwork** was also barely mentioned in the responses for this division.

9. Bribery, Seduction, Corruption

There were only a few items in this division (n=28). There were similarities in that many items referred to attitudes or events that were so specific as to be difficult to place. However, even when these items were excluded from the **Non-specific** category, the latter category still came out top with 40% of the items (53.6% overall). **Exams** followed with 35.7% of the items. This suggests that extreme situations (**Exams**) may have required extreme measures! However, the data pool was so small that few if any conclusions can be drawn other than perhaps, respondents entered into some wishful thinking! Many of the items were phrased in terms of hypothetical situations, then again, perhaps the researcher was introducing bias, in not believing that they could take place. The more extreme examples of **bribery, seduction and corruption** were given by the older age group and included bribing teachers and examiners. The younger age groups concentrated on items that were more classroom oriented, such as being given a test that they had not been prepared for (these items were originally labelled 'teachers cheating' and were amalgamated under corruption [by teachers] of the sub-division **bribery, seduction and corruption**). It was the extreme forms of cheating that were felt to be wishful thinking and therefore it came as a surprise that it was year 11 that generated them. The researcher's perspective of adolescent cheating was that the younger years would be the more imaginative group in generating cheating items and the older years would only generate items that were within the realms of possibility or that were directly useful to their 'studies' however, due to the low number of items in this division, any interpretation can only be speculative.

4.5.4 Summary

It would appear therefore that it was possible to differentiate between the type of cheating (division) and when it was most frequently associated with an **assessment event**. Most divisions of cheating were associated to a greater or lesser extent with tests and exams. The exception was **passive copying**. **Homework** was particularly associated with **active and passive copying and post-assessment tactics**.

Figure 4.5.1. Adolescents' definitions of cheating behaviours, across time periods with associated most frequently occurring assessment events

Societal Rule Violations

Traditional Academic Cheating

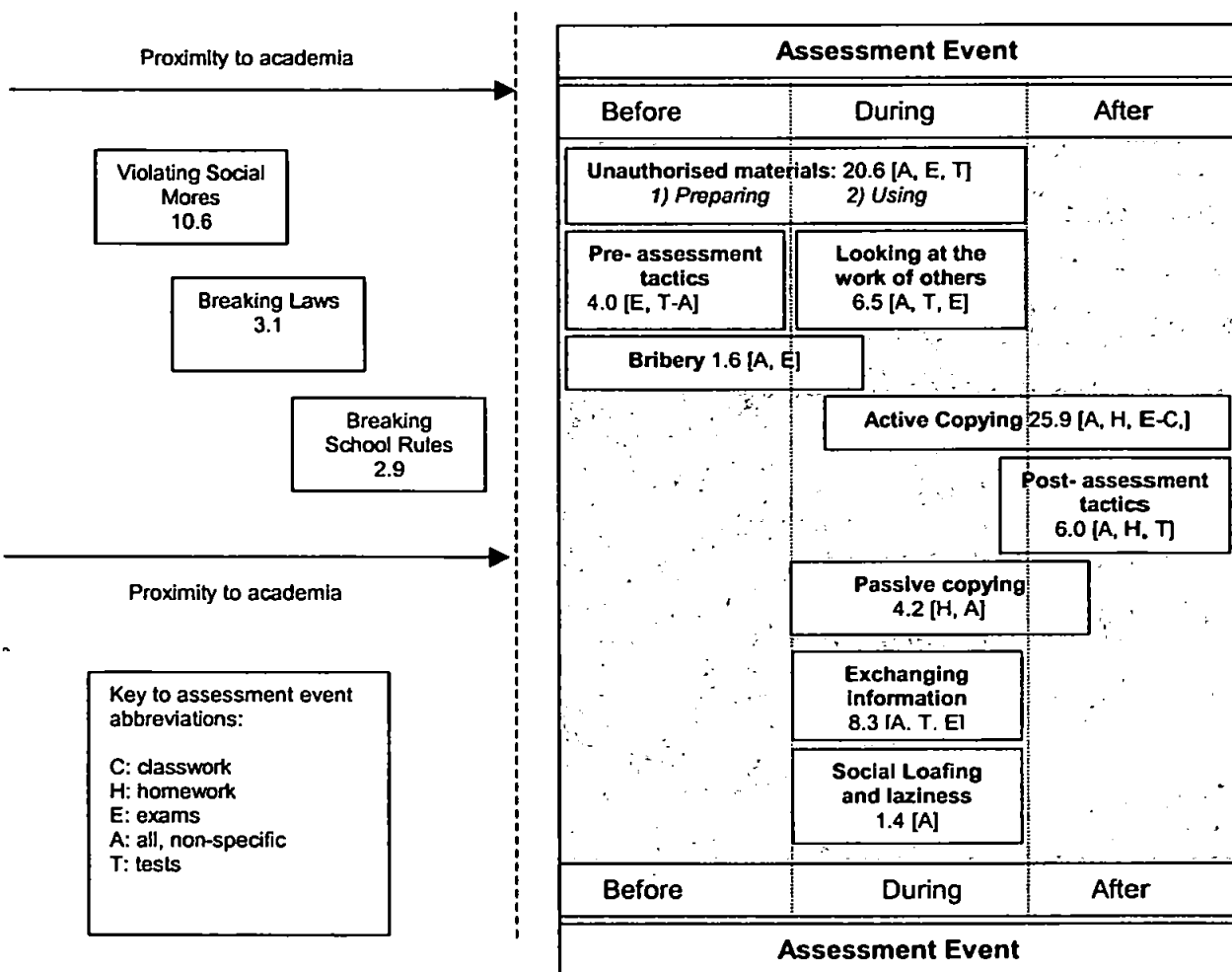


Figure 4.5.1 was the third iteration of the model of adolescent perceptions of cheating. As well as the behavioural and time components there is now the additional information provided by the assessment event. The top three assessment events associated with each division have been included and abbreviations have been given in frequency order. For example, **Classwork** is represented by the letter 'C', and where two letters have been given together thus, 'E-T', the hyphen signals that the two assessment events were tied in the frequency of occurrence, as laid out in the descriptions of the divisions given in the previous section. Artistic licence has been taken with the key of abbreviations. **Non-specific**, the assessment event that captures any item that was not generated in association with a particular assessment event, has been labelled 'A' (for all/anything). This means that the abbreviated assessment events spell out the word 'CHEAT'.

4.6 Results 4: The perceived seriousness of the behaviours

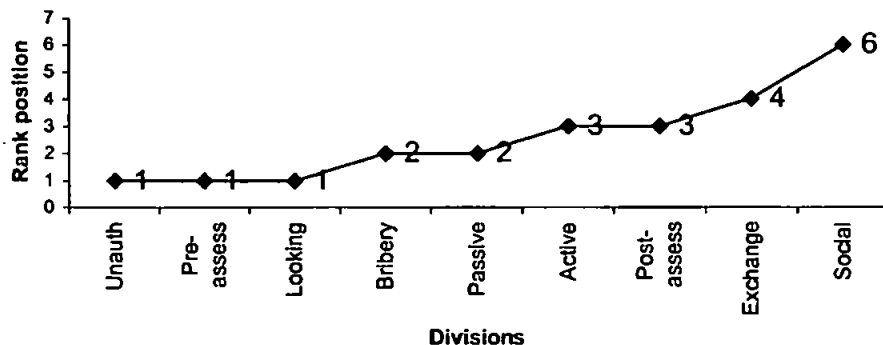
For each item that the respondents gave as an example of cheating, a rank indicating perceived seriousness was also assigned. For example, a respondent may have listed five things which they considered to be cheating. The respondent then put the five items in rank order with 1 being assigned to the item they felt was the most serious form of cheating. In some instances no ranks were given, either as an oversight by the respondent or because they could not assign ranks to the behaviours.

The total number of items generated by the sample had already been divided up into divisions as demonstrated by the model set out earlier. However, a further division now took place; that of separating each division into information about perceived seriousness (rank) of the items therein.

The proportion of each rank assigned to each division was calculated. Many respondents generated similar items, which were placed together in one division. This process was outlined earlier in the description of the division labels. However, perceptions of the seriousness of the same item within one division differed. The original questionnaire allowed for a total of 10 items to be generated by each respondent. This meant that an item could have received a rank score of up to 10 (*if the respondent had generated a total of 10 items*). For each division therefore, the number of items given a rank of 1 was calculated, then the number of items given a rank of 2 were calculated and so on, all the way up to the rank of 10, where relatively few items were placed. For instance, 88 items were given a rank of 3 in the division of **active copying**. This amounted to 6.5% of the total number of items generated by respondents. Two divisions both received over 6%. **Active copying**, as already mentioned gained 6.5% at rank 3 and **unauthorised materials** gained 7% at rank 1. This reflected the fact that these two divisions contained a majority of the items.

Figure 4.6.1 depicts the largest proportion of the ranks for each division. [The y-axis begins at zero only to add definition to the chart and ease interpretation. The first three divisions all begin at one (the first rank) and are not as easy to identify when merged with the x-axis]. Each point on the chart represents the most frequently occurring severity rank in a division. Within the division of **looking at the work of others** most of the items were given a rank of one by respondents.

Figure 4.6.1. Divisions of Traditional Academic Cheating as a function of the most frequent severity rank position



However, **active copying** had a severity rank of 3 most frequently assigned to items. In the same way, the smaller division of **social loafing and laziness** had a severity rank of 6 as the most frequently assigned by respondents. By using frequency information in this way it was possible to indicate overall, where the *spreads* of perceptions about the seriousness of each type of cheating were based. The layout of the chart above was in the order of perceived seriousness, the left-hand side representing divisions which were perceived as being greater in severity than those on the right hand side. The position of **social loafing and laziness** in the figure should not be dismissed as an artefact of the small division sample size. **Bribery, seduction and corruption** had a smaller sample size and was perceived more severely in comparison. The position of these two divisions was intuitively appropriate.

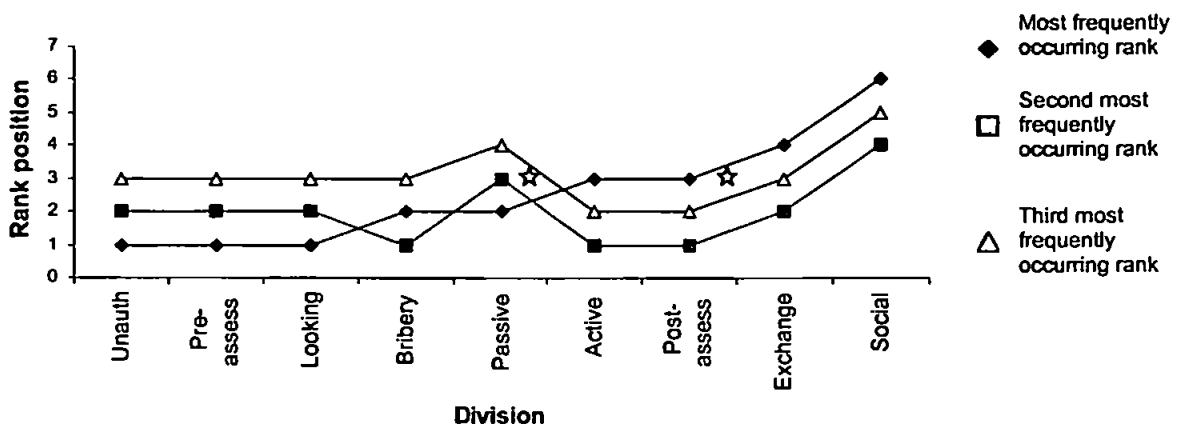
Whilst three divisions each had rank position one most frequently occurring, **unauthorised materials** was the division which was perceived as the most serious form of cheating by the respondents. This conclusion can be substantiated by reference to the second and third rank positions. Figure 4.6.2 shows that the second most frequently occurring rank was 2 and the third most frequently occurring rank was 3. The trend of severity for this division was located at the most serious end of the scale. Whilst this trend was shared with two other divisions (**pre-assessment tactics** and **looking at the work of others**) the overall *proportion* of the items receiving a rank of 1 in the division of **unauthorised materials** was three times larger than **pre-assessment tactics** and **looking at the work of others** (7% compared to 2%).

Figure 4.6.2 depicts the relationship between the first three ranks for each division. The trend outlined above for **unauthorised materials** can be clearly seen on the chart. However, what was also noticeable was the cross-over of rank positions.

If the diamond shape (most frequently occurring rank) was used as an epicentre from which the level of perceived seriousness emanated, then the trend of overall seriousness can be examined. For example, **bribery, seduction and corruption** had the most frequently occurring rank in 2nd place. It is here on the chart that the move away from the highest proportion of divisions with the rank of one began. Items to the right of **looking at the work of others** were less seriously perceived. However, this change in perception was not straightforward when data other than the most frequently occurring rank was studied. The move towards less severity was gradual. The gradual nature of the move can be established by looking at the three most frequently ranks *within* the divisions as depicted in figure 4.6.2.

The second most frequently occurring rank for **bribery, seduction and corruption** remained in the position of greatest severity (at one), whilst the most frequently occurring rank was at position 2. The third most frequently occurring rank was at position 3. The example demonstrates that the move away from extreme seriousness was not a discrete process but had a fluid element. This was because consensus as demonstrated by the proportion of respondents assigning ranks to the behaviours was not 100%. For each of the behaviours, respondents accorded differing degrees of severity. Using the **bribery** example again, the effect of having the second most frequently occurring rank at position 1 was to hold the behaviour at greater rather than lesser severity. If the second most frequently rank position had been at position 3, the effect would have been to pull the division away from severity.

Figure 4.6.2. The top three most frequent severity rank positions for each division.



Passive copying on the other hand demonstrated a move away from extreme seriousness that was more pronounced. The position of the most frequently occurring ranks appeared to have been reversed. The second rank frequency position no longer clung to the extreme seriousness, but moved *up* and away from rank position one towards a position of lesser seriousness. [However, positions 2 and 3 were in fact tied. This cannot be shown adequately on the chart, but the x-axis labels with stars next to them indicate that rank positions 2 and 3 were tied.]

The remaining divisions showed a similar degree of fluidity, hovering across two ranks in a 2, 3, 1 frequency formation, dividing the vote as it were, perhaps even indicating bi-modality, but still as a whole group, moving away from extreme seriousness.

A chi-square test which approached significance ($\chi^2_{df=8} = 15.46, p=0.051$) was performed on the divisions which had greater than 5 cases in the top three ranks (**bribery, seduction and corruption and social loafing and laziness** were omitted, as were those with tied ranks, **passive copying** and **post-assessment tactics**). Tied ranks were omitted because an absence of a difference in these cases may have masked any other statistical differences in the data). Therefore, it may be that there was a small difference between **unauthorised materials, pre-assessment tactics, looking at the work of others, active copying** and **exchanging information**. Even though the two divisions of **bribery, seduction and corruption** and **social loafing and laziness** were too small to include in the statistical analysis, the small sample size has not prevented the intuitive difference in perceived seriousness from emerging. Research into cheating in higher education by Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) highlighted that bribery, seduction and corruption was perceived by students to be more serious than collusion-based forms of cheating.

Examination of *sub-division* rank frequencies revealed that the trend observed in the above figures for each division was mirrored. There were, however, two notable exceptions. Within the division of **active copying** (the largest division), the *overall* trend was a rank position of 3, but the sub-division of **copying 'in general'** gained a greater *number* of ranks ones than the other **active copying** sub-divisions. The sub-division of **copying from another person** held the division at position 3 because by proportion, this division was larger than that of **copying**.

In the division of **unauthorised materials** (the second largest and the division perceived to be the most serious), **preparing materials** received a greater number of rank 1's whereas 'using' the materials had a distribution of ranks at 2 and above, a position of lesser seriousness. These two sub-division examples may be genuine instances of intra-divisional differences (such as the

difference between the intention to cheat and actual cheating) or they may be a by-product of the larger division size and that similar intra-divisional differences may have been found elsewhere if a greater number of items had been used in the analysis (i.e. a larger sample of respondents).

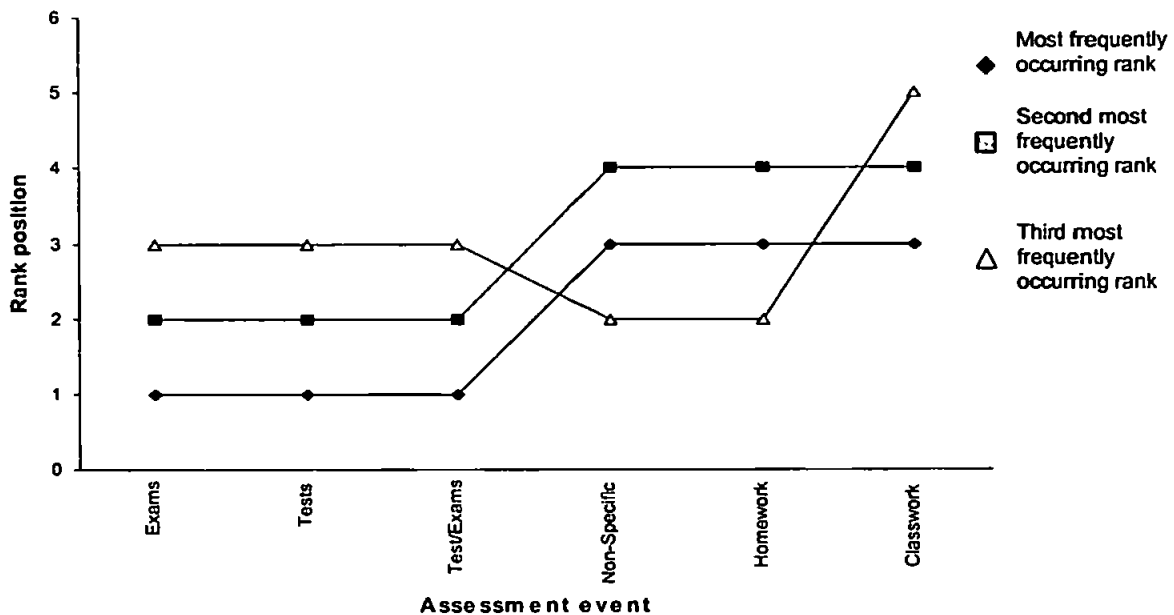
Table 4.6.1 is the proportion of assigned ranks for the **Societal Rule Violations** data where the cell count was greater than 5. As can be seen, the level of seriousness was no less than for the **Traditional Academic Cheating** divisions. The spread of responses for **social mores** was wider, suggesting that perceived seriousness was not uniform between respondents and was more open to interpretation. This is mirrored in the overall percentage figures in the bottom row of the table. Whilst there is a sizeable proportion in the 1, 2 and 3 rank positions, there are also respectable proportions for ranks 4 and 5. The relatively small n and missing cells for these divisions precluded the use of the Chi-square statistic.

Table 4.6.1. The proportion of Societal Rule Violation items assigned to each of the ranks, where n > .5 items

Division	Seriousness rank (1 = most serious)									
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Breaking Laws	4.3	5.7	2.3	1.7		2.0				
Social Mores	12.4	6.4	10.4	8.7	10.0	5.7	4.3	3.0		1.7
School Rules	3.0	3.3		1.7	3.0	1.7				
Total	19.7	15.4	12.7	12.1	13.0	9.4	4.3	3.0	0.0	1.7

4.7 Results 5: The perceived seriousness of the assessment event

Whilst it has not been possible to analyse the severity ratings 'by assessment event by division' because of the large number of cells involved leading to very small cell counts [consider a three dimensional matrix 10 (ranks) by 14 (divisions) by 6 (assessment events)], it was possible to look at the relationship between **assessment event** and severity rating. This provided a league table depicting which **assessment event** was perceived to be the most serious overall. Figure 4.7.1 depicts this pattern, in the same way that the previous rank by division data were illustrated in figure 4.6.2 (page 161).

Figure 4.7.1. The top three severity rank positions for each assessment event

As can be seen from figure 4.7.1, **Exams, Tests and Test/Exam assessment events** were associated with a greater perceived severity of cheating behaviours than the other assessment events. Whilst the **Non-specific** assessment event was the most numerous, it was not the most severely perceived. Perhaps this was an indication of the fluidity with which this category could be applied to the other assessment events.

The order in which the assessment events were presented in figure 4.7.1 was dictated by the proportion information. **Exams** received a greater proportion of severity rank ones (7.5%) than **Tests** (4.8%). The pattern of perceived severity was in keeping with intuition. The more formal the assessment event, the more seriously it was perceived to be. **Classwork** is usually informal in that the rules for conduct are less strict (or perhaps, less clearly laid out), hence it was perceived by respondents to be the least serious arena for cheating. **Homework** was perceived to be a slightly more serious cheating arena than **Classwork**, perhaps because **Homework** was more closely associated with a structured context (often assessed work being completed by an individual in set-aside time at home) in the minds of respondents.

Whilst the pattern of severity follows intuition, what is interesting to note is the relative 'seriousness distance' between the assessment events. There was a distinct break between the assessment events of **Exams, Tests and Exam/Test'** (which were positioned with the most frequently occurring ranks in rank position 1) and **Non-specific, Homework and Classwork**.

Unlike the severity perception data already presented, there was not a gentle trend away from severity. Instead, the latter three **assessment events** began at rank position 3, a clear distance away from the more formalised assessment arenas.

At this point a word of caution is necessary. Looking at the differences between the ranks of the **assessment events** may not yield anything useful. Whilst it appeared that a league table of seriousness had been developed, the theory behind the use of rank data in this way may only have face validity. A 'real' difference between the **assessment events** can only be assumed if each respondent listed at least one item from each of the six **assessment events**. This way, the **assessment events** would start off on a level playing field for comparison. Only by doing this, could a sensible comparison across the events for the respondents be made.

Alternatively, it could be argued that as respondents were requested to only give the items that they thought were cheating in school and rank them as such, it did not matter that they did not cover every context. The analysis concerned differences between the items generated and not the origin of those items (i.e., differences between the respondents).

4.8 Results 6: The four dimensional model

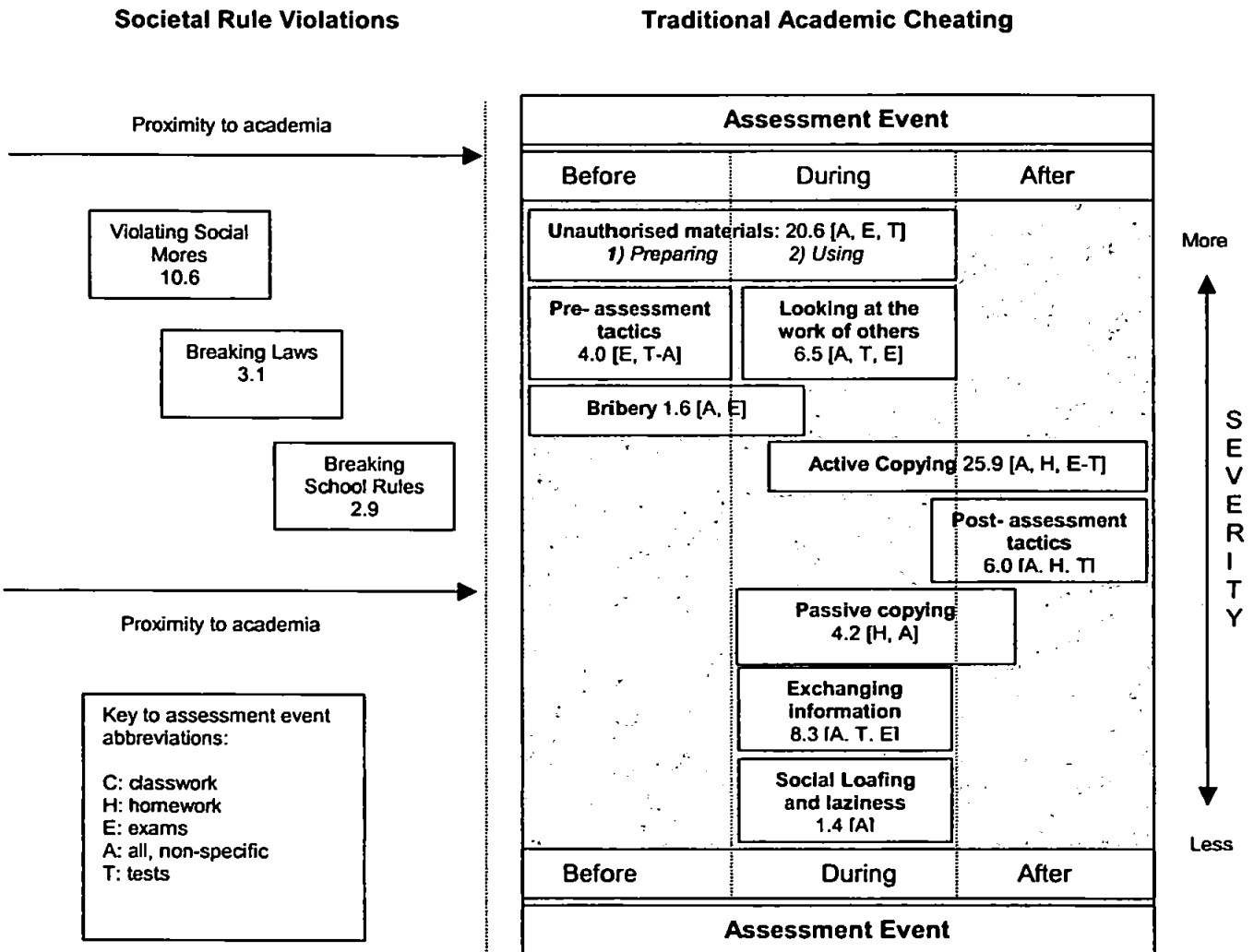
Thus far in the present discussion of what constitutes cheating in secondary school, four main dimensions have been identified: behaviour, assessment event, time and seriousness (three of which could be construed as situational constraints). These elements were not discrete variables; rather they were variables with dimensional properties. The dimensional aspect of the variables functioned when two or more of the dimensions interlocked. For example, interlocking the **assessment event** with the behaviour helped to determine which behaviours were most likely to occur in any given **assessment event**.

How the four dimensions of behaviour, assessment event, time and seriousness, interlocked, is discussed using the example of **unauthorised materials** to aid clarity. Figure 4.8.1 is a diagrammatic representation of the four dimensional model. Notice that the specific **assessment events** and perceived severity of behaviours have now been included.

Firstly there were the range of behaviours which were perceived by the secondary school respondents to constitute cheating. Similarly themed items were grouped together to form divisions, for example the division of **unauthorised materials**. Subsumed within this division were items pertaining to the *preparation and use of* (or performance with) illegal materials, such as crib

sheets. Here, not only was the use of the unauthorised materials deemed cheating, but also the preparation of those materials as well.

Figure 4.8.1. The four dimensional model of adolescent cheating



Secondly there was the dimension of time. A time dimension was identified from the cheating items given by respondents and categorised by the researcher according to *before*, *during* and *after* the assessment event. Analysis of the data suggested that 'unauthorised materials' were more likely to be used *before* the event in terms of *preparation* and *during* the event, in terms of *performance*.

Thirdly there was the assessment event in which the cheating behaviours were perceived to be performed. For example, the use of crib sheets was more likely to take place in a Test or in

an **Exam**, than during the **Homework** or in **Classwork**. In the model the **assessment event** most associated with each behaviour division, in order of frequency has been given in brackets.

The time dimension also provided information about the **assessment event**. If behaviours that occurred before it and after it constituted cheating, then the whole notion and perception of what constituted an exam becomes stretched. In school, an exam in the minds of the respondents begins and ends when the invigilator says it does. However, in the current model, cheating greys these distinct boundaries and 'cheating in an exam' stretched to include, for example preparing materials before the exam.

Finally, seriousness. The fourth dimension was a measure of the perceived severity of the items generated by the respondents. The cheating behaviours, in divisions, were organised according to the overall level of seriousness assigned by the respondents. This organisation is represented in figure 4.8.1. The division placements were re-ordered to illustrate the degree of severity. The divisions perceived as being more serious were placed at the top, with the divisions perceived to be less serious, placed further down. **Unauthorised materials** was positioned at the top of the diagram, reflecting the status of the division – the most seriously perceived by respondents. However, recall that **unauthorised materials** included both '*preparing*' and '*using*' behaviours. The preparation of materials was perceived to be more serious than the use of those materials. Perhaps this was an indication of how students viewed *intentions* with regard to cheating. The findings in Chapter 3 (Study 1) would suggest that deliberate cheating (i.e., with prior intention) was a less pardonable act in the eyes of the participants.

With an explanation of the four dimensions in place it is now possible to see how the model in figure 4.8.1 could be used as a practical tool in determining when, where and how cheating would be likely to occur in secondary school. There was also an indication of how seriously the students rated each type of behaviour.

4.9 Discussion

4.9.1 Summary of findings

(a) The model

The final model presented in figure 4.8.1 reflected some of the situational constraints applied to cheating behaviours as determined by the respondents. The model was described as having four dimensions, the first of which was the abstract cheating behaviour itself. However, as

was demonstrated in the introduction, the situation may be a key determinant of how a behaviour is perceived (and subsequently used). The model also took into account behaviours which were not exclusively academic in nature, demonstrating that in order to fully understand student cheating, cheating from the perspective of the student must be explored.

Behaviours were categorised according to conceptually similar themes and in accordance with the first hypothesis set out in the introduction, a very wide range and number of behaviours were generated, more so than was expected. However when the behaviours were studied more closely, many were found to be subtle permutations of one another, which was also a factor in determining conceptual similarity in the development of divisions and sub-divisions. Indeed over 75% of the behaviours fell into four divisions.

The three remaining factors identified from the data related to the temporal perception of when behaviours were most likely to be performed (or more accurately, comprehended to be performed), in which assessment setting they were most likely to be performed and how seriously each of those behaviours were perceived to be.

Temporal and assessment event situational constraints have not been mentioned in the literature except for the trends related to the perception that exam cheating was perceived to be more serious and occurring less frequently than other forms of cheating (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995; Stevens and Stevens, 1987). The temporal component is particularly noteworthy as it firmly grounds the behaviours in the situation and removes all doubt that there is an interaction between the assessment event and the cheating behaviour.

The perception of the severity of the different behaviours also had an important function in the model. Until now, perceptions of severity have been made according to behaviour lists which have been generated by people other than the respondents. The behaviours have been limited to the context that the behaviours were associated with when the items were generated. Therefore the continuum that has been used to rank order the severity of behaviours by previous researchers has been limited in its interpretation regarding the student body. For this model the items were generated by the students and conceptualised according to their own notion of severity.

Using the current model teachers would be able to identify *within* a behaviour set, which permutations of those behaviours would most likely be perceived with the greatest severity. Although the severity of assessment events on their own were not investigated, information about the frequency of assessment event by behaviour division was ascertained. For example, Exams

were associated with **pre-assessment tactics**. This behaviour division was not at the most serious end of the continuum. However, **Exams** were also associated with **unauthorised materials**, which were perceived to be more serious. Conversely **Homework** cheating behaviours were reported to be associated with the less serious behaviour division of **post-assessment tactics** and the slightly more serious division of **active copying**. Taken together the information about **Exams** and **Homework** may be quite useful. **Exams** were only marginally associated with **passive** and **active copying** and **post-assessment tactics**, which were the major associations for **Homework**. These three behaviours were all less seriously perceived than the behaviours more frequently associated with **Exams**. Thus the second hypothesis from the introduction has also been confirmed. Adolescents perceived examination related behaviours to be more serious than other forms of **assessment events**, when the **Non-specific** category was partialled out.

This finding was not particularly surprising and could probably have been arrived at through common sense alone. However, what was surprising was the extent to which homework was mentioned, particularly as researchers of cheating in secondary school in the States and elsewhere have completely overlooked homework as a cheating behaviour. In Chapter 2, an explanation of the American education system was given. Homework was placed in the context of several demands that were placed on the adolescent, two of which were socialising and part-time employment. With so many demands on adolescents' time, plus very small amounts of homework (by British standards), it is inconceivable to think that cheating was not associated with homework.

The order in which the behaviour divisions were categorised according to severity bore similarities to the ordering of severity placed on the cheating behaviours by the focus group participants (Study 1). In table 3.3.1 (page 80) of Study 1, 'banned materials in exams' and 'gaining advance information about the contents of a test' were categorised as 'serious cheating'. 'Copying' was perceived to be 'wrong but not serious', along with 'parental help'. These four focus group behaviours are similar in nature to **unauthorised materials**, **pre-assessment tactics**, **active** and **passive copying**. They were also similar in perceived severity. However, re-examination of table 3.3.1 (in Chapter 3) indicates that several cheating behaviours were placed in more than one 'severity' category because they were perceived by participants to be situation-dependent. It is hoped that the four dimensional model has gone some way to clarifying the position of the behaviours with regard to severity and the situation. However, by the same token,

triangulation (looking back to the focus groups), has provided a source of validity for the four dimensional model.

The relationship between the perceived severity and frequency of behaviours was found to be different to those given in the literature. Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) reported an inverse relationship between severity and perceived or actual cheating behaviour occurrence.

From table 4.9.1 it appears that when the behaviours are devoid of the situation, severity and frequency appear not to be linearly related. However, it should be remembered that for this study reports of frequency were *not* reports of *actual* cheating. Rather frequency data referred to the spontaneous generation of cheating behaviours. Indeed, these data may suggest that *comprehension* (what is understood by 'cheating') is different to *performance* of the cheating behaviours.

Table 4.9.1. Frequency and severity data for the behavioural divisions of the four dimensional model

Division	Frequency of generation rank	Severity rank
Active copying	1	6
Unauthorised materials	2	1
Exchanging information	3	8
Looking at the work of others	4	3
Post-assessment tactics	5	7
Passive copying	6	5
Pre-assessment tactics	7	2
Bribery, seduction, corruption	8	4
Social loafing and laziness	9	9

Another way in which the model progressed cheating research concerned the role of language. One hundred and seventy seven items were cited that included some form of looking behaviour. This represented all of the **looking** division and half of the **unauthorised behaviours** division. Further, both divisions were ranked at the more serious end of the perceptual framework used to contain the data. The conclusions that can be drawn about this finding are two-fold.

Firstly, it may well have been that some form of neutralisation of the cheating behaviour was employed by respondents. If **looking** was synonymous with, for example, copying, then using the word looking may have been a more socially acceptable euphemism. The use of a euphemism may have been a distancing strategy for the respondent. Copying may have been perceived as a serious behaviour, but one which was frequently performed. By using the term looking, the cheating may have in some way been distanced from ownership, whilst the severity of the

behaviour maintained, i.e. the ambivalence of knowing what was designated as wrong by society (social norms) was squared with the private attitudes towards that behaviour.

Secondly, the presence of 'looking' to such a great extent suggests that teachers and those involved with proctoring **assessment events** should be aware of the language which students may use to talk about cheating. If the language is understood from a common perspective there may be less room for mis-understanding and error in communication of what is and is not acceptable behaviour.

Alternatively, it may be the case that the word 'looking' in this context was simply another word for cheating. Whichever the case, the prevalence of the word 'looking' in this study was another example of the importance of using a user defined classification of cheating.

The use of language also highlighted the importance of the situation with regard to lying. Focus group participants (Chapter 3, Study 1) were adamant that the behaviours associated with lying, taken from the university behaviour list (e.g., false use of extenuating circumstances), were not cheating. They went to lengths to disassociate cheating from lying. However, in the present study, lying was strongly in evidence as a form of cheating, both academically (lying about non-completion of homework) and generally (lying to a friend). The function of the language of cheating requires further study before conclusions about the inclusion or exclusion of certain phrases can be made, particularly in reference to the situation. As will be seen in Chapter 6, lying in the form of extenuating circumstances was perceived to be a particularly acceptable behaviour by parents.

The size of the **Non-specific** category is also worth mentioning. It was the largest **assessment event** category. The third hypothesis set out at the end of the introduction was that respondents would use the framework of the situation in which to word their items. The extent to which this did occur was greater than expected. Whilst there were many items which were situation free, this hypothesis was still partly met. As suggested earlier, the **Non-specific** category may have contained many behaviours which were in fact ordinary classroom behaviours and not those associated with **Exams or Tests** for example. This would account for the relatively low proportion of behaviours in the **Classwork** category. Intuition suggests that cheating is probably quite frequent in this situation and that it is not described in terms of an **assessment event** because it is probably seen as the opposite of everything assessment based. It therefore does not require contextualising or making clear for the researcher! Alternatively, cheating that occurs during the course of ordinary lessons may not be perceived as cheating at all.

(b) Societal rule violations

A substantial minority of the items generated by respondents were classed as non-academic cheating behaviours. This finding was exciting because it further elucidated the way in which secondary school students perceived the concept of cheating. The research question posed may have in fact been partly responsible for the generation of these items. The researcher made the assumption that what students understood by the phrase 'these things are cheating in school' was what the researcher understood, i.e. academic behaviours. This is a key illustration of the trap that researchers have fallen into when investigating cheating in populations with whom they are not allied (or an in-group member). This happy accident suggests that students have a different internal calibration system for dealing with cheating. Adults may have cheating neatly compartmentalised according to academic and non-academic cheating. For adolescents this refinement not have taken place. If the concept of schema development is borrowed from cognition, an explanation for the presence of the two types of behaviours (**Traditional Academic Cheating; Societal Rule Violations**) may be forthcoming:

New incoming information is placed in existing schema until the individual has worked out where the new information really belongs. This process of deciding where information belongs leads to the development of new schema where needed. The difficulty, if it existed, in determining where information belongs, particularly regarding the **Societal Rule Violations** data may have related to the school environment itself. School for many students may be (an unwelcome) extension of the home environment, where social as well as academic tutoring occurs. In higher education, students no longer are treated *in loco parentis* and how students conduct themselves is largely their own concern. Therefore the distinction between what is academically related and what is not may be clearer for these older students.

However, having the distinction between academic and non-academic cheating blurred may serve a useful purpose in itself. Students may use the grey definitions they hold of cheating as a way of dealing with ambivalence towards cheating. For example it may be convenient to deny understanding that cheating has occurred when confronted by a teacher with a query regarding appropriate academic conduct. Students' perceptions of what constitutes cheating and how serious it is, is followed up in Study 5 where the validity of the present findings are assessed using teacher reports of perceptions and attitudes towards cheating.

(c) Individual Differences

Age differences in the form of academic year groupings were identified. Younger students (years 7 and 8) cited slightly different behaviours to students in years 10 and 11. Year 9 students straddled the divide and gave a range of behaviours that were neither close or distant in frequency proximity to the lower or upper age groups. Table 4.9.2 below is a list of the order in which the year 7 and year 11 respondents gave items from each division according to frequency. For example, year 7 students gave the use of **unauthorised materials** more frequently than year 11 students. Year 11 students gave **active copying** as their behaviour of first citation preference.

Table 4.9.2. The frequency of behaviours cited by year 7 and 11 students

Year 7 (first year)	Year 11 (fifth year)
Unauthorised materials	Active copying
Active copying	Unauthorised materials
Looking	Post-assessment tactics
Exchanging information	Passive copying
Passive copying	Looking
Pre-assessment tactics	Exchanging information
Social loafing	Social loafing
Bribery, seduction, corruption	Bribery, seduction, corruption

Although firm conclusions about these data cannot be made regarding performance issues, it may well be that younger students engaged in a greater number of assessment events where the opportunity to use **unauthorised materials** was more frequent. The upper school students, whose assessment events were more likely to be more formal, may have found that copying behaviours were a more fruitful and less risky method of cheating. Those students in year 9 who displayed a range of behaviours may have reflected the subtle changes in the assessment system that goes on for this year group. This year group would be expected to have frequent tests in the style of years 7 and 8, but would also have formal tests such as SATs. Therefore, the need to alter their cheating behaviours to reflect their current situation may have been identified in these data.

If 'looking' was indeed synonymous with copying, the difference in the frequency with which the year 7 and year 11 respondents referred to it is interesting. The year 7 respondents referred to 'looking' more frequently which may suggest that their comprehension of what

behaviours constituted cheating (for themselves) has not yet been clearly defined. For the older students, the distinction between **copying and looking** was more apparent as these behaviours were further apart in frequency. Further, **unauthorised materials** was partly comprised of **looking** behaviours. This division was also less frequently cited by year 11 compared to year 7.

The age differences that were identified by Evans and Craig (1990) supported the notion that older students had a clearer definition of what for them that constituted cheating. In their study, the older respondents reported a far greater number of behaviours to be cheating than not to be cheating. There appeared to be a better understanding of the individual behaviours in question. However, Evans and Craig's older group of students were years 10, 11 and 12 which translates to British years 11, 12 and 13.

A further source of validity for the year group findings may be found with the samples themselves. Years 8 and 9, were 're-sampled' at different schools when those year 8 and 9 students would have reached years 10 and 11. Therefore, whilst inter-institutional differences may be expected, there may also be an element of a cohort trend evident.

Gender differences were not in evidence in the way in which the items were classified according to behaviour division. In Chapter 2, mention was made that some researchers, such as Calabrese and Cochran (1990) had identified a trend where females reported cheating more frequently on helping behaviours. However, the way in which the behaviours were clustered was not readily identifiable in terms of helping or non-helping behaviours so gender differences of this nature were not determinable. Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) reported that males viewed cheating more leniently than females. However, again, gender differences other than those as a function of behaviour type were not available in the present study.

It may be possible to draw conclusions about the differences in behaviours used by secondary school students and their higher education counterparts. Few intricate behaviours relating to plagiarism or fabricating data were cited. This suggests that either the behaviours were not relevant to this age group or that the behaviours were not deemed important or salient enough in the minds of the respondents to include as examples of cheating. Science is a national curriculum subject in which there are plenty of opportunities to falsify data. The researcher's experience as a teacher in secondary school suggests that for older students at least, plagiarism, or a description of plagiarism, is understood by most students undertaking project or coursework.

It was suggested in Chapter 3 that selling essays, impersonation and lying about medical or other circumstances required further study before they were dropped from lists of adolescent cheating behaviours. From the results of the present study it appears that 'lying' behaviours have won a reprieve as they featured in both the academic and non-academic contexts. Selling essays and impersonation, however, did not. The reason that these two behaviours have not been excluded altogether is that intuition suggests these behaviours are perpetrated (particularly selling essays) and that with the recent increases in the number of assessments secondary school students sit along with the increase in internet cheating, these two behaviours may become more commonplace than at present.

4.9.2 Evaluation of the model

The iterative process of building the model meant that some of the variety and richness of item types were lost. The early and later amalgamations were carried out only where it was conceptually legitimate to do so. It is possible to exhaustively list all the behaviours that constituted cheating, however, the natural organising behaviour of the mind tends to favour the reduction of large quantities of data into more manageable heuristics or guides. However, the bottom up approach to investigating this aspect of cheating has proved to be a robust method of model development. These findings may also provide more in-depth information that could be applied to, for example, Whitley's (1998) model. In his model (page 70), the nature of the situational constraints differentially affected factors of risk perception and the ability to cheat. The bottom up approach taken in the present study can add a further practical dimension to what is known about student cheating.

It was hypothesised that asking students for behaviours that they had knowledge of as opposed to performed, would increase the number and range of behaviours generated in comparison with Chapter 3. This may well have been the case, as a greater variety of behaviours were identified as cheating by the participants in this study. However, as outlined in the introduction, the relationship between comprehension and performance is poorly understood. It would appear that the behaviours most frequently cited by respondents were those that were less seriously perceived and those, which, according to a variety of sources, were more or less frequently perpetrated (e.g. Tom and Borin, 1988). Having no access to actual frequency data makes interpretation rather difficult. However, as a rule of thumb, the literature suggests that the

more seriously the behaviour is perceived, the less frequently it is performed. This trend was matched in these data in general that the more seriously the behaviour was perceived to be the less frequently it was mentioned (the exception was unauthorised materials). This may have been an artefact of the number of items generated by participants. Those who generated only a few items, tended to generate the same kinds of behaviours. Those who generated a greater number of behaviours were more adventurous.

For example, the model would be far more robust if actual frequency data were available. However, whilst comprehension data have been used, it is reasonable to assume, that for the age groups involved, those behaviours which would be performed least frequently would have been those that were mentioned least and were perceived to be the most serious. Much of the data referred to copying in some form or other and it is highly likely that the most frequently cited behaviours were those that were most frequently observed or performed by the respondents. Most respondents only produced a few items. It was probable that for those respondents citing more than 5 behaviours, comprehension played a greater role in determining severity than actual performance issues. For example, many respondents gave very common cheating behaviours, and gave subtle permutations of them often citing more than one assessment event. This meant that in effect perhaps only one behavioural division was sampled at a time by some participants or that several behaviours were placed in a few divisions. The reliance on the permutation of one behaviour type may have been a clear indication that such respondents only cited behaviours with which they were most familiar in both comprehension and performance terms.

In general, the perceived severity of behaviours across the whole model was broadly limited to the more serious end of the continuum. As mentioned in the introduction this may be an artefact of the measurement device or it may well be that moral transgressions, whatever the scale used will always cluster around the more serious end point.

The range of the ranks used to denote perceived severity was quite small. The range was from one to six, with one indicating a greater amount of severity than six. Whilst other ranks (seven to 10) were available for use in the analyses, the spread of these ranks across the divisions resulted in very small cell sizes. This restriction of range can be explained in several ways. Firstly, it reflects the number of items generated by respondents. Few respondents generated the maximum possible of 10, which meant that the higher numerical rank positions were far less frequently used than the lower ones. Secondly, where respondents applied their own ranking

system (i.e., not a statistical form of ranking), the indication was that items were perceived to be of equal severity and that the ladder pattern associated with severity and cheating behaviours would not necessarily apply. Indeed overall, most behaviours overlapped to some extent, suggesting that severity could not be ordered neatly according to behaviour type. Perhaps the factors that elevated or demoted a behaviour along the severity continuum were the situational constraints.

Possibly a less robust component of the model was the temporal dimensions. The cheating divisions were divided according to time elements. This process involved a degree of intuition but where possible, rationales based upon the data groupings were used. The effect of using the data as a guide to temporal divisions may have lowered validity. **Bribery, seduction and corruption**, for example, was largely restricted to the time-span 'before' the assessment. However, behaviours relating to bribery after an assessment are known, even if they were not mentioned in great quantities by the respondents. Therefore, as with the rest of the model, ecological validity was constrained by the data, but particularly so for the temporal dimension. If other adolescents were sampled, behaviours not generated for this study may well be produced. In the same way behaviours generated by the present respondents may not be produced by a new sample of respondents.

Having said this, support for the temporal component can be found within the focus group data. No reference to the focus group data was made during analysis of the data presented in this chapter. However, remarkable similarities were found in the clustering of student generated cheating behaviours.

In Chapter 3, approximately 20 cheating behaviours were generated by respondents. These were categorised into 5 groups (page 70): 'Cheating requiring no preparation', comprising behaviours performed *during* assessments. 'Cheating requiring advance preparation', comprising behaviours associated with the time period *before* an assessment. 'Test situations' included opportunistic cheating associated with *before* and *after* the assessment event. 'Collusion', a category not strongly associated with a time period, but with active and passive copying as envisaged in the four dimensional model. The fifth category was 'miscellaneous' which unsurprisingly included non-academic items such as breaking rules.

It could be argued that the process of building on the focus group findings by returning to the adolescent population for confirmation of those findings has enabled the refinement of earlier

categories into the model that has been presented here. Triangulation between methods appears to have been beneficial for introducing aspects of reliability and validity in this instance.

Finally, another limitation of the model, which is a focal point of the next Chapter, was the role that intentions and reasons had in whether a behaviour was deemed as cheating or not cheating. In Whitley's (1998) model, situational constraints fed back into factors related to risk, which in turn fed into the intention to cheat. The diagrammatical representation of Whitley's model suggests that situational constraints therefore had both a mediating role (between intention and actual cheating) and a moderating role (impacting back on to the intention to cheat), via other factors. Hints were given by some respondents in this study of the role that intentions and reasons played in the definition of cheating. For example, "*Pretending to understand when you don't*" (participant 844), was classified as cheating by one participant. This may be an indication of how intentions may impact on whether or not a behaviour is cheating. **Social loafing and Laziness** was a division that contained many attitudinal referents to intentions. As discussed in the next chapter, good intentions, excuses and rationalisations all have a role to play in adolescents' perceptions of whether or not cheating in school is wrong. Whilst it has been outlined in this chapter that cheating is perceived with varying degrees of severity, no conclusions regarding which, if any, cheating behaviours are perceived as *acceptable* can be made. The methodologies employed to answer the questions set out in this chapter are extended and refined in the next chapter in order to answer the question 'Is cheating in school wrong?'

5

Study 3



"And please protect me from the appearance of wrongdoing."

Cheating: is it right or wrong?

5.1 Introduction

Whether or not cheating in secondary school is wrong is the focus of this chapter. It was established in Study 2 (Chapter 4) that cheating took place in a wide variety of situations and that some forms of cheating were perceived to be less serious than others. It appeared that the situation mediated between the behaviour and perceived severity. A similar set of conditions may mediate between perceptions of rule-breaking and cheating. In Study 1 (Chapter 3), focus group participants used qualifiers to denote when a cheating behaviour was and was not wrong. For example, cheating was not wrong (for some participants) if the reason for cheating was to increase understanding.

Research regarding whether or not cheating is wrong is limited. In the previous chapter, mention was made of research such as Abouserie's (1997), in which students reported knowing which behaviours constituted cheating whilst at the same time admitting to having cheated using those behaviours. The reasons or excuses students give for their cheating behaviour may indicate whether or not they perceive cheating to be wrong.

Stevens and Stevens (1987) investigated perceptions of cheating using a series of reasons based on neutralization (Newstrom and Ruch, 1976). For each behaviour, respondents selected a reason why they had cheated or, if they had not cheated on a behaviour, a reason why they had chosen not to. Over 60% reported that cheating was an easier work method and that it was the

best way to succeed. Fewer respondents reported that they cheated because it was their personal value to do so, or that the task was irrelevant, there was little risk or because there was no victim of cheating. Personal values and philosophies were more likely to be given as reasons for not cheating.

Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) also investigated reasons for and for not cheating. Included in their list of reasons was a reference to not cheating because the cheating behaviour was not relevant to the respondents' particular situation. As Björkland and Wenestram (1999) pointed out, this reason was useful in determining for which study-subjects an individual cheating behaviour was most and least likely to occur. In addition, they suggested that the prevalence of this reason reported (above other reasons) by students, indicated that, had the situation been right the students *would* have employed the cheating behaviour.

Reasons for cheating given by Newstead et al's respondents and Björkland and Wenestram's included 'extenuating circumstances', 'to increase the mark' and 'everybody does it'. 'Extenuating circumstances' is rather a vague term that students may have used to transform a wrong act into an acceptable act.

The reasons that have been used to investigate why students have and have not cheated have been based on the situation, the self and others. Person-based reasons appeared to be used more frequently to explain non-cheating (when the situation not being applicable is partialled out). Situation-based reasons appeared to be employed to explain past cheating. Whilst a distinction is drawn between cheating and not cheating, no distinction has been drawn between reasons for past cheating and reasons used to excuse hypothetical or intended cheating. Deciding whether or not something is wrong often involves decision making based on hypothetical situations. In such cases hypothetical reasons do not always match the reasons given when actual decisions are made.

The above reasons given for and for not cheating have been devoid of a theoretical framework. There are several frameworks that have been used to explain and predict reasons for cheating. For example, Gadzella, Williamson and Ginther (1985) reported that external locus of control individuals blamed other people and situations for their academic successes and failures. In order to overcome the perceived control of others over the self, such individuals may have resorted to cheating to achieve academic success (Murdock, Hale and Weber, 2001; Shelton and Hill, 1969). However, Holleque (1982) found that internally motivated students who anticipated academic success were more likely to cheat. Whatever the case, individuals who have admitted to

cheating have been found to use externalised explanations when excusing their cheating (Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clarke, 1986).

Wang and Anderson (1994) reported that externalised respondents would locate blame for a fictitious student's cheating in the situation, but that when the respondent was a hypothetical accomplice to the fictitious student, the fictitious student was blamed. Peer accomplices (such as was the case for the respondents in the previous study) were found by Whitley and Kost (1999) to be evaluated more positively. The internalised individuals blamed the fictitious student and in doing so portrayed themselves in a positive light. This type of behaviour, where personality characteristics are the focus for behavioural explanations, forms part of the fundamental attribution error (see Chapter 3). Internal individuals, according to Phares, Wilson and Klyver (1971), were more likely to use a mixture of person and situation based reasons for excusing cheating in such instances.

Impression management may also play a role in excusing cheating. Noble, Davis, Zak and Dreyer (1994) measured students on their self-reported and actual learning/goal orientations. American students reported valuing education (learning orientation) but behaved in a grade oriented manner and cheated more than their Australian counterparts.

Goal orientation refers to the path which students take with regard to their studies. As was reported by Stevens and Stevens (1987) cheating was perceived to be an easy and efficient way to succeed. Seifert and O'Keefe (2001) reported that students, regardless of their locus of control orientation would rely on the work-avoidance goal in particular situations. Work avoidance involves maximising success through minimum effort (Seifert 1997). When students could not find a meaning for the work they were set, work avoidance tactics were used. Norton, Tilley, Newstead and Franklyn-Stokes (2001) reported that 'Rules of the game' essay writing strategies, which included short-cuts were related to self-reports of cheating. Further, even those students described as employing a deep approach to their learning relied on 'Rules of the game' strategies to ensure good marks.

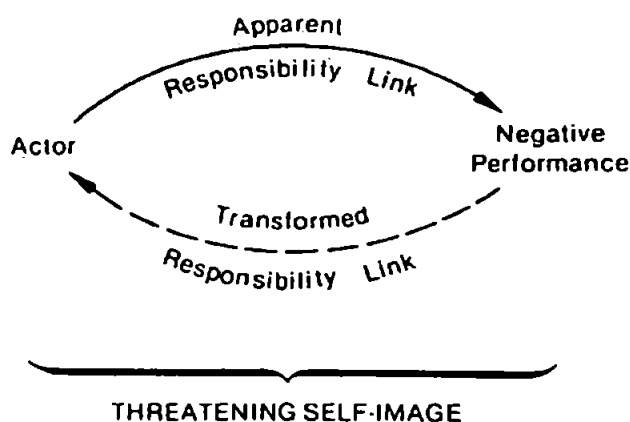
The findings thus far suggest that individuals look to outside factors to explain their educational environment (which includes success and failure). Peers may be used to excuse cheating once it has happened (Wang and Anderson, 1994), but lack of meaning may be used in the pursuit of work avoidance (Seifert and O'Keefe, 2001) which often involves cheating (Murdock, Hale and Weber, 2001). Therefore, the person and the situation have been differentially employed

to explain cheating. Both the person and the situation together may be necessary in explaining cheating, as Murdock et al (2001) reported that cheating could only be predicted (for externally focused individuals) when both academic (situation) and social (person) variables were modelled. Perhaps it is the case that situational factors are taken into account when deciding whether or not to cheat and when excusing past cheating, person based reasons are more salient.

One theoretical framework (that has received no attention from cheating researchers) was developed by Snyder, Higgins and Stucky (1983). In their model of excuse-making, a framework for exploring intended and actual transgressions was used.

At the basis of 'excuse-making' Snyder, Higgins and Stucky (1983) argued, were threats to the self-image. A threat was something that created a link in the minds of others between the person (cheater) and a negative act (cheating). Several factors affected the perception of this link and the more strongly the link of the negative behaviour was associated with an individual, the greater the threat was to the self-image was hypothesised to be. Therefore, excuse-making was effecting as great a distance as possible between the actor and the negative event. In other words, the link between the actor and event was 'lengthened' to move the actor (or cheater) as far away as possible from the negative perceptions associated with the event (the cheating). In some instances, this produced excuses that the act *wasn't wrong*.

Figure 5.1.1 The components of the excuse-making model (from Snyder, Higgins and Stucky, 1983, p46)



Snyder, Higgins and Stucky, (1983) referred to these factors as 'apparent responsibility links' and 'transformed responsibility links'. Figure 5.1.1 is reprinted from Snyder, Higgins and Stucky (1983). Figure 5.1.1 demonstrates the proposed excuse-making link relationships.

The apparent responsibility link is to a certain extent external to the actor and is part of the situation-report that the observer is sent about the actor's behaviour. It could be argued that the apparent responsibility link is associated with intentions, as at this stage it is not fully clear that a transgression has occurred. The links may be used to prepare the ground for a transgression that may occur and be manipulated to increase the acceptability of the act (i.e., defend the behaviour as not wrong).

The transformed responsibility link differs from the apparent responsibility link in that it is based upon a more general set of criteria that can be readily manipulated to put a positive spin on the responsibility link as it comes back to the actor (cheater). The model of excuse-making presented by Snyder et al (1983) is based on Kelley's model of co-variance (1973). Consensus, consistency and distinctiveness form part of attribution theory. These aspects of attribution theory can be applied to both the self and other and form the transformed responsibility link.

Consensus is the extent to which others in the same situation behave in the same manner (e.g., 'cheating: everybody does it'). Consistency is the extent to which the cheater is seen as behaving in the same way in the same situation over time (high consistency is synonymous with responsibility; 'my friend always does my homework for me'). Distinctiveness is a measure of how the cheater behaves in 'other' situations. If the cheater behaves equally poorly in many different situations, their culpability or responsibility increases ('she always copies off someone in every lesson'). These three facets of attribution theory can be manipulated to increase the acceptability of a transgression (cheating) after the event.

Blame is usually apportioned to people and situations other than the self. However, examining to whom blame is apportioned does not elucidate the underlying factors associated with how blame is apportioned. Excuse-making demonstrates that links between the negative event and the self (the actor or cheater) are subject to fluctuations in power induced by the actor. The cheater (recipient of the negative perceptions) can employ several tactics to transform the responsibility links into something more favourable to his or her self-image. Thus a better understanding of the rationales that are given for actual cheating before and after the event may be developed; an understanding of how blame is apportioned may be achieved and an understanding of when individuals perceive something to be right or wrong may be obtained.

Excuse-making appears to be a common sense approach in explaining why students cheat – after the fact. Hidden within the excuses are the social constructions of the cheaters' world.

Students find themselves experiencing a need to cheat or that they have cheated and in turn they construct a world where the cheating has not happened or where rule violation is permitted due to the specific nature of the 'extenuating circumstances'. Therefore asking students whether or not cheating in school is wrong may result in social constructions that involve some kind of permitted rule violation.

Whitley and Kost (1999) attempted to use attribution theory to predict attitudes towards students who cheated collaboratively. Theoretically, acts that were perceived to be in the control of the cheater should have been received less positively than acts that were perceived to have causes outside of the cheater's control. Cheaters, however, if they were perceived to be in control of events were reported to be perceived with more sympathy than was predicted. Whitley and Kost (1999) argued that this unexpected finding was due to the fact that the scenario they used as a stimulus resulted in the cheater being caught. This may have elicited greater feelings of sympathy from participants.

Perhaps the main reason that attribution theory did not stand up to application in this instance was because attribution theory was not designed for use with moral judgements. The moral transgression of cheating may involve an element of holding others' behaviour up to a mirror ('I would have done the same in your position'). The resulting 'reflection' may be taken into account when passing judgement on those others. It should be noted that whilst excuse-making theory does contain elements of attribution theory, it also contains other factors which may be better aligned with explanations of moral transgressions.

Whitley and Kost (1999) as well as using cheating to test attribution theory also tested cheating against a relative preference model. Relative preference theorists argue that a cheater will be perceived less negatively if the observer thinks that they would do the same if the roles were reversed. Whitley and Kost found that undergraduate students who felt they would behave like the cheater (or the cheater's peer-accomplice) were more likely to view the actual cheaters and accomplices more leniently. Whitley and Kost suggested that 'the belief that others share one's ethical standards both justified them and makes it appropriate to use them to judge others' behaviour' (p1755).

Therefore a combination of the two theories of attribution and relative preference would suggest that in order for a cheater to 'come out best' they have to make the observer put themselves in the same situation as the cheater. Sympathy results (relative preference). The

cheater must also make sure that they do not appear to have been able to control events surrounding the cheating (attribution). One such model that may incorporate both the self and others in this way, along with the situation, is neutralization.

Neutralization deals specifically with juvenile delinquency and adolescent deviant behaviour. As a theory to explain deviant behaviour, neutralization was developed before blame theory by Sykes and Matza (1957). Neutralization has received attention from researchers in the field of cheating and the links between neutralization and excuse-making are readily apparent; '...cheating is strongly associated with forms of attributional bias, rationalisation, excuses and other social accounts of self-presentations' (Payne and Nantz, 1994, p91).

The model of neutralization was developed by Sykes and Matza (1957) and was based on the perceived violation of social norms regarding juvenile delinquency (not cheating). Sykes and Matza suggested, based on their studies, that the justifications or neutralizations for misconduct could both precede and follow a delinquent act: 'Disapproval flowing from internalised norms and conforming others in the social environment is neutralised, turned back or deflected in advance. Social controls that serve to check or inhibit deviant motivation patterns are rendered inoperative and the individual is freed to engage in delinquency without serious damage to his self-image' (Sykes and Matza, 1957, p666-667).

It was thought that students would dip into neutralization as they saw the need arise. Like Snyder, Higgins and Stucky (1983), Sykes and Matza proposed that in order for people to live with committing unacceptable acts, the 'link between the act and consequences must be broken' (p668). Broken links were achieved by using one (or more) of the five following justifications:

1. *Denial of responsibility*
The act was not intentional.
The act was caused by external forces.
2. *Denial of injury*
An extension of the common practice of everyday behaviours.
Making a distinction between harming property (no human-no harm) and harming people.
3. *Denial of the victim*
A victim was often physically absent when the negative behaviour was committed, thus there was no victim and therefore no wrong doing.
The act was a 'rightful retaliation or punishment.
The perpetrator becomes the victim.
4. *Condemnation of the condemners*
Changing the focus of attention from the perpetrator of the bad act (the cheater) to anything bad about the accusers.

*Deflecting the negative sanctions attached to violations of norms.
The condemners were fuelled by spite and were hypocrites.
Production of a comparison set of 'deviant' behaviours by the accusers, which lessened the impact of the primary behaviour by the cheater.*

5. *Appeal to higher loyalties*

*Commitment to the in-groups' norms as more noble than society's norms.
Presentation of the act as a moral dilemma and not as the actual behaviour perpetrated.
Acting on behalf of a smaller social group
Must always help a friend.*

(paraphrased from Sykes and Matza, 1957, p668-669)

As can be seen there was considerable overlap between Snyder et al (1983) and Sykes and Matza (1957). For example, the apparent responsibility link of excuse-making was similar to the first four neutralization techniques of denial of responsibility; denial of injury; denial of the victim and condemnation of the condemners. The fifth neutralization technique of Sykes and Matza was more in keeping with techniques employed to lessen the power of the transformed responsibility link using the attribution theory constructs of consistency, consensus and distinctiveness. However, the neutralization model in terms of person-based and situational factors appears to be more heavily weighted in favour of the person. Presumably this is because the neutralizations were developed from conversations with convicted delinquents (excusing behaviour that had already occurred).

As far as is known, the excuse-making model as outlined in figure 5.1.1 has not been tested using cheating as a dependent variable. Neutralization has. The lack of research on excuse-making may be in part due to the difficult nature of operationalising the components of the model using the experimental method (the dominant paradigm of the time). Excuse-making lends itself to discourse techniques, a methodology only recently employed in cheating research. Neutralization is very similar to excuse-making as has been shown and there are two reasons that immediately present themselves as explanations for why neutralization has developed as the preferred testable hypothesis in cheating research. Firstly, perhaps neutralization is a better description of cheating because it was developed from interviews with delinquents. More than once cheating has been studied alongside other forms of adolescent delinquency (e.g., Ward and Tittle, 1993). Secondly, and probably more importantly in research appeal terms, neutralization has been described using simple groupings that have been interpreted as factors (in the statistical sense) and used to develop psychometric scales (e.g., Ball, 1966). The effort and preparation that is required in the development of attribution scales is arguably more complicated and time

consuming. Indeed, the theoretical components of attribution theory that are held as independent (internality and control), are often found to be interdependent in applied situations (i.e., research on cheating), making conclusions difficult to draw (Whitley and Kost, 1999). Neutralization as a concept has continued the proliferation of quantitative research techniques.

Daniel, Blount and Ferrell (1991) and Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clark (1986) used a psychometric neutralization scale (Ball, 1966), developed using Sykes and Matza's (1957) five neutralization techniques. American undergraduate respondents who admitted cheating were found to rely more heavily on neutralization techniques to excuse cheating behaviour than those students who reported not cheating. Ward and Beck (1990) reported that females scored more highly on a scale of neutralization compared to males and used neutralization strategies to excuse cheating to a greater extent than males. Ward and Beck argued that this was because females were socialised to resist temptation more than males.

Labeff, Clark, Haines and Diekhoff (1990) asked respondents to report whether or not they had cheated on a variety of exams, classroom quizzes and homework assignments ("if yes, 'why?"). Labeff et al performed a thematic content analysis using the five neutralization categories developed by Sykes and Matza (1957). Denial of responsibility, appeal to higher loyalties and condemnation of the condemners were employed as neutralization tactics by students, but not denial of injury and denial of the victim. McCabe (1992), however, did find limited evidence of the use of denial of injury reasons for cheating. He suggested that Labeff et al's findings should be re-evaluated in light of his evidence.

The reasons why the latter two categories did not feature in respondents' explanations of their cheating according to Labeff et al, were twofold. Firstly, cheating it was argued, does not appear to have a real victim. This in itself is counter-intuitive. Sykes and Matza included this category because delinquents believed there to be no victim in many delinquent acts. Secondly, it was argued that neutralizers focused on the act and not the consequences of the act and subsequently these neutralizations were not featured in excusing cheating. This argument does not withstand close scrutiny. It is probable that the reason why denial of injury and denial of the victim did not occur was because respondents were not given the opportunity to develop an argument. If respondents were only given a couple of lines to explain why cheating occurred, only the most salient reasons for cheating present at that time in the mind of the respondent may have been written. This does not mean that the latter neutralization techniques would not be used if,

when confronted with a real situation, cheaters found the former techniques did not have the desired effect upon the observer. The original model of neutralization was developed from interviews with juvenile offenders. The overall evaluation of Labeff et al's research was that the analysis methods employed were not suited to the nature of the data and that as well as the issues outlined above, other methodological errors were in evidence. For such qualitative data, limiting analysis to a fixed framework negatively impacted on the validity of the findings.

The conclusions that can be drawn from the limitations of excuse-making and neutralization are two fold. Firstly, excuses used to justify cheating were broad and probably dependent upon the situational constraints faced by the cheater. Secondly, a non-quantitative methodology is probably required to capture the cheaters' construction of their social world. For example, if given the opportunity to expand their answers, as Payne and Nantz (1994) encouraged their participants to do, it may be possible to find out why the perceived success of cheating was used as an excuse. Further it would also be possible to produce a discourse that demonstrated at which intervals and in which situations the various excuses were made and how the excuses related to one another. For instance, it seems plausible that the three categories of 'effort', 'success' and 'task irrelevance' used by Stevens and Stevens (1987) were related, for example, *'the class is boring and I will not use anything I learn in it, so the best way to succeed is to cheat, this saves me time and effort'*. Using an extended analysis this way, 'success', a justification for deviant behaviour that was an important omission from both excuse-making and neutralization, would probably be included.

Qualitative analysis techniques were taken a step further than Payne and Nantz by McCabe, Trevino and Butterfield (1999). Using a methodology not dissimilar to Labeff et al (1990), McCabe et al asked undergraduate students in their postal survey of cheating if there was 'anything else that they would like to add' before returning the questionnaire. The resulting data were analysed using a robust form of thematic content analysis, without reference to any existing theoretical frameworks. Three main themes emerged, two of which are relevant here.

The first theme was the institutional and contextual factors that related to academic integrity. The kinds of categories included in this theme were views that cheating did not occur at the students' institution; teachers prevented cheating and that peer pressure prevented cheating.

The second theme was the attitudes and personal factors that students' weighed up when deciding whether or not to cheat. Categories included pressure to achieve good marks, the vague

status of some cheating behaviours, cheaters only hurting themselves and dispositional factors that related to the personality of the cheater.

In this research it is easy to pick out categories that relate to neutralization techniques or excuse-making. However, these data are conceptually organised in such a way as to take the study of reasons for cheating forward. For the first time reasons and attitudes to cheating have been organised along three important lines: the institution, the context (or situation) and the person. This is not to say that each of these three aspects have not been demonstrated as important in the study of why some students cheat and others do not and why some students will try to excuse their cheating behaviour. These data demonstrate the beginning of the construction of the students' worldview of cheating and may shed light upon whether or not students think cheating is wrong.

5.1.1 The aim of the current study

It was the purpose of Study 3 to identify whether British secondary school students perceived cheating to be wrong. The literature that has been presented here suggested strongly that cheating does exist in academia and that students were aware of its existence. Therefore investigating how students dealt with the question 'Is cheating in school wrong?' was an attempt to elucidate the conflict between knowing what is right and acting out what is wrong. Asking this question also provided an opportunity to examine the American neutralization and blame theory findings from a British perspective, along with the role of the person and the situation in cheating.

The current study was not a replication of the data collection and analysis techniques of neutralization research that had gone before. There is ample research which has used others' theoretical frameworks to investigate why students cheat (e.g., Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clarke 1986; Payne and Nantz, 1994). This study takes cheating research forward, perhaps by demonstrating the applicability of excuse-making to the study of whether or not cheating is wrong.

Firstly, instead of relying on short open-ended responses for why a student cheated in a given situation (e.g., Labeff, Clarke, Haines and Diekhoff, 1990) school students were asked to give a more in-depth prose style response. Secondly, this study did not attempt to fit conversational discourse into categories in the manner of researchers such as Payne and Nantz, (1994). Thirdly, students were not provided with the reasons for cheating (e.g., Stevens and Stevens, 1987). Students were given free rein to write an essay-style response about whether

they thought cheating in school was wrong. Students who wished to develop an argument could do so (cf. Labeff et al, 1990).

The chosen analysis technique also took the research forward by allowing the interrelations between the perceptions of cheating to make themselves evident. Grounded theory was used to produce a model of student perceptions of cheating behaviour in British secondary schools. The interrelations between the differing perceptions of cheating have been hinted at by past researchers using for example, neutralization as a theoretical framework. However, they did not formalise these relationships even if they acknowledged the potential presence of such relationships (e.g., academic and social motivations, Murdock, Hale and Weber, 2001).

Ashworth, Bannister and Thorne (1997) recognised that interrelations between the perceptions of cheating existed in the minds of students. In their British interview study of cheating at university Ashworth et al employed a thematic content analysis. They attempted to link together the various factors presented to them by the student respondents. Their findings were particularly relevant to this chapter because it was one of a few studies that more closely resembled the present study in terms of epistemological approach and cultural population.

Five issues were identified by Ashworth et al, as being descriptors of the student experience of cheating. The first issue, 'peer loyalties' revolved around the role of cheating as a method of disadvantaging other students. It was in this context that the students mostly evaluated cheating. The more serious behaviours were those that were felt to disadvantage other students. Peer loyalty also had a flip side that facilitated the understanding of the perceived need of peers to engage in cheating. Therefore, cheating could be both right and wrong.

'Learning as an ethic', the second issue focused on the purpose that the students saw their education served. This issue was linked to peer loyalty through the contrary concepts of squandering an education and showing contempt for students who had completed the work through their own efforts. The third issue was 'examination cheating and other assessment procedures'. This issue related to the kinds of factors identified in Chapter 4 regarding the different situations in which cheating could occur. For example, cheating on coursework was viewed less negatively than cheating in an exam. 'Institutional treatment of cheating' was the fourth issue identified from the student transcripts. There was a degree of ambivalence in the minds of the students regarding the institutional perspective on cheating. On the one hand, the strict view that the institution took regarding incidents of cheating was welcomed. On the other, the students felt

that policies were poorly understood, communicated and applied. This led to the view that the institution was culpable for some kinds of cheating. Perhaps, for some students, this also made cheating acceptable.

The fifth and final issue referred to just one type of cheating; 'plagiarism'. Plagiarism was a grey area for the students because the definition of when an event was and was not plagiarism was open to different interpretations by students and staff. There was a fear evident in the minds of students, of inadvertent plagiarism. The fear of committing plagiarism was felt to stifle deep learning, yet Norton, Tilley, Newstead and Franklyn-Stokes (2001) demonstrated that even deep learners were prepared to falsify bibliographies in an attempt to impress lecturers.

It was clear from these students' perceptions that learning and the honest pursuit of knowledge was tempered by cheating. Cheating impacted on learning. Cheating could *enhance* academic success and *prevent* intellectual curiosity (through fear of accidental cheating). The relationship between cheating and learning was reciprocal however. *Learning* also tempered cheating because some forms of learning were felt to *inhibit* intellectual curiosity. For example teaching methods that did not engage students or group activities that did not reward individuals equally (and punish social loafers) were felt to promote cheating.

Ashworth et al's research gathered data concerning cheating that had occurred, attitudes towards whether cheating was wrong and reasons for not cheating. The data presented in these relationships made it harder to distinguish between person-based and situation based explanations. This suggests that the two are related in a complex way. Student perceptions of cheating as Anderman et al (1998) and Murdock et al (2001) suggested may require *both* social and academic motivations.

Finally, a further factor which the current study took into account was how others saw the cheater. The current study in particular offered scope to adolescents to explore the cheating behaviour of students in general; the norm group to which they belonged. With the perception of others taken into account, a model dealing with strategies relating to the rightness and wrongness of cheating may be developed. Peer observation of cheating and the perceptions of the cheaters as presented by Whitley and Kost (1999) regarding relative preference (holding a mirror up to behaviour) may suggest that such strategies should be bi-polar or multi-dimensional. By this, it is meant, that in order to account for a wider range of perceptions of cheating, the self-as-cheater and others-as-cheaters need to be studied in conjunction with the situation.

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Participants and method of recruitment

Two hundred and thirty students participated from 9 schools across South and East Devon. In addition 57 students participated from three schools in West Sussex and Hampshire. The total number of participants and schools was therefore 287 and 12 respectively.

The data for this study were gathered concurrently with the data from the previous study (Chapter 4). The same participant recruitment schedule was adhered for both studies. However, the participants in this study were not the same as for Study 2 (Chapter 4).

For this study two of the schools chose only to participate in one of the two studies for which help in participant recruitment was requested. The researcher in consultation with the headteacher chose to gather data for the previous study (Chapter 4) and not the current one, as the task appeared to be less time consuming.

5.2.2 Demographic details

School status

The status of the schools in the sample varied. Three were independent schools, (one single sex, male, one single sex, female and one co-educational); one grammar school (single sex, female); four community colleges and four comprehensive schools (one of which was split into upper and lower school campuses). One of the schools was affiliated to a religious organisation (Roman Catholic).

Gender and age

In total, there were 99 males and 182 females. The participants' ages ranged from 11 to 15 years old. The bias toward female participants reflected the willingness of one single sex school to allow the researcher access to a wide range of classes. The teacher in charge of these classes chose to request a greater proportion of students complete the current study (as opposed to Study 2) as the raw data took the form of written prose. The subject class where the data were gathered was English. Table 5.2.1 is a breakdown of these demographic data.

Table 5.2.1. Number of participant as a function of year group

Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11
78	49	53	76	15

5.2.3 Materials and design considerations

For the purpose of the study a simple questionnaire was produced. It consisted of two A4 pieces of paper. The front page gave information about the study and requested demographic information from the participants (gender and age). The second sheet of paper was an A4 lined sheet, such as would be found in a pad of paper used for taking lecture notes. The question asked of the respondents was photocopied onto the sheets and there was ample space for respondents to write their responses. When the questionnaire was completed, the front cover prevented other students, the teacher (if present) and the researcher from viewing responses. The question that was asked of students was "Is cheating in secondary school wrong? To help you answer this question use examples to describe what you mean." The qualifier used was included as a prompt to prevent simple yes/no responding.

It was demonstrated in section 5.1 that a majority of the researchers investigating the reasons students give for cheating used pre-selected reasons and American undergraduate populations. Researchers such as Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) also investigated pre-selected reasons for cheating, but in British undergraduate samples. The findings of the focus groups presented in Chapter 3 suggested that British secondary school students did not perceive cheating in the same way as their university counterparts. This was despite the same stimulus materials (behaviours) being used. Therefore the assumption that secondary school students would perceive the reasons for and for not cheating in a similar manner to American or British undergraduates was not made. Further, researchers who did not employ pre-selected reasons for cheating, but relied on scales measuring attitudes towards justifications of cheating were not emulated in this instance. To do so would have implied that the British students' worldview of cheating corresponded to their North American peers' worldview. Of those few remaining researchers who did not have pre-selected reasons for cheating or scales in their research designs, the majority relied on pre-existing analytical frameworks within which to interpret cheating justifications or relied on thematic content analysis (e.g., Labeff et al, 1990; Payne and Nantz, 1994).

The above methodologies were based on the assumption that the student cheaters' worldview of cheating was in some respects 'already known'. Using scales (etc.) in this way imposed pre-existing conceptual frameworks on the data (Ashworth et al, 1997). Further the use of pre-selected justifications for cheating may also have created a fixed response set channelling students into thinking in the framework that the researchers had chosen. The 'other' response option offered to participants would have been redundant to all except the truly divergent thinkers in the sample.

The use of the in-depth interview can be a robust methodology for examining student worldviews of a topic. However, samples for in-depth interviews may create a corpus that is narrow and to a great extent idiographic. Therefore, the use of the essay style answer was employed because it sampled far more widely from the target population and increased the variability of responses. Whilst this may have made analysis more difficult (and time consuming), the resulting framework was nomothetic and more readily applicable to real-life uses.

The information requested in the essays did not enforce any framework on the respondents, other than to suggest that the authority figure (the researcher) may have felt that cheating in school was wrong. However, respondents were free to answer this question according to the schema that they themselves held about this aspect of cheating. Respondents were also free to answer with as much or as little detail as they wished. Respondents were given the freedom to develop arguments which they may not have been developed verbally in the presence of an authority figure (researcher) especially if they chose to argue that cheating was to some degree acceptable. Respondents' choice of how to respond and which issues to bring to the attention of the researcher could then be classified according to the importance given by the respondent. The experience of the researcher with the focus group participants in Chapter 3 was that a talkative adolescent was rare to find and that use of the in-depth interview would therefore probably be an unproductive method of data collection.

5.2.4 Ethical considerations

The data were gathered concurrently with the data from the previous study. Consequently the same ethical practices were employed.

5.2.5 Procedure

Where possible most of the data were gathered alongside the data from the previous study. By this it is meant that half of the class were given the questionnaire discussed in Chapter 4, and half the questionnaire presented here. A tally was kept of the numbers of participants completing both studies. Occasionally whole classes were asked to complete just the questionnaire relating to the present study. The current questionnaire was returned incomplete more frequently by respondents, perhaps because it was perceived to require more effort or was perceived to be more difficult to complete.

5.2.6 Summary

The data collected were essay-style responses reflecting whether or not participants felt cheating in school was wrong.

5.3 Grounded theory

The decision to use grounded theory as a method for analysing the qualitative data was based on the findings of the focus group research presented in Chapter 3. The thematic content analysis used with the focus group data was limited in that it only enabled the 'voice' of those data to present at best a two-dimensional construction of the participants' views.

Epistemological constructionism, the chosen paradigm of analysis for the current data, was appropriate for the kinds of questions that needed to be answered. At the basis of this paradigm is 'meaning – including lay and scientific knowledge of the world [that does] not merely reflect the world as it exists, but [how it is] produced or constructed by persons and within cultural, social and historical relationships' (Henwood and Nicolson, 1995, p109).

An important issue identified in the literature review for this chapter was that cheating as a construct was flexible and dynamic, impacting on individual differences. Nomothetic laws were difficult to identify with any robustness. This, it was argued, was because previous research had applied a positivist paradigm when a qualitative perspective should have been taken. Positivist research designs produced categorical data indicating the importance of situational constraints on cheating. Interrelationships between the various aspects of cheating (if mentioned) were weak and low in validity.

The two types of qualitative research designs discussed in the introduction, however, rarely progressed understanding past the positivist standpoint. The qualitative designs produced a limited movement towards the construction of the adolescent perspective of cheating. The first type of design relied on empiricist analysis methods, resulting in the same categorical 'cul-de-sacs' as the quantitative studies. The second type of qualitative studies used analysis techniques that were truly qualitative, yet produced a corpus limited in reliability, by virtue of the chosen analysis technique and small sample sizes. This criticism of small sample size technically should not apply to qualitative methodologies. The qualitative paradigm 'privileges the search for meaning understanding or *verstehen* rather than abstract, universal laws' (Henwood and Pidgeon, 1995, p115, original emphasis). These privileges are based on the quality of the data and not on the quantity.

However, in a research field (cheating), where the dominant paradigm is quasi-experimental and heavily positivist, there should be a close affiliation with the dominant sub-paradigm of the linked field of education. In education, the sub-paradigm is action-research, which is the quasi-experimental method disguised in a school uniform! A motivating force within the fields of education and cheating is the seeking of universal laws. However, at the same time on some level, it is recognised that until the worldview as constructed by the inhabitants of those fields is explored, those universal laws will not be found. Grounded theory, it is argued, can provide both meaning and to some extent, testable, universal laws (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). Thus the hunger of researchers for the nomothetic may be satisfied, whilst at the same time ensuring the robust examination of potential interrelationships present in the adolescent perspective of whether or not cheating is wrong. To ensure a more widely applicable theory, the sample size for this study was considerably larger than typical qualitative studies. This, as will be shown, was partly in deference to positivist researchers' criticisms of the poor reliability of qualitative analyses.

Using grounded theory enables a small quantity of data (in participant terms) to be used to form thick descriptions of events and situations. The thick descriptions can be used to lead further data gathering phases to provide information to support and refute working hypotheses within the corpus. This cyclical process of interaction and reaction with the data and population is a hallmark of the qualitative paradigm that leads to the construction of the participant worldview.

Action research also uses the cyclical process of interaction and reaction with data and population. This thesis has employed a 'weak version' of action research. At Time One, the focus

group method was used to access participants' views about what cheating was perceived to be. The *convenience* sample was Guides and Scouts. At Time Two, (this study and the previous study) the researcher re-sampled views to clarify refute or expand the tentative findings of Time One. The population was widened to include a broader range of respondents, again, a convenience sample, this time of adolescents whilst at school.

The term convenience sample was used to demonstrate one of the real-world issues in educational research. Very rarely can random samples be taken of adolescents set in the structured and externally controlled education system. Researchers, for want of a better description, 'work with what they can get'!

With this in mind, the researcher was unable to engage in a further cycle of the grounded theory analysis process of testing and refuting working hypotheses. However, this knowledge was built into the research design. As many data were gathered as possible within the constraints of the research design. A wide variety of adolescents were sampled, which resulted in a larger than normal sample size (large, by qualitative standards). The corpus size and variance (of responses and respondents) meant that 'mini-internal revolutions' associated with hypothesis testing and refuting in grounded theory could take place without substantially undermining the paradigm. Actual sampling for new cases is not always necessary. Henwood and Pidgeon (1995) included in their list of data handling strategies, the use of '*theoretical* sampling of new cases, where new data are likely to extend emergent theory' (p116, original emphasis).

Therefore it has been demonstrated that the research design (based on action research) meshed well with the chosen analysis technique (qualitative paradigm, viz, grounded theory), which was the most appropriate method for answering the questions identified in the introduction.

5.3.1 Reflexivity

Reflexivity is a reflection of the researcher's involvement with and 'colouring' of the corpus. It is an acknowledgement of potential sources of bias and subjectivity in the analysis and interpretation of the corpus.

Attempts were made to reduce sources of bias in two ways. Firstly, in the data collection phase, the researcher involved herself as little as possible with individual participants. Participants wrote their responses to the question 'Is cheating in school wrong'. Care was taken not to influence participants in the briefing given. If pushed by participants for an idea of something to

write, the researcher responded that the participant should write about things that were important to him or herself and not to aim to write what he or she thought the researcher might want to see written.

The second method of reducing bias was an absence of prior knowledge of existing theoretical frameworks exploring reasons for cheating. Strauss and Corbin (1990) and Ashworth (1999) advocate a lack of prior knowledge, *if the researcher so wishes*, to maintain distance from the data (objectivity). This second method of increasing objectivity was to a degree, unsuccessful. In order to complete the thesis in the allotted time frame, the researcher had to gather and assimilate background literature whilst at the same developing a grounded theory. However, an initial reading and preliminary coding of the corpus was achieved before the researcher immersed herself in previous research. In addition, the practice of bracketing was applied on top of the grounded theory processes designed to maximise objectivity.

Bracketing, fortuitously, was the subject of a research paper on cheating by a British author (Ashworth, 1999). It can be discouraging to go against current trends and to engage in a research design that deviates from previous practice. It was therefore encouraging to discover that other researchers from the same culture have come to similar conclusions about the validity of existing (mainly North American) research practices in the field of cheating. As has been noted more than once in this thesis, British researchers of cheating are few and far between. To find a researcher investigating cheating in this country *and* investigating it from a similar perspective is akin to the '3 buses arriving at once' syndrome!

The central tenet of bracketing was the entry into the 'life-world' of the research participant with the aim of encountering truths in absentia of ephemeral phenomena (Ashworth, 1999). To do this researchers need to put aside the temptation to interpret data according to schema already held. One such example that Ashworth noted regarding cheating, was attribution theory. Ashworth, Bannister and Thorne (1997) used bracketing as a technique to aid the analysis of their interviews with British undergraduates. They found that attribution theory could have been an acceptable framework through which to express the data, but that to do so would omit important aspects of the data that would be excluded from what they viewed as existing restrictive frameworks. For example, rather than look at 'guilt' associated with cheating in terms of attribution, they extended the expression of guilt in cheating to reflect participants' cheating as a habit from which a 'buzz' could be obtained. This was a description not found elsewhere.

With this in mind, the grounded theory that was undertaken was approached as far as was possible from the position of bracketing the researcher's existing understanding of cheating. Whether truths would be encountered in absentia of ephemeral phenomena remained to be seen, as much of cheating concerns situational ephemera. However, a reductionist argument would suggest that underneath the situational phenomena are life-world experiences which exist that could function as universal laws for those participants at that point in time.

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Method of analysis

The data were analysed using the principles and techniques of grounded theory as set out by Strauss and Corbin (1990). A description of how grounded theory techniques were applied to the data set is given below. Words in **bold** referred to actual categories, concepts and properties within the final model. They have been used to aid clarification of the development of the grounded theory model.

(a) Open coding

1. The data were read and re-read allowing the researcher to develop an initial overview of the scope of the *corpus*. During the initial reading, each document (the data of one respondent) was broken apart into words, sentences or phrases in an attempt to identify the *concepts* (events) therein, e.g., ambivalence, to describe a sentence that included statements suggesting that cheating could be both right and wrong.
2. Concepts, where possible, were labelled with a descriptor that was abstracted from the actual event. In this way at the end of the initial reading, concepts of similar *phenomena* would be more easily identified. Where an abstract label could not be found, a temporary *semantic re-description* of the event was used, e.g., 'false economy' was used to describe the notion that the benefits of cheating were short lived, if any.
3. The full process of *open-coding* was then undertaken. Concepts of similar phenomena were grouped together to form categories. The concepts became the *properties* of the categories. For example, the size of a test or exam was a similar phenomenon to the

importance of a test or exam. Together, these properties (along with others) formed the category of **assessment characteristics**.

4. The concepts of a category, now the properties of that category, formed the basis for extraction of the *dimensional range* of that category. For example, the property of **size**, (a concept within the category of **assessment characteristics**) had the dimensions of *big*, *small* and *major*, *minor*. The property of **importance** had the dimensional range of *high* and *low*. The dimensional range of a category was a key indicator of how the corpus was to be applied to the individuals and groups of individuals whose data formed the corpus.

5. In order to determine the dimensional range and identify the full list of properties for any one category, several methods of 'enhancing theoretical sensitivity' (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p75) were employed:

(a) Throughout the process of open-coding questions were asked of the data. When a document was read and broken apart into key words, sentences or phrases, the following kinds of questions were applied. These questions were asked in relation to the research question 'Is cheating in school wrong?' Examples given in italics are not quotations from the corpus, They are abstracted ideas from the corpus which explain how the questioning was applied to this particular data set:

(i) Who is the subject or object of the respondent's views? [e.g., the first person (*I think cheating is wrong*), third person (*it is possible that cheating is wrong*), other people (*other people think cheating is right*)]

(ii) When do the events take place? [e.g., cheating is bad if it occurs *frequently*, it is *sometimes* right to cheat, cheating *never* happens in my school]

(iii) Where are the events taking place [e.g., inside the respondent (*I feel that I have deceived myself if I cheat*), between two or more people (*when I work with my friends, it's not cheating*), in a physical building (*cheating in an exam hall is wrong*)]

(iv) What are the events describing? [e.g., an abstract concept (*the purpose of assessments are to test your true ability*), a physical act (*copying from a friend*), a hypothetical situation (*if you went and got an exam paper, then...*)]

(v) How are the events described? [e.g., using socially desirable language (*cheating can be right, but I never do it*), dramatically, from the perspective of an outsider (*it's really wrong and I hate seeing other people cheat, it makes me seethe inside*) or insider (*I had no choice, I had to cheat because I was so nervous I was going to be sick and fail the exam*)]

(vi) Why are the events described in this way? [e.g., moral dimension (*cheating is dishonest and disloyal*), arguments (*everybody does it so why shouldn't I?*), persuasion (*if you cheat you are only cheating yourself and hurting other people, don't cheat*)]

(b) *Drifting* was actively monitored by reference to memos to ensure that categories did not contain properties that were poorly operationalised. Drifting was the process of including data within a category that began in line with the original concepts of the category, but gradually crept away from the original emphasis and developed into a related but phenomenally different concept. In addition, by checking for drifting further dimensions were identified. For example, the **prevention of learning** began as a series of concepts about the prevention of access to information learned for a **specific test** (i.e., the specific questions for that test). The definition of the concept drifted into the **prevention of learning in general** (i.e., cheating as a tool to prevent individuals from learning material unrelated to the specific test). This was identified and the concept broken into two properties of the **prevention of learning**. The two properties, whilst similar were different properties of the **prevention of learning**; when dimensionalised the properties were found to be utilised for different purposes within the corpus (specific vs. general knowledge).

(c) The *flip-flop* technique was particularly useful for the development of novel properties and dimensions within the corpus. The flip-flop technique involved the process of inverting the data to produce a set of hypothetical concepts. The hypothetical concepts were then used to identify *potential* new properties and dimensions or *missing* properties and dimensions. For example, the negative consequences of cheating were inverted to produce a series of

properties of a category for the hypothetical **positive consequences of cheating**. The hypothetical properties of the category included **better grades** and **work avoidance**.

Before the hypothetical status could be removed from the category, four processes were considered. Firstly, the corpus was re-read to identify any actual examples of **positive consequences of cheating** that related to **better grades** and **work avoidance**. Very few were found. Therefore, secondly, the data pertaining to the inverted properties were then re-examined to identify on what grounds the hypothetical properties could be valid, other than as a by-product of inversion. The statements relating to these properties were often presented using phrases relating to 'possibilities'. For example, 'you would get better grades and that would be unfair'. Thirdly, the properties of the positive consequences of cheating were widened using brainstorming to identify properties unrelated to those found using the flip-flop technique. Thus suggesting that the properties existed *in potentia* if a different question had been asked of the sample. Using this method genuine examples of positive consequences of cheating (as opposed to hypothetical) were identified (e.g., cheating as educationally helpful). Finally, the possibility of returning to the corpus population was considered. However, at the outset of the data collection phase, it was noted that it would not be possible to return to the population for practical reasons and that a wide cross-section of school students had been sampled using a large sample size quotient.

(b) Axial-coding

6. Once the process of open-coding was fully underway, *axial-coding* was introduced into the analysis process. Axial-coding was the process of putting the data back together with a specific purpose and to a specific function. Axial-coding is often discussed as a discrete activity. However, in reality it cannot be divorced from the process of open-coding. It was during open-coding that most of the key relationships between the categories (and thus causal conditions, consequences and other functions of axial-coding) were identified.

7. Strauss and Corbin (1990) discussed the aim of grounded theory to be one of fitting the data to a *paradigm model*. Thus:

'In a grounded theory, we link subcategories to a category in a set of relationships denoting causal conditions, phenomenon, context, intervening conditions,

action/interaction strategies and consequences. Highly simplified the model looks something like this:

- (A) CAUSAL CONDITIONS -> (B) PHENOMENON ->
- (C) CONTEXT -> (D) INTERVENING CONDITIONS ->
- (E) ACTION/INTERACTION STRATEGIES ->
- (F) CONSEQUENCES. " (p99)

The following description of Strauss and Corbin's paradigm model as fitted to the current corpus is an oversimplified version of the model for explanatory purposes only:

- (i) The causal conditions were the events surrounding the emergence of the focal point of the paradigm model. In this model causal conditions included **achievement pressures**.
- (ii) The phenomenon was the focal point of the paradigm model. In this instance to determine whether or not cheating was wrong, the focal phenomenon was the presence or absence of cheating (the **decision**).
- (iii) The context referred to the properties and dimensions within which the phenomenon existed. For example, the **assessment characteristics** and **motivations** were pivotal in 'allowing' cheating to occur or not occur.
- (iv) Intervening conditions related to the properties and dimension of the context that influenced how individuals and groups acted and re-acted to the central phenomenon. For example, factors affecting the **prevention of cheating** were included as intervening conditions.
- (v) The action/interaction strategies related to both the intervening conditions and the context of the phenomenon. The strategies were a dynamic exploration of how the paradigm model was employed by the individuals and groups under a specific set of conditions. The strategies were both inter and intra-individual. For example, four types of respondent were identified, each having different perceptions of cheating as right or wrong. The action/interaction strategies are a key aspect of grounded theory. They were used to

demonstrate that theory building (where it has taken place) is robust. The notions of change and time related evolution are fundamental in demonstrating a robust theory. For example, the decision to cheat was perceived to change according to the **pre-decisional factors** affecting cheating. The consequences of cheating evolved over time depending upon the perceived seriousness of the cheating.

(vi) Finally there were the consequences of the action/interaction strategies. The consequences of cheating for any one individual, depending on how he or she managed the event (action/ interaction) were varied and could have in turn become causal conditions for further action/interaction strategies. For example, the decision to cheat for 'an individual' may have led to the outcome of the **perpetuation of cheating**. The cheating was described as habit forming, which in turn was fed into the causal conditions of the phenomenon (to cheat or not to cheat). Consequences could emerge at more than one point in the respondents' world view. For example, simply making the decision to cheat could lead to the perpetuation of cheating for some individuals. This decision could itself become a factor feeding into another set of *influencing* variables affecting future decisions.

Before a description of the model is given mention is made of the quantitative analyses that were carried out on the corpus. In order to substantiate some of the categories according to individual differences, simple statistical analyses were carried out. This was to make comparison with preceding and subsequent chapters more efficient. Individual differences of age and gender were a focus of the other positivist studies in this thesis. A by-product of assessing individual differences in this way was to provide a source of triangulation for assessing the internal validity of the model.

(c) The model

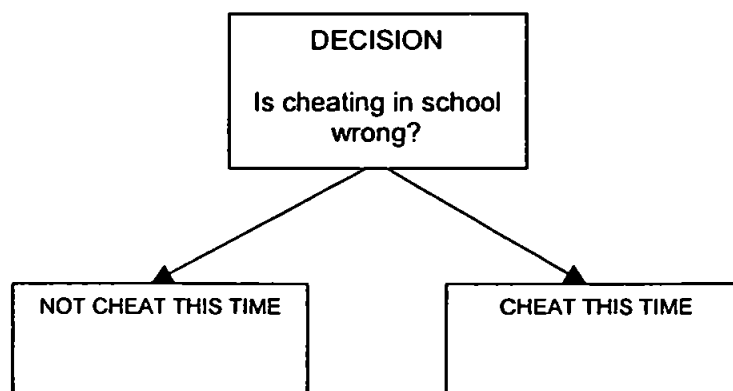
The explanation of cheating that emerged from the corpus could have been modelled in many ways. It was decided, based on evidence that will be explored shortly, to focus on a model which explained the respondents' views from two perspectives. Firstly, from the perspective of the respondent who felt that cheating could be both right and wrong (the ambivalent perspective) and

secondly from the perspective of the respondent who felt cheating could be 'only' wrong. This model, for ease of reference was called the **decision model**.

The responses written by the participants fell into two broad groups. Firstly there were those who felt that cheating was always **wrong** and that cheating had a series of negative consequences associated with it. Secondly there were those respondents for whom cheating could be wrong on some occasions and right on other occasions. Therefore the temporal component of the corpus was in the form of cheating as always wrong, sometimes wrong and sometimes right depending upon the situation. Further, whilst some of the respondents may have said that cheating was always wrong, they also made references to when cheating was right for other people, or under what conditions other people cheated.

These arguments about whether cheating was right or wrong were supported by the use of examples to illustrate what the respondents meant. Examples were explicitly asked for in order to help respondents explain their answers. The explanations took on the form of a semi-sequential map regarding when it was acceptable to cheat and when it was not acceptable to cheat. These explanations were fluid and were applied anew to each potential cheating opportunity as it arose.

The model that was developed can be interpreted using a flow diagram to represent a general map held by respondents regarding whether or not cheating in school was wrong. The focal point of the model was the decision to cheat or not to cheat. The categories identified within the corpus that were used as a framework through which to explore respondents views about 'Is cheating in secondary school wrong?' were organised to tell a story based around the pivotal decision 'to cheat or not to cheat?' (which in turn influenced whether or not cheating was perceived to be wrong). Categories above this point in the model were factors *influencing* the decision to cheat or not to cheat. Categories below this point in the model were resulting factors, *consequent* to the decision to cheat or not to cheat. However, as is the case with the paradigm model, the consequences could themselves become the instigators of new actions. This would change the function of such consequences to influences. The words 'this time' were included in the decision triangle:



The inclusion of 'this time' reflected the temporal and complex decision making processes that respondents undertook when deciding whether cheating in school was wrong. Cheating (as is common sense), was not a one-off life-decision for many respondents. Decisions about whether it was wrong to cheat were made repeatedly depending upon the situation and circumstances that the potential cheater found themselves in. A grounded theory requires elements of temporal transition and change. This factor forms one of the processes that enables a paradigm model to demonstrate control (and thus prediction). This test of the paradigm model will be discussed in more detail in the discussion.

For example, the group of respondents for whom cheating could be both right and wrong (**ambivalent**) gave arguments that would help a potential cheater weigh up in a particular situation whether intended cheating would be right or wrong. In many cases, this meant that the decision about whether the course of action was right or wrong was made at the same time. However, in addition to knowing whether a planned act was right or wrong, events subsequent to the decision to cheat were also used to denote whether the act stayed right or wrong. For example some acts of cheating became wrong on the occasion where the cheater was caught.

The group of respondents for whom cheating was always wrong generally made the assumption that the cheating had already taken place in order to explain why they felt cheating was wrong. This meant that the majority of arguments about why cheating was wrong were after-the-fact explanations, i.e., cheating was wrong as a result of the negative consequences that could be experienced. For cheating to be wrong for this group of respondents an act of cheating had to have occurred. This was contrasted with the other group who felt that even if the decision to cheat had taken place, there could be reasons why it was not necessarily wrong (intentions).

Within the group of respondents for whom cheating was **wrong**, there were some respondents who focused on an explanation of why students should resist the temptation to cheat. These respondents used arguments to persuade the potential cheater to decide not to cheat because to cheat would be wrong.

Both groups of respondents recognised that cheating was fluid and dynamic and that for many, the answer to the question 'Is cheating in school wrong?' was one that did not have a simple answer that was applicable for all time.

Therefore, the answer to the question 'Is cheating in school wrong?' was 'it depends on whether or not you choose to cheat this time'. From this answer offshoots such as '*it depends on*

what happens when you cheat this time' and *'it depends on why you chose to cheat this time*' arose.

Other configurations of the data into different models were possible. Theoretically a model that focused upon the self as cheater and other as cheater could have been developed. The most obvious alternative model was a model of gender differences. Whilst gender differences were not an a-priori sub-research question, part of the questioning process that enhanced theoretical sensitivity included the investigation of gender differences. However, the overwhelming majority of statements were written by females which in effect 'drowned-out' the voices of the males. Females wrote an average of fifteen text units (lines of text) each whereas males wrote an average of eight text units. Further the sample ratio of males to females was 1:2. It was therefore decided not to produce an exclusive gender model, but to actively seek the gender voices within the decision model and highlight them wherever they occurred.

The content of the preceding chapters in this thesis, for which the situation of cheating was a focal point, suggested that the resultant model for the current chapter should also have the situation as a focal point. The **decision** model incorporated the situation as one of two key issues *other* than the decision itself. Preceding the **decision** to cheat or not to cheat were situational factors. Subsequent to the **decision** to cheat or not to cheat were largely person-based factors. Presenting a model based on the situation alone would have meant that half of the data would have been insufficiently explored and given less weight than the situational factors. This was because those respondents who felt that cheating was **wrong** relied more heavily (and often solely) on person-based reasoning. It was the respondents who were **ambivalent** towards cheating and for whom cheating could sometimes be right, who employed situational factors in the explanation of whether or not cheating was wrong. The **decision** acting as the fulcrum of the model maintained the balance between the two groups of respondents and the situation and the person.

The **decision** model emerged part way through the axial coding stage of the analysis. That is to say that, as with the aforementioned gender differences, there was no a-priori decision made to investigate differences between those respondents who viewed cheating as both right and wrong (**ambivalent**) and those who viewed cheating as only wrong. A by-product of rebuilding the data and linking categories together to form relationships was the discovery that some categories related only to one type of respondent. Throughout the coding process, reference to the original

research question was continually made ('Is cheating in school wrong?'). The split of respondents into those who were **ambivalent** towards cheating and those who perceived cheating to be only **wrong** therefore had strong face validity.

Each document (respondent) was categorised according to the general perception of cheating that the respondents presented. One hundred and sixty seven respondents felt that cheating was wrong (56%), 121 respondents wrote that cheating could be both right and wrong (41%), 5 wrote that cheating was always right (2%) and 4 documents were classified as 'other' because the written answer did not conform to a direct answer for the question 'Is cheating in school wrong?'

The method of categorising the documents was straightforward. If the respondent had included text units that presented cheating as not always being wrong, they were included as **ambivalent**. Dictionary definitions of **ambivalence** referred to a simultaneous processing in the mind of two conflicting ideas or wishes.

If the respondent had only written text units that condemned cheating outright, they were included as **wrong**. Similarly, if the respondent had written text units that only praised cheating, then they were included as 'only right'.

Documents that were written in the third person and that acknowledged that other people cheated, but also condemned cheating were included as **wrong**. For example:

"You shouldn't cheat because that is what will happen and then you will know why you shouldn't cheat anymore. People do it all the time because they do not know the answer, they should think carefully and then they might get it right." (Year 7, Female)

However, many respondents also reported cheating to be **wrong** but then subsequently included a word, phrase or argument that identified their views towards cheating as **ambivalent**. These respondents were therefore categorised as **ambivalent**. For example, a year 8 female initially wrote:

"I think that cheating in schools is wrong. You can probably cheat in loads of ways but you will almost always get caught...."

She then went on to say:

"Although not all ways of cheating are as bad as others. If you cheat in a mini-test or quiz, although it's bad it's not as bad as copying in a big exam like Summer exams or GCSEs." (Year 8, Female)

The ambivalent respondents recognised that they perceived cheating to be wrong but also that their understanding of wrong was related to the differing degrees of seriousness that could be applied to cheating depending upon the context. In the following extract, the respondent began by saying that cheating was acceptable and then subsequently went on to describe why cheating could still be wrong, by referring to different situations and the word '*bad*' to denote the degree of wrongness:

"I think that cheating in school is OK, but only if you're doing it just as a small test or exam that won't be recorded. If it's a really important test then I think that is quite bad...." (Year 2, Female)

'Wrong' and 'serious' were used with greater clarity to explore ambivalence by the following respondent. The word '*serious*' was used as a qualifier for **wrong**. It was possible that it was used to soften cheating, to remove the perception of cheating as always **wrong**:

"I think cheating is wrong, not because you're cheating other people, but yourself. I think it is dishonest. I don't think it's too serious if it's just a little test, but it is still wrong." (Year 9, Female)

Sixty males (20%) and 102 females (34%) reported that cheating was **wrong**, 33 males (11%) and 87 females (29%) reported that they were **ambivalent** toward cheating and 4 males and 1 female reported that cheating was only right. This figure breakdown totalled 100% when the 'other' (misc) data were included.

When examined by gender alone (i.e., just the male data out of 100% and just the female data out of 100%), more males reported that cheating was **wrong** compared to the number reporting **ambivalence**. More females reported that cheating was **wrong** compared to the number of females reporting **ambivalence**. By exploring the data in this way the effect of the large number of females did not overpower the male respondents and suggested that there was no gender difference between the respondents who reported cheating to be **wrong** and those reporting **ambivalence** towards cheating ($\chi^2 = 2.84$, $df\ 1$, $p=.092$).

In the same way, age differences between the two types of respondents were explored. A significant difference was revealed across the five age groups ($\chi^2 = 16.53$, $df\ 4$, $p<.005$). Years 7 and 8 contained a greater number of respondents who reported that cheating was **wrong**. Further,

years 9, 10 and 11 demonstrated a reverse trend, with slightly more respondents reporting ambivalence towards cheating than cheating being wrong. This trend away from cheating as wrong was a consequence of the large number of female respondents. More female respondents for these three year groups reported that cheating could be both right and wrong, than wrong. Any male differences were in the direction of more respondents reporting cheating as wrong. Further, because there were so few males in years 9 and 11, any conclusions about male differences as a function of year in school should be interpreted with caution.

Whilst the female 'voices' appeared to be responsible for the age difference in respondent types, when analysed further it was demonstrated that the trend difference came from just two schools in the sample ($\chi^2 = 44.92$, $df = 11$, $p < 0.01$). The two schools in question were from different counties in southern England. One school was mainly responsible for the trend for years 9 and 10, the other school for years 10 and 11. It should be remembered that the sample size of year 11 was very small ($n=15$) and the results once again, should be interpreted with caution.

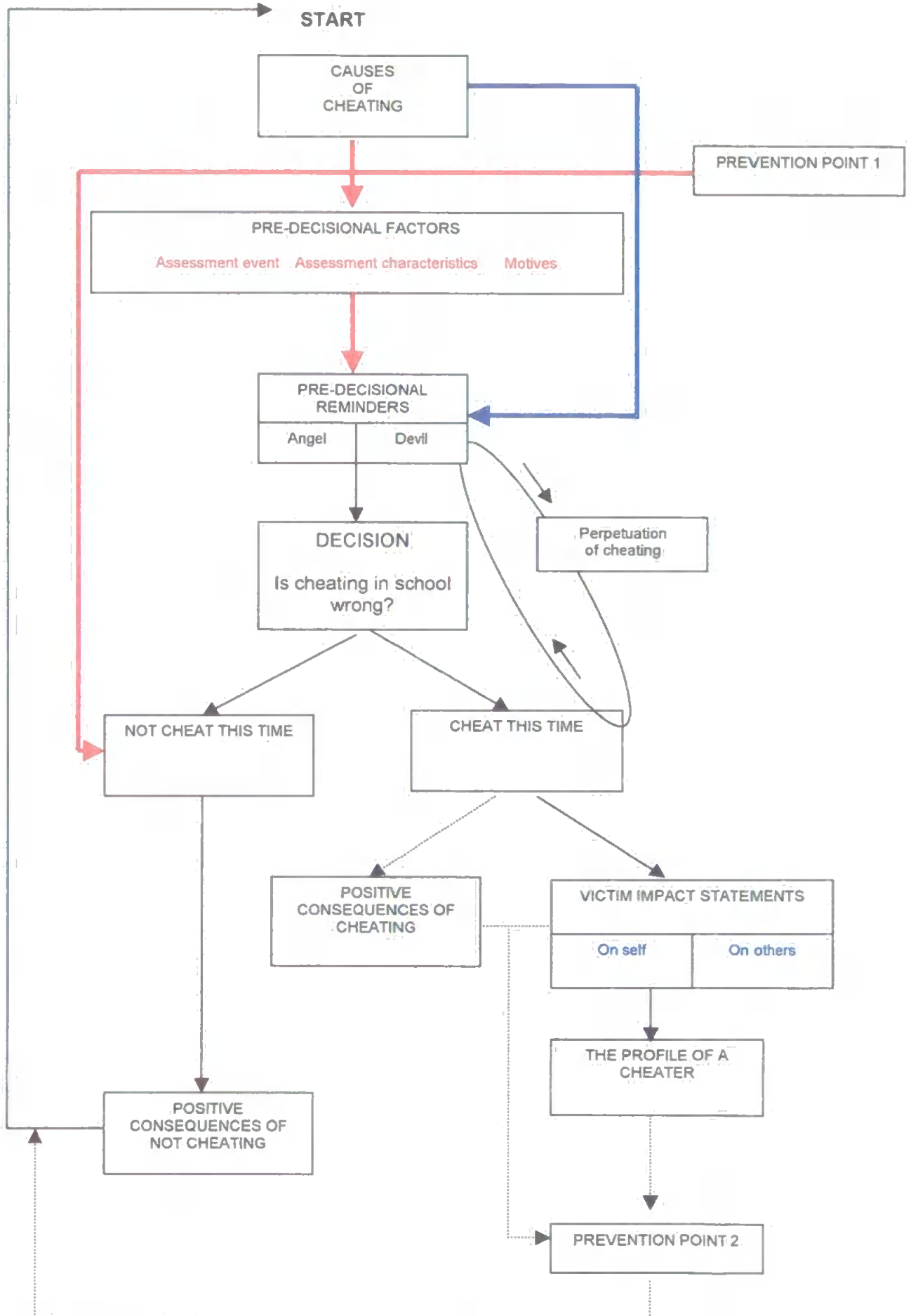
As a final quantitative breakdown before moving on, it is worth noting that whilst overall more respondents reported cheating to be wrong (as a group), the mean number of text units was 10.9 per respondent. This was contrasted with the ambivalent group who wrote an average of 13.6 text units each. This division may reflect the ambivalent respondents' discussion of *both* cheating options; to cheat and not to cheat.

5.4.2 Visual representation of the decision model of cheating

Figure 5.4.1 is a flow diagram depicting the respondents' views of whether or not cheating in school was wrong. The purpose of the flow diagram was to provide a visual map of the development of the corpus into the model. The diagram depicts the 'best fit' of the relationships between the different categories in terms of the paradigm model. It illustrates an hypothetical, average or typical respondent's perceptions. However, it is appreciated that 'average' and 'typical' are not the fundamental components of building a qualitative model.

The major differences between the two respondent groups have been depicted using red for ambivalent respondents and blue for wrong respondents. The lines indicate the pathways through which a typical respondent could have traced their written evidence. Hard, opaque lines represent 'true' pathways. The relationship between one category and the next could be traced through the respondents' documents using evidence from those documents.

Figure 5.4.1. Cheating decision model



Opaque lines represent the relationships between the categories within the model that were to an extent hypothetical. Such categories were described as *in potentia* because the concrete evidence from documents that supported them was limited. Red lines and words indicate pathways only taken by **ambivalent** respondents and blue lines and words, pathways taken by **wrong** respondents. Black lines indicate that both groups referred to the pathways.

It should be noted that whilst the model is largely sequential, a visual representation of the relationships has been included to help with comprehension and not necessarily to pigeon hole the respondents' views. Respondents' comments as a whole regarding whether or not cheating in school was wrong could be traced through the model. On an individual level, a single respondent's views could be traceable in terms of identifying the salient *relationships* (or action-interaction strategies) between concepts and categories as opposed to identifying in which *order* respondents would talk about the various issues. For example, the relationships between concepts could have been that cheating led to negative consequences, but that cheating was sometimes acceptable when the cheater did not understand the material. In terms of the model, the sequence presented was **pre-decisional** first (largely situational factors and understanding the material) and **victim impact statements** second (largely person-based factors and negative consequences). The relationships between wrong (negative consequences) and sometimes right (understanding the material) would be identifiable regardless of sequencing. Planned cheating excuses came before after-the-fact cheating remonstrance.

To help explain the diagram in figure 5.4.1, a typical **ambivalent** respondent's pathway will now be traced. The **ambivalent** respondent viewed the cheater in the following way, when describing whether or not cheating was wrong:

The potential cheater began at **start** and passed through the **causes of cheating**. At this point he or she could have been prevented from cheating by intervention at **prevention point 1**. However, the **causes of cheating** usually began the typical decision story and the cheater subsequently moved onto a series of **pre-decisional factors** that were taken into account when making the **decision** to cheat. Just before a final decision about cheating was made a series of **pre-decisional reminders** were encountered in which a final weighing up of the philosophical and moral pros and cons of cheating took place. Subsequent to these reminders the decision **to cheat** or **not to cheat** was made. If the potential cheater chose **not to cheat** on that occasion, he or she would move onto the **positive consequences of not cheating**. If the potential cheater chose to

cheat on that occasion, he or she would experience one or both of the **positive consequences of cheating** and the **victim impact statement** phase of the model. Should they emerge from the victim impact statements, the cheater would then collect the **profile of a cheater** before reaching a **second prevention point** that may inhibit further cheating. Alternatively, they may have had their cheating **reinforced** and returned to the **start** with the intention to cheat again. Thus an end point of the cheating was a **profile** of a typical cheater. However, if the cheater chose not to cheat, few consequences were mentioned by respondents, most however were positive. For this group of respondents decisions about whether or not cheating was wrong depended most heavily on the situational factors.

This brief outline was a simplified account of part of the corpus. The account should only be relied upon as an indication of how the model may be used. Indeed, as will be discussed, the **wrong** group of respondents used three distinct pathways that were based upon slightly different reasoning strategies. These pathways will be presented along with a more detailed description of the **ambivalent** components of the model subsequent to an explanation of the individual categories.

Most individual documents (respondents) would not have been able to trace a path through the paradigm model as presented here. This was because the documents of the respondents were far briefer than was needed to be able to explain typical pathways. However, internal validity exists in the *relationships* between the categories that were evident in the documents *and* the model. Therefore the data that the respondents provided were traceable in terms of temporal relationships between categories and action-interaction strategies. This will be made more evident as the description of the paradigm model unfolds.

The essential difference between the two pathways of the model was that the **ambivalent** respondents had the option to pass through any combination of categories depending upon the decisions they made at each step of the model. The **wrong** respondents, because they had maintained a position of cheating as wrong throughout (and thus non-cheating), forfeited the factors *influencing* cheating (situation-based) and moved onto a combination of the *consequences* of cheating (both good and bad and largely person-based).

All of the categories (including the sub-categories) were comprised of *properties*. These properties are described and explored below. Each category, as it appears in the flow diagram is discussed in turn. Reference to how the two types of respondents' views functioned for each

category has also been made. In this way a picture of how the model functioned and how the stories of the two types of respondents emerged was developed.

1. Start

At the beginning of the model was the word **start**. This implied that there was an end to the model. For some respondents whether cheating was wrong in school was indeed a 'start-finish' process. However, for many more, the story of cheating was cyclical. Opportunities arose in several places for potential cheaters not to cheat and to return to the beginning of the model (**prevention points**). In this way, they could **start** the decision making process anew when a different potential cheating scenario arose. If a potential cheater did pass all the way through the model, he or she too had the opportunity to return to the beginning and **start** again when confronted with a new potential cheating scenario. The function of the starting position was to provide an overview of the perspective towards cheating of all participants as an homogenous group. It also served to highlight how the model could be approached by respondents. The starting position of the model was supported by two notions. Firstly, all of the respondents were out to gain something. The gain could be an external reward for cheating (such as academic success in the form of **better grades**) or it could be an intrinsic reward for not cheating (personal pride). Alternatively, it could be the avoidance of a punishment by not cheating. Quotation evidence for this is presented later in the chapter.

The second notion was that respondents' held in their minds a clear definition of what cheating was for him or herself. In Study 2, Chapter 4, the notion that there was a shared understanding of what was and was not cheating was not wholly proven. This problem of each participant having a shared understanding (communality) was not an issue in this study. Each respondent was free to evaluate the question according to his or her own understanding of the scenario in which they chose to present their answer. Communality was not a pre-requisite for analysis nor was it the core determinant of the model structure.

Communality was present however. There was evidence of communality in terms of how a decision was reached and which justifications were employed to deal with potential cheating. The presence or absence of the precise definition of cheating (a measure of communality) in the documents was not important for this analysis. It was sufficient for the respondents' purposes that they held a definition of cheating for themselves. Indeed as will be demonstrated, for those

respondents for whom cheating could be both right and wrong, the definition of whether cheating was wrong was intricately bound up in the situation. This in turn presented a definition of cheating that was flexible and dynamic. This meant that for each interaction with a potential cheating situation, the respondent 'started again' and worked their way through the model, perhaps using a slightly different pathway than before. At the point in the model where the potential cheater had chosen to cheat, then the definition of right or wrongness was made apparent, by looking backwards to see the decision making trail that they had created.

2. Causes of cheating

Many respondents (40) wrote statements that related to the possible **causes of cheating**. Three quarters of the statements written were given by respondents who felt that cheating could be both right and wrong. Eight of those respondents were male. Of those respondents who believed cheating to be **wrong** and who wrote statements regarding the causes of cheating, *no* respondents were male. The tone of this latter exclusively female group of respondents, (which contained most of the **wrong** respondents) was largely empathic:

"Some people get worried about their friends picking on them for getting it wrong but you don't have to tell them so there's nothing to worry about." (Year 7, Female)

and

"For students who can't cope with not doing well at school may be urged towards cheating because they feel they will let everyone else and themselves down. Often they cannot deal with this." (Year 10, Female)

However, there were occasional voices of dissent where the empathy was possibly false:

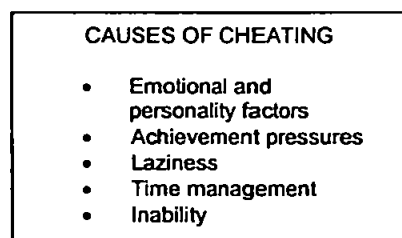
"I think people who have cheated are insecure because they don't know how to work on their own and are probably special needs but no one has realised....."

Here the cheater was described using a personality trait (insecurity) with his or her inability to work on his or her own put down to a cause external to the cheater, that of special needs. When the context of the respondent's complete thoughts were put alongside this excerpt, the respondent's false empathy became apparent. The respondent was angry with cheaters who had in the past **stolen effort and taken credit away** from the respondent. In addition, the school from which the respondent came was a streamed school where students with special needs (in the educational sense of the word) would not have been present. These sentiments of false empathy

may have been employed as a mechanism to boost the respondent's own lost self-confidence, as she continued:

... I've had an incident where people were copying me but I daren't say anything because I didn't want to make a fuss being at a new school. Eventually it stopped but for the period in which they were copying me my confidence was knocked for six."
(Year 9, Female)

In order to more easily identify the properties of the **causes of cheating** that will be discussed, the following key has been provided:



All of the perceived **causes of cheating** were categorised according to the respondents' descriptions of the pre-cursors of cheating. **Emotional and personality factors**, which was the classification of the above excerpts, were more likely, than any other cause of cheating to be mentioned by respondents who felt cheating was **wrong**:

"Also it is a sign that people are either under stress or they are emotionally upset or they are lazy." (Year 7, Female)

One male respondent presented a cause of cheating as a **positive consequence of cheating**:

"I think cheating though sometimes may be good for you because you would not get worried when you have to do work what you can't do." (Year 7, Male)

This lone male voice suggested that worry was a cause of cheating, the resultant removal of worry making the cheating in some way acceptable.

Achievement pressures were reported as a second cause of cheating. **Achievement pressures** originated from the school, parents and the self:

"I think cheating in tests is the one that everybody is aware of because teachers are always stressing it and there is a lot of pressure from your parents, teachers, friends, etc. to do well." (Year 9, Female).

and

"... some people lose or did not do it so they get a lot of pressure off the teachers so they copy their friends to get them out of trouble." (Year 10, Male)

In this latter statement the year 10 male chose to use getting out of trouble as a secondary cause for cheating to pressure from teachers. In the first statement however (year 9, female), the pressure was contextualised by the need to do well. These statements suggested that the **causes of cheating** were very rarely singular in origin and that the interpretation of the original cause depended on the individual and the circumstances in which he or she found him or herself.

Other **causes of cheating** included **laziness** and a lack of **time management**. **Laziness** was mentioned frequently within the corpus. Usually it was referenced in relation to whether or not the decision to cheat was right or wrong. It was less frequently cited as a cause for cheating. When cited as a *cause* of cheating, the sentiments were slightly less condemnatory, more empathic and matter of fact:

"I think cheating is wrong but some people do cheat because they're too lazy to do their work without cheating." (Year 9, Male)

and

"I can see why people do it, because 1) they either cannot be bothered to think and do it themselves or 2) they want to do better than they know they can." (Year 10, Female)

Time management was described with a greater amount of empathy than **laziness**. Of all the **causes of cheating**, **laziness** was the least well received cause by the respondents. In the following statement, **time management** (and possibly **laziness**) were seen as within the control of the individual:

"If you do cheat maybe it is because you didn't revise or maybe you didn't have time to do your homework. There is always an alternative and it is up to the individual to take control of what they are doing." (Year 9, Female)

and, in the following example, **time management** may have been used here as a euphemism for **laziness**:

"I know why people may cheat and most of the time it is because they have left all the revising for exams the night before about 10:00 and can't remember a thing (or they haven't revised at all) ..." (Year 8, Female)

Some respondents discussed **causes of cheating** that were related to ability. Ability was a theme, (like understanding) that was present in several places within the corpus. In some instances ability could be 'absented' from a cheater because cheating caused the **prevention of learning**. However, here, when text units were inverted (flip-flop) to look at meaning from novel viewpoints, it was apparent that alongside direct statements of **inability** as a **cause of cheating**, some respondents held a general perceptual **profile of a cheater** that also included a form of **Inability**. The range of statements regarding ability is demonstrated below beginning with direct causal statements of **inability** followed by statements where *inferences* of **inability** were made:

"People do it all the time because they do not know the answer..." (Year 7, Female)

and

"I think that people who cheat may feel as if their work isn't good enough or up to scratch so they may use a person they class as clever to do their work for them." (Year 9, Female)

and

"I think cheating in school is a good thing if you feel it is what you have to do but if you have to cheat you obviously do not know how to do the work so you should go over the subject with the teacher again afterwards." (Year 11, Male)

The discussion of the **causes of cheating** was the first category for this decision making model of cheating because many of the end points of cheating (post decision; consequences) could be traced back either directly or indirectly to these **causes of cheating**. Whilst only 40 respondents gave statements that could be used to validate the presence of causes, if bracketing was removed from the process of analysis (i.e., 'bias' introduced), the entire corpus could be seen as a general justification for either cheating or not cheating. The decision to cheat or not to cheat could be reduced back to these causes through a pathway of 'justification'. To demonstrate this process of justification of the whole corpus, the previous discussion of the **causes of cheating** included some category labels (in bold) that have yet to be described. These have served as illustrative examples of how the perception of cheating was interwoven with many issues in the minds of the respondents. It was the use of bracketing however, that was a factor that enabled the various interwoven issues to be separated and voiced as individual steps in the pathway in place of simple axiomatic descriptions of justifications.

3. Pre-decisional factors

Pre-decisional factors were those which the respondent used to weigh up whether or not cheating was right or wrong before the fact. These factors fed into the **decision** to cheat or not to cheat. The **pre-decisional factors** were three fold and were closely inter-linked.

Assessment event, characteristics of the assessment and motivations

In order to answer the question 'is cheating in secondary school wrong?' many respondents referred to the different types of assessment in which cheating could occur. This was particularly so for those respondents who said cheating was both right and wrong (**ambivalence**). Further, whether or not cheating was wrong appeared to be a decision that was intricately bound up in the **assessment event** and the **characteristics of the assessment** with the **motivation** of the potential cheater. This relationship was explored from all three aspects by most respondents who chose to refer to **assessment event**. The properties of the three sub-categories of the **pre-decisional factors** are given below:

PRE-DECISIONAL FACTORS		
Assessment event	Characteristics of the assessment	Motivations
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Public examinations • Exams • Tests • Coursework • Homework • Classwork • Games 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Size • Importance • Explicit instructions • Recorded • Frequency 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understanding and effort • Having a need to cheat • The role of friends • Frequency • Other

It is important to point out that the characteristics of the assessment and the motivations were dichotomous variables. For example, understanding and effort was a property of motivations that was made up of an absence of effort (laziness) and the presence of effort and understanding. The former was perceived to be a factor in decreasing the likelihood that cheating would be acceptable and the latter was a factor that could increase the likelihood of cheating being acceptable and therefore occurring.

(a) Assessment event

Seven assessment events were identified within the corpus. These were organised in the analysis in descending order of seriousness. Placement of the assessment events within the order of seriousness was determined by reference to the statements relating to the assessment event given under the category headings of **characteristics of the assessment** and **motivation** of the cheater. Presentation of the description of the assessment events at this point was redundant because statements by respondents did not set out any explanation of what the different assessment events involved. For example, the respondents took for granted that the reader would know what was involved in an A-level as compared to an in-class test. The **pre-decisional** statements were used instead, in conjunction with the other two points of the 'triangle', to explore how respondents knew that one assessment event was more or less serious than another.

Assessment events were mentioned in several ways within the corpus. The main demarcation of assessment event usage by respondents appeared to be between those who felt cheating to be **wrong** and those who were **ambivalent** towards cheating.

Public examinations were considered the most serious form of assessment in which cheating could take place. However, in the corpus, statements that were made relating to **public examinations** by respondents who felt cheating to be **wrong** did not refer to seriousness in the same way as those respondents who felt cheating could be both right and wrong. Those respondents who felt cheating to be only wrong used **public examinations** to express *serious* (and possibly longer term) **negative academic consequences**. A few respondents also used the statements to infer that it was not possible to cheat in **public examinations**:

"I also think this is wrong as when you come to A-levels and GCSEs again you wouldn't be able to cheat in these exams as they are so tightly controlled." (Year 8, Female)

This aspect of **public examinations** is covered in more detail in the section relating to **victim impact statements**. Indeed, the majority of statements referring to assessment events by respondents who felt cheating to be **wrong** were placed 'in the story' at a point *after* the decision to cheat had been made. Those who did not use assessment event as a method of communicating the negative consequences of cheating (**victim impact statements**) chose instead to invoke **pre-decisional reminders** (the next step in the model) of a moral nature in the mind of the potential cheater.

The order in which the assessment events were placed was as follows: **public examinations (A-level, GCSE, SAT); exams; tests; coursework; homework; classwork and games.** This order refers to the level of severity accorded to each assessment event by the **characteristics of the assessment.**

(b) Characteristics of the assessment

Respondents used key words and specific parts of speech to explore inter-assessment event and intra-assessment event differences. **Size and importance** of the assessment were frequently used in similar ways to explore severity of assessment events. Whether **explicit instructions** were given and whether the test was **recorded** were rarely explored but when used, were used in similar ways to **size and importance.** The majority of respondents referring to **assessment characteristics** were **ambivalent.** **Wrong** respondents used these characteristics to a much lesser extent with the same overall purpose – to explain that there were factors that affected how seriously cheating should be viewed. The difference between the two groups was that **wrong** respondents argued that even though differences in seriousness existed, the cheating was still wrong.

Size was more likely to be used in reference to **assessment events** which were not **public examinations.** In particular **size** was used to explore intra-assessment differences for **tests and exams:**

“... or if it was just like a 10 question mini test or something small than I wouldn't really think of that as cheating , if someone looked in a text book or something. If it was a big test or a November test, I would think of it as cheating because the marks you get are put on your report ...” (Year 9, Female)

In the above excerpt, the year 9 female, as well as referring to size, drew a distinction between a test that was recorded and therefore more serious than a test that was not recorded. The words, *'mini test or something small'* were contrasted with *'big test'* and *'the marks you get are put on your report'*.

The reliance on **size** as a **characteristic of the assessment** was also important for older students:

“I think some kinds of cheating are OK for example, cheating in little tests such as German to get your mark up and not stay in at break. I would think nothing of doing that.” (Year 11, Male)

Here the year 11 respondent referred to *size (little)* to minimise the severity of the cheating. He also used a balance of positive and negative consequences to support the presentation of the cheating as minimal. The positive consequence was a **better grade** which was balanced out by the avoidance of a punishment being imposed on the cheater. Balance however, needed to be shifted from the zero or negative position towards the positive outcome. The **better grade** had to be promoted in its place. It was the **size** of the assessment *combined with* the avoidance of punishment that detracted from possible negative associations of cheating. To further make sure that the negativity was minimised, *'I would think nothing of doing that'* was added on the end. *'Nothing'* was also a **size** related term, like small, little and mini, meaning in this instance, of little or no consequence.

Importance was more likely to be used in relation to **public examinations** or for exploring when cheating should *not* occur in relation to being assessed and learning.

"I think cheating schools can be wrong. Like in the important tests - GCSE / A levels. If it is just in a class mini test it does not matter so much but on principle it does."
(Year 8, Female)

In this instance, the distinction between the cheating in the more serious assessment and the less serious assessments were made using the words *'important'* and *'mini'*. Interestingly, the word **test** was also used as a colloquial term for any assessment. To draw the distinction between the levels of test, the following year 8 female qualified the first usage of the word **test** by explicitly referring to **public examinations**:

"I think that it definitely depends on the exam. If its just a little insignificant test, then you can always catch up later, but if it's GCSEs or end of term or A levels etc., it's DEFINITELY wrong." (Year 8, Female)

In the following statement **frequency** was included in the description of when something constituted cheating. It highlighted the close relationship between deciding when to cheat and deciding whether the cheating was wrong.

"I do it sometimes but if it was that wrong then everyone would be in deep trouble. I cheat a lot but not on any important aspects at school." (Year 9, Male)

This statement contained several different issues. Firstly, the issue of **frequency**. **Frequency** could be a **characteristic** and a **motivation**. It was used here as a **motivation**, a characteristic of the cheater (*I do it sometimes*). However, **frequency** could also refer to the **characteristic** of how often tests occurred. The more frequently an **assessment event** occurred,

the more likely respondents were to minimise any potential negative effects of cheating associated with it.

Secondly, the issue of **importance** was also raised. If something was important, then this was a marker by which the respondent would know when not to cheat (*but not on any important aspects at school*).

The third issue relating to this statement belonged in the **pre-decisional reminders** as a final moral weighing up statement that did not relate to the **assessment event** as such (*if it was that wrong then everybody would be in deep trouble*).

Explicit instructions was a characteristic of the assessment that was rarely mentioned (e.g., *you're supposed to do it by yourself*), possibly because respondents concentrated on exploring their own un-written rules of conduct regarding academic dishonesty, rather than presenting what the system of assessment procedures were. It may have been that respondents felt that such procedures were known by everyone anyway and needed no further elucidation. As before, this **characteristic of the assessment** was bound up with other qualifiers, such as **importance**:

"Another way of cheating is when people are doing coursework which I think is wrong because you're supposed to do it by yourself and the SATs are supposed to be quite important..." (Year 9, Female)

The above discussion of the more serious **assessment events** was balanced by a similar discussion of the less serious assessment events. The less serious types of assessment were more than twice as likely to be mentioned by **ambivalent** students than respondents who viewed cheating as **wrong**. The same characteristics were employed to deal with the confession that transgressions were acceptable. However, **motivation** and comparison with more serious **assessment events** often played a larger part. In this first example, however, reference to just **size** was made:

"I feel cheating in school is very very wrong. Even the ones which are small cheats are still bad to do, e.g., to look at someone else's homework." (Year 7, Female)

Despite the respondent arguing that cheating was wrong, she still made the distinction between assessment events and seriousness. In the second example, below, a comparison was made between the type of assessment and the type of cheating. However, the major distinction appeared to be the **motivation** for the cheating:

"I think it is wrong. But in some ways more than others. For example, if you hadn't revised very well, for an important exam because you thought you would fail anyway so you thought you would take some summarising notes into the exam to help you. I feel that this more wrong than someone copying the nights homework that you haven't done because you didn't understand the homework." (Year 7, Female)

Understanding (**motivation**) was the qualifier that made the cheating on homework more acceptable than the cheating on the '*important*' exam. In this third example, again a comparison between assessment events was made and the order of seriousness was made more explicit:

"Cheating in class by looking at someone else's work isn't that bad but cheating in a test is." (Year 8, Male)

In the following example, the opposite order of severity applied. What was more important than the assessment event (**tests and classwork**) was the **motivations**, the relationship between the cheater and his or her friends and the amount of effort the cheater put into the work:

"I find that most people would cheat from a friend or allow a friend to cheat because of the empathy for each other during a test as it is hard on both of them. But during some class work, the copier isn't making much of an effort to work it out themselves, so others get upset and worked up about it." (Year 9, Female)

Finally, before moving on to focus solely on the role of the **motivation** in the pre-decisional factors, games are discussed. Games were discussed by respondents in relation to two issues. Firstly games were used to describe incidents of cheating (concrete examples) and secondly games were used as exemplars of nearly acceptable cheating:

"If you cheat in something such as a game then that's not too bad, but what's the point in playing a game if your just going to cheat. Because then that is no longer a game. I think just about everybody has cheated in their lives but I wouldn't cheat in school or in an exam only a game of GOLF or something." (Year 7, Female)

and

"If you were cheating for, example, in a game of netball it wouldn't be right but it wouldn't be as bad as cheating in an exam." (Year 9, Female)

(c) Motivation

The **motivations** surrounding the decision to or not to cheat were many and varied. They were condensed into three main properties and four secondary properties (including **frequency**), most of which, as has been demonstrated, were linked into other aspects of the **pre-decisional factors**.

The most frequently used statements of **motivation** were **understanding and effort**, **having a need to cheat** and **the role of friends**. These were all properties of the **motivation** category in the purest sense in that they were dichotomous variables. For example, the property of **understanding and effort** as already mentioned contained laziness on the one hand and intentional effort on the other. The absence of **effort and understanding** (i.e., laziness) made the cheating unacceptable in the eyes of the respondents and a factor that influenced the decision *not* to cheat:

"I think it depends on what you mean. For example, if someone could not be bothered to find out an answer to a question and they copy your answer, I think that's unfair because you put effort into finding an answer and someone just copy's it, so I think that's wrong." (Year 8, Female)

and

"I think it is OK to look at someone else's work or to ask someone if you need inspiration or don't understand but just getting the answers because you can't be bothered is wrong. Most of the time it is wrong." (Year 9, Male)

In both of the above statements the year 8 female and year 9 male made the distinction between effort and laziness. The presence of **effort and understanding** were academically laudable behaviours, even if, as in the latter statement, it was associated with cheating. However, not being bothered (laziness) was academically unacceptable and made cheating particularly wrong. In the following extract, a year 10 male distinguished between knowing when something was unacceptable and acceptable. The unacceptable behaviour was described with one clear example. The acceptable behaviour required a range of options (situations) for the potential cheater to choose from, thus making the distinction between right and wrong a little greyer:

"Cheating in school is *only* wrong if you are just being lazy and haven't revised but if you have had problems at home or if it's a matter between life or death then it's OK." (Year 10, Male)

Whilst laziness was very important in denoting unacceptable behaviour, **understanding and effort** were equally important in the explanation of when cheating could be acceptable, even beneficial. The following three statements demonstrated the range of ways in which **understanding and effort** were used to communicate this idea:

"I don't think any cheating is right. Asking for help from a parent, teacher or friend is all right as long as you try to use your head and don't always rely on other people." (Year 7, Female)

and

"But if you cheat just asking someone a question to help you understand what you are doing I think that is OK." (Year 9, Male)

and

"Copying someone else's paper is cheating because it didn't involve your brain in working out the questions, it involved the other person's brain and knowledge..." (Year 10, Male)

Having a need to cheat was a frequently used **motivation** for excusing cheating or making it acceptable. For example, in the following statement a clear need was presented as a **motivation**. However, tagged on to the end of the justification was a reminder that understanding would also lessen the potential sting in the tail of cheating (*as long as you copy it out in your own words*):

"In some cases some people might do it in desperate need for example, if you were doing a test and you were desperate to move up a set in school, and you really needed to know an answer, and you look at someone's answer then I think that isn't wrong as long as you copy it out in your own words." (Year 8, Female)

The need to cheat did not always have to be that pressing or dramatic. In the following statement, the year 9 female discussed not doing **homework** as creating a need. Here the **assessment event** interacted with the **motivation** to make the cheating more acceptable. **Homework** was an **assessment event** which was perceived to be less serious than some others. Indeed, the **assessment event** was alluded to (*it depends what type of cheating you mean*):

"I think that it depends what type of cheating you mean because I think that if someone forgot to do their homework or something like that then I wouldn't mind if they copied mine because I don't think that that's cheating ... " (Year 9, Female)

The **role of friends** was similar to the dichotomous motivation **understanding and effort**. On the one hand cheating by using friends was a bad thing. On the other, cheating with friends' consent in a reciprocal arrangement was acceptable. For example when friends were around to share the work load, the seriousness of cheating took a step backwards:

"I think working with your friends is very different to cheating and one person isn't always doing the work, it's more of a group effort." (Year 9, Female)

and

"It's not cheating if you go round to your friends house and do your homework together." (Year 7, Female)

Working together, in the above example, was using the 'problem shared, problem halved' method. Perhaps this also meant the seriousness was halved, along with the right or wrongness of the act. Again, however, the interaction with the **assessment event** probably moderated any negative effects of cheating. In the following statement, recourse to the **characteristics of the assessment** occurred. The **size** of the test was discussed in tandem with the **role of the friend** in deciding whether the cheating was acceptable or not:

"In big exams yes it is and in some lessons it is but when your stuck on something and you look at your friends sheet if it is alright with them." (Year 9, Male)

This time, in the statement below, a multiple interaction was used to demonstrate the difference between acceptable and unacceptable cheating. The method of comparison was a very powerful justification. **Importance, size, assessment event and the role of friends** were invoked:

"... it would depend on how important the test was. If it was my A levels or something, I'd just hate her but if it was just a spelling test I wouldn't mind that much, but only if she promised to let me copy her on another test if I didn't know the answers." (Year 8, Female)

However, as mentioned above, **the role of friends** was not always beneficial. Some respondents saw reliance on friends as a factor making cheating more serious and less acceptable. In the following two extracts, cheating was described as generally acceptable. When friends were added into the equation, the cheating ceased to be acceptable:

"The third type - being in on it together. Only revising half of what you are meant to and then nudge and wink at your friend next door for help. If you're going to cheat, it's bad enough doing it by yourself without dragging someone else into it. If she's a friend then don't involve her." (Year 9, Female)

and in the second statement, it was the relationship between the person and the cheater (*close friend*) and whether or not permission was granted to cheat that was more important in deciding if the cheating was wrong:

"If someone asked to copy my homework I would say yes but if they didn't ask before using it I would be really mad and would probably class this as cheating if they were not a close friend." (Year 9, Female)

Other less frequently described **motivations** included the risks associated with cheating, the long term consequences of cheating and school based factors such as the teacher and the education system. One statement reflecting each the properties is given below.

The risk of being caught cheating was used to justify cheating, if the cheater didn't get caught.

Once again, however, understanding was an important side issue:

"Cheating in tests is OK if you don't get caught. But you should know the subject." (Year 10, Male)

Where the cheating was going to get the cheater was important for some respondents in their decisions about the acceptability of cheating. For instance, in the following extract, the year 9 female reported that cheating to assist yourself in later life or a **public examination** was wrong:

"I feel however, that if you do work in school which isn't an exam, it is OK to ask someone (a friend) for some help or an answer because the answer isn't going towards a GCSE grade or an A level which may assist you in later life." (Year 9, Female)

Finally, the respondents' teachers were seen as a factor influencing whether or not cheating should occur. In the following statement, the respondent flips over the argument and uses human frailty to justify cheating. People make mistakes and cheating is one way to overcome being human:

"I think lying about homework is a waste of time and teachers should sometimes accept that no-one is perfect and people forget." (Year 8, Female)

4. Pre-decisional reminders

For the ambivalent respondents *once* the decision had been made that a course of cheating action was acceptable, a **pre-decisional reminder** phase was entered into. Here final arguments both for and against cheating were encountered. Reading through such statements it was possible to imagine a little angel on one shoulder of the potential cheater and a little devil on the other! The angelic voice provided more reasons (quantity) not to cheat than the devil could counter. However, the persuasiveness of those arguments was relative and at the mercy of the interpretation of the potential cheater. The origins of the persuasive arguments were mostly from

the respondents who felt that cheating was **wrong**. Therefore whilst the **wrong** respondents gave reasons why they themselves would not cheat, they also offered advice and guidance to others about the demerits of cheating and why it was wrong to cheat. Advice and guidance were the main functions of the angel arguments.

PRE-DECISIONAL REMINDERS	
Angel arguments Moral <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Educational philosophy • Purpose of assessments Fear <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cheating going wrong • Getting into trouble 	Devil arguments Other people <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Everyone does it • Other people do it

(a) Angel arguments

The angelic arguments fell into two broad categories. There were the arguments that took the high **moral** ground and the arguments that resorted to engendering **fear** in the cheater. **Moral** arguments covered the respondents' **educational philosophy** and the **purpose of assessments**. Further, should the potential cheater wish, the angel arguments could be used as a prevention point within the model and go straight to the 'not cheat this time' option or back to the start.

(i) Moral arguments

The **educational philosophy** of the respondents centred on the avoidance of cheating because the cheater would be thwarting the purpose of education and thus thwarting themselves. Further it was not what you got out of education that mattered as much as what you put in. It was the group of respondents who felt cheating to be **wrong** who were more likely to put forward arguments such as these:

"I don't think it matters if you get a question wrong as long as you try your hardest and then you will be told the correct answer and will know for the next time." (Year 7, Female)

In this extract, the respondent put forward the argument that failure was acceptable and that the consequence of doing your best would be the reward of finding out the correct answer. A male respondent of a similar age pointed out that cheating denied the cheater of an education:

"I think cheating is wrong because you are not having a education if you are copying other peoples' work." (Year 7, Male)

This reference to getting an education was articulated more explicitly by a year 9 female, who outlined the way to get that education:

"I do not think that there is any need to cheat in school. There are enough facilities for you to learn by and enough teachers to ask if you don't understand something. So you have absolutely no excuses to cheat." (Year 9, Female)

Further advice was offered by a year 10 male. Rather than pass judgement on the acceptability of cheating, he passed judgement on the outcomes of cheating:

"I don't think cheating is right or wrong. School is to help students make something of their lives if they cheat they will only cheat themselves and will be stuck." (Year 10, Male)

The purpose of assessments was similar to the educational philosophy of the respondents in that there was an element of self-defeat for the cheater. It was more likely to be the ambivalent respondents who gave statements relating to the purpose of assessments.

Assessments were seen as serving a necessary and unthreatening purpose:

"It's to see if you're good at that subject or not the tests are for your benefit so you can see where you need to improve. It's a part of life so tests prepare you to think for yourself." (Year 8, Female)

However, in the following extract, a year 10 male used the same argument to persuade the reader that cheating was wrong, whilst simultaneously providing a reason why it is hard to stick to the moral ground:

"No because and Yes because some questions are to see how much you know and some people lose or did not do it so they get a lot of pressure off the teachers so they copy their friends to get them out of trouble." (Year 10, Male)

Educational philosophy and the purpose of assessments were combined by a year 10 female in the following statement. The respondent referred to long term educational goals (not) achieved with reference to cheating and to the need for important others (e.g., teachers) to know the true ability of each individual. Notice however, an echo of the assessment event from the pre-decisional factors phase:

"Cheating in an exam is wrong, as the results give yourself, your family and your teachers a good idea of how well you are doing at school and can eventually determine what job you get and what GCSE and A levels you get." (Year 10, Female)

(ii) Fear arguments

Fear of failure or of being caught were arguments that were also used as a last minute prevention of cheating. The main aim of the statements in this category was that cheating was not worth the effort. The overwhelming majority of respondents putting forward fear arguments were those who believed cheating to be wrong. There were two types of fear and they were discussed in terms of risk. Firstly, respondents reported that there was a risk of **getting into trouble**. Secondly there was a risk of the **cheating going wrong** in some way. Not all fear statements related to risk. Some respondents discussed the risk arguments as certainties. Certainties meant that the cheater would be caught and that the cheating would go wrong. These latter statements described cheating after the event and were thus placed at a point in the model that was after the **decision** to cheat or not to cheat had been taken.

If a respondent chose the **to cheat** option then there was a *possibility* that they would **get into trouble**:

"Nothing is worth cheating for no matter what the particular situation is! It can cause a lot of trouble which is unnecessary" (Year 9, Female)

In the following statement, the kinds of trouble that can be caused were explored more deeply:

"Cheating is not worth it. For the sake of an extra mark, you could be caught, gaining a bad reputation and may be disqualified." (Year 9, Female)

As an alternative to **getting into trouble** was that the cheating may not be successful. The most frequently cited example of **cheating going wrong** was the possibility of copying someone's work that was incorrect and thus not getting the reward of **better grades**. The following year 9 female included a moral aspect in her description of what could go wrong if a person decided to cheat:

"But then they might work out an answer to a question themselves then look at their friends and it's not the same and they put their friends answer down and it might then be wrong and if they hadn't cheated by copying they would have got it right." (Year 9, Female)

The dual potential losses were wasting **understanding and effort** and getting answers wrong for the risk that cheating would lead to a **better grade**. **Better grades** were a factor associated with the model after the **decision** to cheat or not to cheat had been taken.

Naturally the risk of **cheating going wrong** fed back into **getting into trouble**:

"I think that cheating is wrong because the person that has written the answers down might get it wrong and it might get the other person's work wrong too and they can get into big trouble for that." (Year 7, Female)

and

"Anyway, if someone copies on one test and gets a really good mark and then on another gets a rubbish mark it's a bit weird. And who they copy off might not get the answers right and the consequences are they get caught and get a lousy mark. So it's not really worth it." (Year 9, Female)

At any point during the angel arguments, the potential cheater could choose **not to cheat**, leave the model and go back to the **start**. In essence, the angel arguments functioned as a **prevention point** (see later).

(b) Devil arguments

The devil arguments were simple and straightforward. They were simple justifications in terms of what **other people** were doing. Although the angel arguments also contained representations of respondents who wanted to demonstrate how the behaviour of others should be held up as a good example (**educational philosophy**), they were slightly more complex and relied on a greater range of arguments to create a persuasive statement.

(i) Other people

Other people, it appeared were very useful when it came to justifying why cheating could be acceptable. There were those respondents who used the general phrase **everyone does it** and there were those who took a side-step to the point of saying that **other people do it** (which presumably excluded the individual respondent from being labelled a cheater). This latter group was perhaps minimising cheating by denying the prevalence of cheating.

Whilst the two properties of **other people** were presented separately, they were in fact very interrelated and any discussion of one required an understanding of the other. This was because the words 'everyone does it' were used frequently in the text of the respondents alongside statements that distanced the respondent to the position of viewing cheating as something that other people do.

In the following statement, the *comparison* method (games vs copying work), discussed in the pre-decisional phase was employed to justify any potential cheating:

"I think everyone's cheated once in their life like cheating on a board game whilst your friend is on the loo or some people have looked over other people's shoulders at an answer or copied each other's work." (Year 7, Female)

However, other tactics were also employed in the same argument. For example, the less serious cheating was discussed in proximity to the **everyone does it** part of the argument (inclusive statement referring to the author and others). The more serious academic cheating was discussed in the third person (**other people do it**), which presumably excluded the author (some people have...)

The **everyone does it** reasoning was taken a step further by a year 8 male:

"Cheating in school isn't wrong everyone does it, if you are in a test then it is different. I do it sometimes but if it was that wrong then everyone would be in deep trouble." (Year 8, Male)

Perhaps the respondent was suggesting that because **everyone does it**, cheating must somehow be excusable and sanctioned by some authority. Other people providing legitimacy to cheating was captured in a slightly different way by the following argument:

"My personal view is that cheating in classwork or homework is wrong also, except it is acceptable because most students get help from parents or friends." (Year 10, Female)

It may have been that the respondent could not easily ratify the ambivalence between her personal beliefs and what she observed in practice. Perhaps the ratification came from an assumption that if most students get help without being sanctioned, then it must be acceptable.

A final persuasive argument from the **everyone does it** group reflected the cynicism of older respondents. Here, a year 10 male resigned himself to the role that cheating must play in any realistic discussion of cheating in a real world:

"I think that cheating is not wrong. It is wrong to cheat in a test or an exam, but on the whole you have to cheat to get places. Everyone cheats so you have to." (Year 10, Male)

Using the excuse of **other people do it** could be a double-edged sword. This property of the **other people** category could straddle the angel-devil divide. On the one hand, **other people** were used as a distancing device:

"There are certain people in my class who continually copy others, including my work. I suppose it's harmless enough..." (Year 9, Female)

However, *statement inoculation* can also be used to great effect. In the following statement, the respondent gave a reason why other people shouldn't cheat, (the assumption was made that the respondent did not cheat).

"We would all like to cheat sometimes, but the reason we don't is that we know it is wrong and something inside must tell us it's wrong otherwise everyone would cheat wouldn't they?" (Year 9, Female)

It may well be that this is a true angel argument or it could be a devil argument in disguise! For example, a person wishing to cheat may interpret it as a method of distancing. They may decide to use '*otherwise everyone would cheat wouldn't they*' as an out-group statement. The potential cheater would be firmly in a special minority group of people for whom it is right to cheat, even though they know it is wrong.

A similar method of distancing was employed by the following year 8 female:

"I think it is mainly wrong to cheat in school. I am not that clever so nobody tried to cheat from me ... I'm not particularly honest, but I don't often tell lies." (Year 8, Female)

Here the respondent guarded against potential negative effects of the perception that she herself had cheated by using three forms of statement inoculation. Firstly, there was the admission that cheating was wrong, (*mainly wrong*) a social desirable position. Secondly the respondent presented herself as a potential victim of cheating and not a perpetrator (*nobody tried to cheat from me*) and thirdly, another form of socially desirable behaviour was used. The respondent chose to present herself realistically to engender believability and convince the reader that she was trustworthy in this instance and that any cheating engaged in was acceptable in the circumstances (*I'm not particularly honest, but I don't often tell lies*).

Finally a nice disclaimer for a potential cheater was the following:

"Yes I think cheating is wrong but we can't do anything to stop it completely. Everyone cheats in school." (Year 8, Female)

If cheating could not be prevented (in the eyes of a cheater) perhaps it would be fair game. Prevention as will be shown later was often associated with being caught. If no prevention strategy is present, then there may be no chance of being caught.

Side step: Perpetuation of cheating

Taken as a group, the devil arguments were used to serve a purpose other than just final decision making hints to the potential cheater.

Together with the **positive consequences of cheating** (from the 'cheat this time' route), devil arguments were used as a method of renewing cheating on a cyclical route from one cheating incident to the next. Other properties of other categories (such as the **role of friends**) also served to perpetuate cheating, however, the devil arguments and those linked to **positive consequences of cheating** were most efficient in nurturing the continuance of cheating. For this reason the **perpetuation of cheating** was included as a continuous link between the two proximal points in the model. A link between the **perpetuation of cheating** and **start** was not made because respondents would naturally pass through this part of the model (and others) and subsequently reach the **start** via other routes. The cyclical link was made to demonstrate the validity of the two separate parts of the model. Each category or property that dealt with the **perpetuation of cheating** was fuel (or a *raison d'être*) for the continued presence of the other.

After the decision

At this point the potential cheater made a **decision** about whether or not they would cheat on this occasion. Consequent to the decision was one of two pathways. The potential cheater could choose to cheat and follow the right-hand pathway in the model. This would lead them to the **victim impact statements, the positive consequences of cheating and the profile of a cheater**. Alternatively, the potential cheater could choose not to cheat and follow through to the **positive consequences of not cheating**. The path that was chosen denoted either the position that cheating was wrong after-the-fact or that cheating had some benefits. This latter position was rarely discussed without reference to cheating being wrong and thus engendering negative consequences.

5. Victim impact statements

Victim impact statements are reports presented at court during the sentencing of an offender. The 'impact' on the victim can be physical, financial or psychological. The term has been borrowed from the legal system and has been used here as an umbrella term for the statements respondents gave relating to the negative impacts of cheating.

There were two main forms of **victim impact**. The first was the impact on the person from whom the cheater had copied (or cheated), the **effect of cheating on others**. The second was the **effect of cheating on the perpetrator**. This latter **victim impact** was more extensively outlined by the respondents. The category titles are summarised below:

VICTIM IMPACT STATEMENTS	
Effect of cheating on others	Effect of cheating on the perpetrator A. Injury by others B. Self injury C. Negative academic consequences

On its own the **effect of cheating on others** was the largest single sub-category when defined using numbers of respondents. However, this category had only one level. When compared to the other sub-category which had several levels (or layers) the quantitative **effect of cheating on others** was not so pronounced and was smaller by comparison.

A. Victim impact statements: the effect of cheating on others

The impact of cheating on the victims was expressed in a variety of forms. Often one transgression had more than one type of impact associated with it. For example, a victim could feel an **emotional impact** (allied to the legal form of the psychological impact), whilst at the same time experience a sense of physiological loss caused by for example, lost time and resources. The time and resources that were lost may have been in the form of the cheater **stealing effort and taking away credit** from the victim. The ratio of such statements presented by respondents who felt cheating to be **wrong** compared to those who were **ambivalent** about cheating was 2:1.

The **emotional impact** of being the victim of a cheater was relatively insubstantial by virtue of the small number of statements classified in this way. The **emotional impact** of being the victim

of a cheater included being hurt, upset, let down, having a knock to the confidence and having trust broken. For example:

“... it can hurt your friends, make your teachers not trust you and make you into a person who is lazy and with no self-respect.” (Year 9, female)

The above statement referred directly to the **emotional impact** of broken trust (for teachers) as well as a second **emotional impact** of hurt. Also referred to was a subsequently discussed issue of **self-injury**.

“I think that cheating your friends in school is even worse because the friend would have trusted you and valued you highly.” (Year 8, female)

This second statement however, was slightly different in that it did not directly refer to the impact reported by a victim. Instead an **emotional impact** was inferred; if cheating takes place trust is broken (*the friend would have trusted you*) and this is not good (*worse*).

The remaining impact statements affecting the victim of a cheater centred around the **victim impact statement** of cheating as **unfair**:

“It is unfair to cheat due to others who work hard but have scores reflected by cheaters.” (Year 7, Male)

As in the statement above, **unfair** was frequently used as a summary description of the impact of cheating on the victim. On many occasions **unfair** was qualified with a preceding or subsequent explanatory context, whilst on others, the brief ‘it is unfair’ was deemed a sufficient explanation by respondents.

There were many more **wrong** respondents than **ambivalent** respondents that gave pure **unfair** statements (28 vs. 6). However the ratio of **wrong** to **ambivalent** respondents presenting *qualifiers* of **unfair** were roughly equal. Where there was a small difference, it was in the direction of the **wrong** respondents giving a greater number of *qualifiers*.

The qualifications of **unfair** were firstly, cheating as **devaluing achievement**:

“It does annoy me because when you see that they are copying you and have done the same you feel as though you haven’t achieved anything.” (Year 8, female)

and

"If someone is trying extremely hard in an exam and they don't do very well, there may be another person who is cheating and does really well. This person does not deserve to get a good mark." (Year 10, female)

In both of these extracts, the respondents described how the cheater took the effort that they had invested in the assessment and de-valued it by getting better marks.

Stealing effort and taking away credit was the subject of the second qualification of **unfair**. It should be noted that effort and credit were allied to the above qualification of **devaluing achievement**. The statement below illustrated the notion of effort being stolen:

"I think cheating is wrong, because people will have studied for hours and other people will cheat and get their answers." (Year 7, male)

In the following statement, however, the notion of effort (*trying very hard*) was combined with the action of the cheater taking the credit-for-work away from the victim. Credit for some respondents did not have to be the denial of good grades. In this instance credit referred to doing one's best.

"Someone who's not very clever might get all the questions to a test right because of cheating while someone might be trying very hard but not get many right so the cheater will get all the credit. (Year 7, female)

Following on from **stealing effort and taking away credit**, there was a variation of the theme of the lost effort and achievement that students put into their work, that of **ownership**. The negative impact of cheating on the victims was for some expressed simply as **unfair** because it was 'not your work':

"Looking at answers of another person in an exam is wrong because it is not your own work and you are graded/ marked for copying which isn't fair." (Year 8, female)

The same concept was expressed by another respondent to emphasise the **emotional impact** thus:

"... you didn't pass on your own merit, you abused someone else's trust and took their answers." (Year 9, female)

References to the **ownership** of work were only made in relation to the person. For example, respondents could have written about copying from a text book in relation to **ownership** issues. However, the statements referred only to incidents involving other people. It was this

cheater-victim relationship that qualified the articulation of **ownership** as a **victim impact statement**.

Another very real impact of cheating for the victim was the potential to be the centre of a **false accusation** of cheating and thus 'get into trouble'. One respondent recalled an incident where his brother nearly became a victim of a miscarriage of justice:

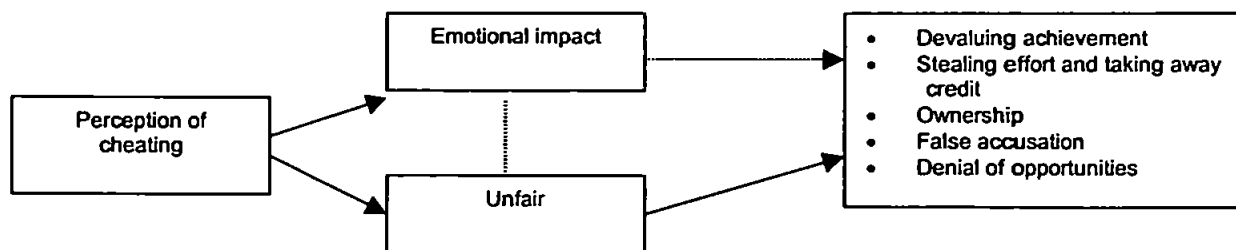
"This happened to my brother in college he lent his friend some work to catch up on and his friend copied it word for word and my brother almost failed his NVQ level 2 stage grade. (Year 10, male)

The fifth and final qualification of **unfair** on the victims' of cheating was the **denial of opportunities**. Through cheating, opportunities both academic and non-academic were perceived as being denied to those students who chose not to cheat.

"It could change someone's life and take away an opportunity that someone else deserves e.g., a job needs a B+. A person who cheated undeservingly got that job instead of someone who didn't cheat." (Year 10, male)

The categories relating to the **effect of cheating on others** can be summarised in figure 5.4.2

Figure 5.4.2. The diagrammatic representation of the effect of cheating on others.



In figure 5.4.2, the hard lines represented the strongest association between categories, whilst the broken lines represented associations that were weaker. For example, the line between **unfair** and the five categories (on the right hand-side) of **effects of cheating on others** was opaque because the five properties were *strongly* related to **unfair**. The categories served as an *explanation* of **unfair**. However, the categories could also be used to further explain the **emotional impact** of cheating. This relationship was presented as 'weaker' because the relationship occurred

less frequently in the data. It must be clearly stated that the use of the line hardness is not a reflection of the perceived *importance* by respondents of the relationships between the categories.

B. Victim impact statements: the effect of cheating on the perpetrator

There were three impacts of cheating on the perpetrator. These impacts were delineated by the presence or absence of academic consequences. The first type of impact related to the negative personal impact effected by the people around the cheater (**injury by others**) and the second to the personal impact of cheating on the cheater by themselves (**self-injury**). The third type of impact referred to academic injury caused to the cheater by themselves (**negative academic consequences**)

(i) Injury by others

Two straightforward victim impacts were reported by some respondents to occur to cheaters. The first was a **loss of friends** and the second was the gaining of a **bad reputation**:

"People who think cheating is fine and socially acceptable are not worth knowing."
(Year 10, female)

and

"If someone kept on cheating then they would have no friends and no-one would trust them." (Year 8, female)

Both of the above statements referred to cheating resulting in a **loss of friends**. The first statement described the loss of potential friends. The year 10 respondent was perhaps talking about how they chose friends and that they would not choose to have a cheater as a friend. The second statement was more general and may describe a rule of thumb that the year 8 respondent employed. Whilst few respondents gave the **loss of friends** as an explanation for why cheating in secondary school was wrong, **loss of friends** was frequently linked to a longer term consequence of cheating, that of repeated cheating (*if someone kept on cheating then...*).

The following two statements are illustrative of the cheater getting a **bad name**. The first statement was another example of how cheating can be viewed as having more than one impact. In the previous section of **the effect of cheating on others** the multiple impacts or outcomes were on the victim of the cheater (refer back to figure 5.4.2). This time the multiple impacts are on the actual cheater:

"Also I think that the person who is doing the cheating isn't doing themselves any good, because if they get caught cheating, it will go on their school report and word will get around and the person wouldn't be trusted and will more than less likely be disliked by other people." (Year 9, female)

Here reference was not made directly to getting a bad name (as it is in the second statement below). Rather, it was the phrase '*word will get round*' that warranted the inclusion of the statement (within its context) in this category.

"In a test if you cheat and get found out then you will be given a bad name and you won't be able to get rid of it." (Year 8, female)

The category of **injury by others** was very small by comparison to the other two categories in this section. However, equal numbers of male and female respondents gave statements that referred to being hurt by others (n=12).

(ii) Self injury

Two main consequences were perceived by the respondents to impact directly on the cheater on a personal level. Firstly, the cheating was perceived as **cheating the self**. Secondly, there was the less frequently mentioned **emotional fallout** associated with that cheating. The **emotional fallout** of cheating was an expansion of the description of what **cheating the self** could refer to or lead to. Twice as many **wrong** respondents referred to **cheating the self** as did **ambivalent** respondents. This was similar to the ratio of **wrong** to **ambivalent** respondents who said that cheating was **unfair**. It appeared that the **wrong** respondents gave general statements of effect, whereas if **ambivalent** respondents gave statements, they tended to be the qualifiers. This may have been as previously mentioned because **ambivalent** respondents felt a need to qualify their statements about cheating. They may have felt that their overall standpoint on cheating may be perceived negatively and that this was a way of demonstrating empathy with the socially desirable view point (cheating is wrong). Alternatively it may simply have been a reflection once more of the high numbers of females who tended to write more. Those respondents that wrote more were more likely to present qualifiers and arguments that were of greater depth.

"The only one that you are cheating is yourself." (Year 7, Male)

and

"Cheating in school isn't wrong but if you cheat by copying someone's work you are only cheating yourself." (Year 9, Male)

In this second statement, the male respondent made it clear that cheating in and of itself was not wrong but that cheaters should be prepared to take the consequences of that cheating.

The **emotional fallout** of cheating was restricted to the cheater letting themselves down, feeling bad, feeling guilty and in a few instances, becoming addicted or making cheating a habit which was hard to break.

"Cheating is good for you in the first place but then you get upset cause its not your own achievement." (Year 7, Male)

and

"If you cheat you feel awful in the long run. You will feel guilty and angry that you actually did cheat." (Year 9, Female)

and

"Sometimes when you cheat once you can't stop and you can get addicted to it." (Year 8, Male)

(iii) **Negative academic consequences on the cheater**

The **negative academic consequences** that were perceived to occur by respondents to the cheater were varied and extensive. Varied, in terms of the broad range of impacts that cheating could have in academia. Extensive, in terms of the length of time which cheating could negatively impact on the cheaters' life. There were three forms of **negative academic consequences**. These were **immediate or springboard academic consequences**, **longer term academic consequences** and the **prevention of learning**. The relationship between these three categories is explored after each has been outlined.

(a) **Immediate or springboard academic consequences**

This category contained the impacts of cheating that the respondents perceived as certainties. This category was originally linked with the **fear angel** argument from the **pre-decisional reminder** phase. However as mentioned these angel arguments were associated with potential and risk (the potential of being caught and the risk of being caught). The **springboard consequences** were presented as *fâit accompli*. For example,

"If you do cheat in an exam or even in a lesson **you will get found out** if you have copied the person next to you because they will have the same marks as you and they will have the right questions that you got wrong. So you will get caught." (Year 7, Female) [emphasis added]

demonstrated the perception that some respondents held that cheaters *will* get caught and *will* get into trouble (a certainty).

A more pressing and more widely voiced result of cheating was felt by **wrong** respondents to be the masking of the cheater's academic ability. Masking of ability could be a form of self-deception as in the following statements by a year 10 male and a year 7 female:

"Yes, I do believe that cheating in school is wrong. If you cheat you do not show your true ability in a test for example." (Year 10, Male)

and

"If you copied someone else's work, you won't know what question you need practice." (Year 7, Female)

or it could also be in the form of masking your ability from teachers:

"If you don't know answers and facts about the subject, but the teachers think you do, they will never be able to monitor your progress correctly and you sometimes won't get the help that you need." (Year 9, Female)

It was these masking statements that formed the main **springboard consequences** across to the **longer term academic consequences** and the **prevention of learning**.

(b) Longer term academic consequences

The **longer term academic consequences** were grouped into four settings. The first was nearer in 'time' to the majority of the respondents (under GCSE age) and referred to **future settings** for academic subjects. The second took the proximity closer to the senior end of school and referenced **public examinations**, whereas the third looked beyond the scope of school to the world of **employment**. Finally, there were a few references made to **long term consequences** in the absence of a specific academic setting.

Future settings were perceived as very important to the respondents. Cheaters could sabotage themselves by creating more harm than good:

"Cheating is very bad because it's only for you to do an exam it is so the teacher can see what level you're at in what lesson if you cheat it will be harder in the lesson because you're at a higher level than you should be at." (Year 9, Male)

In this statement, the year 9 male highlighted two **negative academic consequences** of cheating which were 1) being put in a teaching group which was more advanced (*because you're at a higher level*) 2) than the student could cope with (*it will be harder in the lesson*).

The year 8 female below took this notion of finding work harder because of cheating and 'flipped' it over to present double consequences:

"They could be put in a higher class due to them cheating and have to struggle with the standard of work. Or vice versa: the person they copied from could have got something wrong. You could be put into a lower class and be bored with the class because it is too easy. This would not be trying enough for the person." (Year 8, Female)

Public examinations were described as the goals of being at school. Cheating was seen by some respondents to impact heavily on success and failure in **public examinations**. For example, cheating could make revision for **public examinations** more difficult:

"It stops people using their own brain to do work and if you get into the habit of cheating it would be hard to learn to revise for A levels and GCSEs." (Year 7, Female)

Cheating could also trip-up the cheater because some respondents perceived cheating to be impossible in **public examinations**:

"I also think this is wrong as when you come to A-levels and GCSEs ... you wouldn't be able to cheat in these exams as they are so tightly controlled." (Year 8, Female)

The impact of cheating on **employment** was similar to that of **future settings**. Respondents perceived that knowledge that was learned in school was very relevant to what was needed and used in the world of work:

"If you get a high score and you've cheated then you might get in a group that is too hard for you and it's the same with jobs." (Year 7, Female)

and

"If you cheat and do really well and get into a really good job that your exam results helped you get then you won't know what you're doing because you cheated and then you will look really stupid. You won't get a good job if you cheat because you won't know what to do or anything." (Year 10, Female)

Finally, to close this category, the general **long term consequences** are included for completeness:

"I think that cheating in school is wrong because it will not help you when you are older." (Year 8, Female)

C. Learning prevention

The **prevention of learning** was often presented as a reason why cheating was wrong. The prevention of learning was separated into the **specific context of prevention of learning** and the **general context of prevention of learning**. These statements expanded upon the impact of the **negative academic consequences** presented in the former two categories. In addition there were also links with other earlier forms of **victim impact statements**. Twice as many respondents who perceived cheating to be wrong wrote statements regarding the prevention of learning.

A **specific form** of the prevention of learning centred around the explicit loss of access to a piece of knowledge that would be required again at a later date. By cheating, the cheater would prevent him or herself from have multiple access opportunities to the piece of information:

"If you cheat then you are cheating yourself, because if there is another time when the question comes up then you won't know because you cheated earlier on in life." (Year 9, Male)

"..e.g., if you copy homework and then get a test then wouldn't know what the answer is and will fail." (Year 10, Male)

General learning prevention centred around knowledge and the ability to learn in any form.

The cheating was discussed with reference to the wider implications than just a **specific test** or exam or cheating incident:

"The student you might be copying from might have the answer wrong anyway but you wouldn't understand the question so you wouldn't learn!!" (Year 7, Female)

and

"If you want to cheat make sure it is for the right reasons and not because you want to get out of doing work because that way you don't learn." (Year 9, Male)

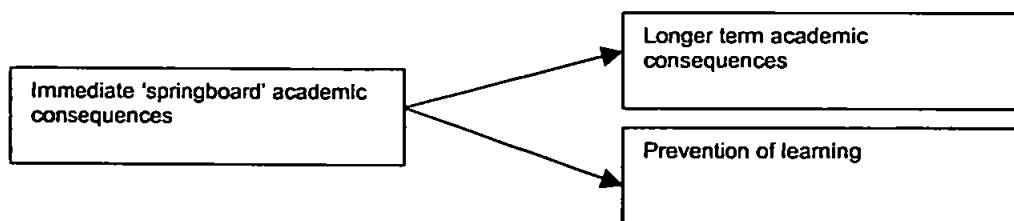
and

"... I think that here is more to it than that because although at the time you think you are gaining something, in the long run you may be losing, in that if I was doing an exam, and copied an answer from the girls next to me, although I might get it right, I wouldn't actually know how to work it out, no I wouldn't have gained anything except for a slightly better mark." (Year 9, Female)

The statements in the general category picked up on a theme that ran through the corpus, that of understanding. Understanding was very important in the decision not to cheat. Many respondents felt that the purpose of education was to promote understanding of the academic materials covered. Understanding was in itself a positive springboard to further learning. At several points in the 'decision' model of cheating, understanding played an important role in determining whether cheating was perceived as right or wrong.

The relationship between the three categories of **negative academic consequences** are explored more fully here. These impacts were interrelated in the following way given in figure 5.4.3:

Figure 5.4.3. The relationship between the three categories of negative academic consequences



In the figure above, springboard consequences led to both longer term academic consequences and the prevention of learning. However in the corpus, springboard consequences did not always have to lead to longer term academic consequences or the prevention of learning. The pathway could stop at the springboard consequences, could miss out the springboard consequences all together or could conversely, pass through all three consequences.

The relationship between the **longer term academic consequences** and the **prevention of learning** was, like many previous categories an expansion relationship. The **prevention of learning** was a mechanism through which respondents expressed an overall impact of cheating on academia. The **prevention of learning** was expressed in many different ways and inter-linked with **longer term academic consequences**. However, whilst the two categories shared

commonalties, they also served distinct purposes for respondents in their explanation of why cheating in school was right or wrong.

The relationship between **longer term academic consequences** and the **prevention of learning** may be best explained by describing one of the possible pathways through the **negative academic consequences**. There were many pathways that respondents employed to describe the impact of cheating on the cheater. Like many of the themes describing whether or not cheating in school is wrong, respondents perceived cheaters (overall) to 'pick and mix' the finer details of the **negative academic consequences**. The implication here was that an individual cheater could enter the **negative academic consequences** at one of several points and exit at one of several points. For example, a respondent may have perceived that the extent of the impact of cheating may be the dual consequences of being caught and not learning anything. These two consequences of cheating originated at different points in the **negative academic consequences (springboard consequences and prevention of learning)**.

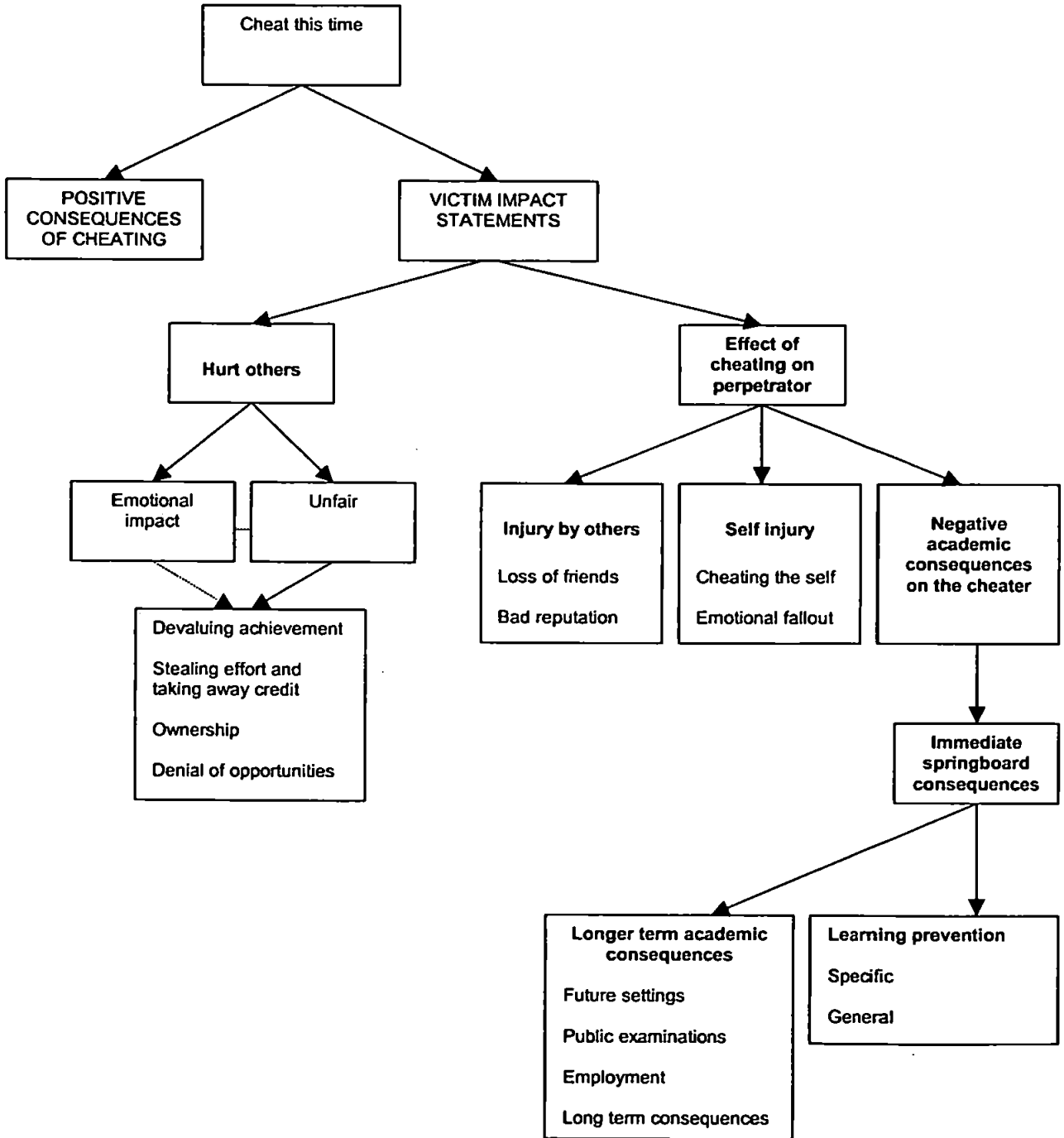
However, when the corpus of material relating to **negative academic consequences** was condensed and treated as a unified description of this one aspect of cheating, a different and more serious picture emerged.

Taken together, the **negative academic consequences** read as a 'forecast' of a potential spiral of severity that was a worst case scenario. Respondents who wrote a greater amount in response to the stimulus question were those who were more likely to employ the spiral of severity. Whereas the respondents who wrote less, whilst they too used statements that went from 'bad to worse' (as in the above example of being caught leading to the **prevention of learning**), the spiral was much shorter (temporally) and less dramatic. A worst-case scenario pathway might be as follows:

Cheating could begin with masking the cheater's ability from the teacher. In the corpus, this was a **springboard consequence** that often led to **longer term consequences**. In particular, the cheater may have been grouped in a setting which was too hard for the him or her to cope with. In order to cope the cheater may have had to cheat again. Any knowledge that the cheater had gained was false and was not permanently stored in his or her head. Cheating therefore led to **specific and general prevention of learning**. This may have meant that **public examinations** would be more difficult to deal with and should the cheater progress into **employment** they would not know how to complete the tasks they would have been set.

As a final explanation of how all of the **victim impact statements** fitted into the model, the following figure (5.4.4) depicts the typical relationships between the categories, sub-categories and properties as they were discussed above.

Figure 5.4.4. The consequences of cheating 'this time'



Reflection on the organisation of the effect of cheating on the perpetrator

The decision to delineate the effect of cheating on the perpetrator according to academic and non-academic consequences may have partially obscured a form of commonality.

The commonality was between the injury the cheaters caused themselves (self injury) and the injury caused to other people (effect of cheating on others) outlined at the beginning of the section on **victim impact statements**.

A consequence of a crime that affects the offender is technically not a **victim impact statement**. This is because it is the 'offenders' victims' who are the authors of such statements and not the offender. Therefore, any categories which described consequences impacting on the cheater, should be isolated from the impacts of cheating on other people. However, there was a clear relationship between the *cheated* as victims and the *cheater* as a victim, as evidenced through the two categories of **self-injury** and **injury by others**. Taken together, the **self-injury** statements were a presentation of cheating as a form of self-sabotage:

"I think cheating is wrong because it can hurt everyone involved. If someone copies their friends answers in a test, this hurts the friend because they are the one doing the hard work and it hurts the cheater too because they re not learning what they are supposed to learn." (Year 9, Female)

and

"I think that people only cheat when they are anxious about getting something correct as if it wasn't important to them to do well then they wouldn't feel the need to cheat." (Year 10, Female)

The two statements above begin with a loss of learning for the victim of cheating, followed by emotional suffering that results from cheating. The second statement casts the cheater in the role of a 'victim of education'.

For this reason, it was decided to widen the definition of the **victim impact statement** to include the **effect of cheating on the perpetrator** (for example, **prevention of learning** as a form of self-sabotage). However, the effects of **self-injury** were linked with the **negative academic consequences**. By the same reasoning, if **self-injury** was a form of **victim impact** then so too must be the **negative academic consequences**.

6. Positive consequences of cheating

The process of open-coding involved the dimensionalisation and saturation of individual categories. One process in particular (the 'flip flop' inversion technique) that formed part of the dimensionalising of categories was fundamental to the development of the **positive consequences of cheating**. Four consequences were identified:

Positive consequences of cheating
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional benefits • Educational benefits • Further the cheater's educational career • Work avoidance

The 'flip-flop' inversion technique of looking at text units from diametrically opposite view points resulted in the emergence of a series of **positive consequences of cheating**. For example, one frequently occurring reason as to why cheating in school was perceived to be wrong was that the cheater received better grades than the person from whom they had copied and that this was unfair. By flipping this text unit over, it could be *inferred* that a positive consequence of cheating (for the cheater) was improved grades.

In order to validate this assumption, the researcher would need to seek verification of this hypothesis by returning to the population. However, as this was not possible, examples of actual positive consequences of cheating were identified within the corpus to provide a source of triangulation for the hypothesis. Further, subsequent (and only subsequent) to the analysis, literature regarding the validity of the hypothesis could be identified.

One respondent in particular provided some support for the hypothesis that there were positive consequences of cheating:

"No! cheating in a test helps you boost your grades!
 Cheating in SAT gets you into higher sets
 Cheating in a job interview gets you a job!
 Cheating on a girl friend gets a better time

However, after this affirmation of cheating, at the bottom of the page there was:

...This stinks!" (Year 10, Male)

What stank is unknown! The respondent's response or the researcher's questionnaire?! Nevertheless, this qualification meant that the text had to be treated with a certain amount of caution and could only be used as weak form of support for the hypothesis. There were few other direct examples of first hand positive consequences of cheating. These examples formed the core of the **positive consequences of cheating** categories with the inverted (flipped) statements providing hypothetical support.

The respondents for whom cheating could be both right and wrong were more likely to have provided statements that were direct examples of **positive consequences of cheating**. The statements of this group of respondents were more argumentative. Respondents appeared to be trying to persuade the reader of the legitimacy of their standpoint. For example:

"If you were in an exam and you had a mental block then looked at somebody else's paper and you suddenly think 'Oh I get it' and it all comes rushing back to you this is a form of cheating, maybe not so bad as copying straight from somebody else, but it is cheating." (Year 9, Female)

This respondent acknowledged copying as a form of cheating and that there was a positive benefit which was educationally profitable. The profitability related to being able to access all of the hard work and effort that had gone into revision. This in turn deemed the cheating 'not so bad'. The respondents who chose to discuss cheating as **wrong** were more likely to use superficial arguments relating to the victim impact statements of **unfairness or longer term consequences**:

"When it comes to classes and subjects - if someone in that class cheated and got a very good mark and everyone else didn't cheat and their marks were lower - that would be unfair. So it is wrong." (Year 9, Female)

When these sentiments were inverted to act as supporting statements to the **positive academic consequences**, it may be suggested that cheating led to **better grades**. Very few respondents in this group (who felt that cheating was **wrong**) used persuasive arguments, like the statement below that related to the wider purpose of education:

"Although I agree that this is cheating, I think that there is more to it than that because although at the time you think you are gaining something, in the long run you may be losing, in that if I was doing an exam, and copied an answer from the girls next to me, although I might get it right, I wouldn't actually know how to work it out, no I wouldn't have gained anything except for a slightly better mark." (Year 9, Female)

This year 9 female was confident about what she classed as cheating, but accepted that there could be people who felt differently from her about cheating. The positive consequence in this instance was *gaining something*. Any gains were tempered by a larger loss of educational benefit.

The most pervasive difference between this rarer empathic approach and the statements relating to **better grades** was that those respondents who felt that cheating was **wrong** were more likely to explore in their writing, the hurt to themselves as victims. Becoming or being a victim was

the end point of cheating. The focus of their discourse was the consequences to themselves (and the cheater) that were negative.

The respondents who were **ambivalent** towards cheating mentioned the processes of education, (the steps involved in getting to grips with learning and motivation) which happened to use cheating. Only one **wrong** respondent mentioned educational processes. Thus it made sense for the former group of respondents who were ambivalent about cheating to provide the main core of statements regarding the **positive consequences of cheating**.

To begin with, therefore, the direct statements which the respondents employed to demonstrate the **positive consequences of cheating** (non-inverted) are presented. Respondents wrote about the **emotional benefits** to be gained from cheating. These **emotional benefits** read as causes for cheating and appeared elsewhere in categories of the perceived **causes of cheating**.

In the first statement below, the **emotional benefits** of cheating were reported by the respondents to be not looking small and winning:

"You may cheat because you don't want to look small, you may cheat cause you have to win and can't lose." (Year 10, Female)

In the second statement, impression management was more in evidence:

"Some people who have never done anything wrong in their life cheat for good reasons:

1. Their parents - who think they are boffin.
2. Their friends - are smarter than them.
3. Teachers - they don't want to seem stupid." (Year 9, Female)

In this final statement the male year 7 respondent communicated the **emotional benefit** of not feeling worried when confronted with difficult work:

"I think cheating though sometimes may be good for you because you would not get worried when you have to do work what you can't do." (Year 7, Male)

Positive consequences of cheating also included **educational benefits**. These frequently related to being able to understand material:

"I also think that cheating should be allowed in the class because if people are writing the right answers they will learn them and become more knowledgeable." (Year 10, Male)

and

"I only cheat when I don't understand and I can't be bothered to asked a teacher but if I understand then I will do it by myself." (Year 9, Male)

In the following statement the **educational benefits** were more than just understanding, they included inspiration:

"I think it is OK to look at someone else's work or to ask someone if you need inspiration or don't understand ..." (Year 9, Male)

The remaining **positive consequences of cheating** were more often than not taken from a third person perspective and relied heavily on inverting what the respondent said to *infer* how they may have perceived cheaters to benefit from cheating. Where possible, however, the statements that were in the first person have been used to illustrate these **positive consequences**.

Cheating was perceived to be **fun**, to result in **better grades to further the cheaters' educational career** and be a tactic used to **avoid work**. The following year 7 respondent gave her view of how she perceived others might feel about cheating:

"Some people think cheating's fun and worth it but its not in the long run you will feel guilty..." (Year 7, Female)

Whereas the year 10 female below inferred what benefits (**better grades**) a cheater might gain if a particular need to cheat arose:

"Sometimes people use cheating as a way out if they aren't getting the marks they need to get and are finding work difficult." (Year 10, Female)

The respondent below described a paradox where cheating *and* not cheating could have both positive *and* negative benefits:

"If I cheated on a test and so got an 'A' grade and I knew someone who worked well/hard and only got a 'B' grade, I would feel bad, however if I hadn't cheated and only got a C' grade I would have felt worse." (Year 10, Female)

In the next statement the cheater was described as getting into the top set for a subject. By flipping the meaning over, it *may* be inferred that this was the outcome the cheater wanted to achieve:

"This was a big test to decided which level class we were on next year, it ended up with her in the top!! " (Year 7, Female)

Statements relating to **furthering the cheaters' academic career** included the following where the cheating was deemed necessary to prevent a 'career blockage':

"Sometimes although cheating is wrong it can give someone a job when they pass their exams rather than if they failed they would end up in the streets." (Year 9, Female)

However, in the statement below, the respondent inferred that they felt that some cheaters cheated to '*get somewhere*':

"I think if it's just classwork it doesn't matter. If you're cheating to get somewhere it's wrong." (Year 10, Female)

Although it is not possible to infer whether getting somewhere was a **positive consequence** for the cheater, it cannot be ruled out, without further investigation. Particularly in light of the following statement from a year 10 male:

"I think that cheating is not wrong it is wrong in a test or exam, but on the whole you have to cheat to get places. Everyone cheats so you have to." (Year 10, Male)

In this statement the respondent was perhaps inoculating the socially undesirable affirmation of cheating by suggesting that cheating was a necessity foisted on him by circumstances outside of his control (*everyone cheats so you have to*). The resultant positive consequence in this instance was an explicit reference to **furthering the cheater's academic career**.

The same caution was required for **work avoidance** where again, inferences were been made about the **positive consequences of cheating**:

"If you want to cheat make sure it is for the right reasons and not because you want to get out of doing work because that way you don't learn." (Year 9, Male)

and

"I don't think that is fair because that 1 person is taking the easy route out of getting on with their own work." (Year 11, Female)

In both of the above statements it was harder for the researcher to perceive **work avoidance** as a **positive consequence of cheating**. This was because of the personal philosophy held by the researcher regarding the purpose of education. For example, **work avoidance** in the mind of the researcher inevitably led to **negative consequences** associated with

the **prevention of learning**, as it did in the first statement above (that way you don't learn). However, using the technique of bracketing the researcher is in a way given permission to entertain notions that do not sit comfortably with his or her own viewpoints. This meant that it was not good practice to exclude the idea that students viewed **work avoidance** as a benefit, even if this was felt to be illogical or impractical. Further, when the researcher thought about education from the perspective of being a participant of school age, incidents of the researcher's own cheating associated with **work avoidance** as a **positive consequence** (perhaps laziness) were recalled!

7. The profile of a cheater

The **positive consequences** of cheating was a category comprising actual and hypothetical statements relating to the benefits of cheating. The **profile of a cheater** was a similar category. During the reading of the corpus and the open-coding stage of the analysis concrete statements were identified that related to cheating. These were the actual statements that explicitly referred to aspects of cheating. There were also abstract ideas that were presented as between-the-lines issues relating to cheating. These between-the-line issues were those for which there was little support within the corpus, but for which there was hypothetical support. The hypothetical support was gained through the use of techniques for enhancing theoretical sensitivity (see 5.3.1).

The corpus was used for an exploration of the picture that respondents held of a typical cheater. The essence of the **victim impact statements** and **positive consequences** of cheating were used to achieve this. The word 'essence' has been used because essence refers to 'the inner distinctive nature of anything; the qualities that make an object what it is' (Chambers Dictionary, 1997).

The **profile of a cheater** referred to more than personality characteristics, although this was the mainstay of the profile. There were three main components of the cheater profile. Other components existed as clusters of infrequent statements. Again, it should be pointed out that frequency whilst important in providing support for a category was not the only factor taken into account. This was particularly so for this category which existed largely *in potentia*.

Evidence that a cheater's profile could be substantiated from within the corpus began with the following statement by a year 10 female:

"It's not going to get you anywhere in life and if you need to cheat it says something about you." (Year 10, Female)

Cheating 'says something about you'. From this statement, the question 'what does it say about you?' followed. The answer came from inverting statements and third person reflections about cheaters given by respondents.

The three main components of the **profile of a cheater** were **affective, behavioural and cognitive** (intelligence). Each of these conceptual labels were used in the loosest sense of the word. They held together apparently disparate clusters of statements!

(a) Affective

Affective properties of the profile of a cheater referred to the emotional properties assigned to a cheater. For example, affective could refer to feeling unhappy, sad or stressed. It also referred to how much confidence a cheater possessed and how other people (loyalty and trust) would see them.

"Also it is a sign that people are either under stress or they are emotionally upset or they are lazy" (Year 7, Female)

This year 7 female perceived cheating to be a surface representation of part of the person that was not otherwise identifiable. Cheating denoted underlying traits of stress, upset and the behavioural manifestation of laziness. The range of options that cheating could be a sign for suggested that cheaters were a heterogeneous group. Indeed, reading through the documents of each respondent, the **profile of a cheater** came across as series of zig-zag lines. The zig-zag lines denoted how much of each property the cheater possessed, much in the same way that an MMPI would detail personality traits producing a profile for each individual.

"Cheating in school can lead to more serious things like not having any confidence in yourself and not feeling that anything you do is right." (Year 8, Female)

Here again, the respondent referred to an underlying trait that may have been more or less identifiable to outsiders than the previous set of traits. In the following two statements however, an explicit reference to the **profile of a cheater** was made:

"I think you have to be quite a coward to cheat because you should own up and tell someone that you are having difficulty understanding." (Year 9, Female).

and

"If you cheat you are a selfish person. This is because you don't care about anyone else but yourself." (Year 10, Female)

(b) Behavioural

Behavioural properties of the profile of a cheater referred to the absence of work and the presence of laziness. These behaviours were mostly inferred from statements. However, the first two examples below, give explicit examples of the behavioural properties:

"I reckon people who cheat are lazy." (Year 11, Male)

and

"It is wrong because if you cheat it proves that you're lazy, can't be bothered and that you don't listen in lessons." (Year 10, Female)

In the third statement below, an inference of a behavioural aspect of the cheater profile has been made:

"If other people can't be bothered to take time and revise and then someone sits down next to them and copies what they write, I would feel extremely upset because the person who is cheating will get the results etc. ..." (Year 9, Female)

The person who cheated in this instance (*the person who is cheating*) was described in reference to people who do not carry out the behaviours associated with passing a test on their own merit (*other people can't be bothered*). An assumption has therefore been made that the respondent viewed the cheater as lazy. This assumption cannot be tested in relation to this individual, but it can be tested by looking to the corpus to find examples of respondents who did make behavioural claims about cheaters, as in the year 10 female example above.

(c) Cognitive

The cognitive properties of the profile of a cheater related to perceptions of (or lack of) ability and intelligence. These were bound up in confidence and worry, which were closely related to the affective properties. For example, in the following statement, a respondent described how a cheater may feel about his or her ability:

"I think that people who cheat may feel as if their work isn't good enough or up to scratch so they may use a person they class as clever to do their work for them." (Year 9, Female)

Allusions to both confidence (**affective**) and **cognitive** properties were made. The cheater it was suggested may rely on someone of greater ability than him or herself. The theme of confidence in the cheaters' ability is continued in the words of a year 10 female:

"If you get somewhere by cheating, you will always wonder if you'd been intelligent enough in the first place." (Year 10, Female)

The **cognitive** properties were stretched to include the more off-the-wall comments about intelligence or behaving in an intelligent manner:

"If you cheat you are very silly and have no brains to think your self, you would be very stupid and will get caught out when you are older." (Year 8, gender unknown)

and

"Some people think that they are to stupid to do well, but everyone can achieve what they need." (Year 8, Female)

Other properties of the **profile of a cheater** described the cheater as not being a nice person or being open to temptation (a character flaw) and open to addiction. In addition, there were a few comments about cheaters being lucky.

"It can also turn you into a nasty person if you do it regularly and not as a joke." (Year 7, Female)

and

"I have cheated before but I luckily didn't get found out about it. So I was lucky" (Year 9, Male)

and

"On the other hand if you cheat all of the time when it comes to your exams you will feel dependent on the other person ..." (Year 10, Female)

and

"I think lots of people are tempted to cheat. It's very easy to do. But I would hope that these people have enough self-control to resist this temptation." (Year 9, Female)

The **profile of a cheater** therefore could be seen as one which relied heavily on personality characteristics or abstract properties. **Affective** and **cognitive** components could not

be directly observed, but were inferred (confidence, stress), whilst the **behavioural** component could be observed through an absence of effort and application to studies (laziness). In particular the **behavioural** component came directly from within the cheater, i.e., the cheater had to avoid work, had to be lazy and was characterised by an absence of activity. No intervention (e.g., help from others) was required in order for the cheater to possess this property.

The **profile of a cheater** sits in contrast to the **positive consequences** of cheating. The **positive consequences** of cheating were in the most part concrete effects that could be easily measured and observed (e.g., **better grades**). These positive observable properties differed from the observable property of **behavioural**. In order to exist, the property of a **better grade** for example, required the intervention or action (copying, getting someone else to do the work).

Only a few aspects of the **positive consequences** of cheating were personality based (**emotional**), which were continuum opposites with some of the **affective** and **cognitive** properties of the **profile of a cheater**. Therefore, whilst it would be convenient to create a **profile of a cheater** that was largely positive, based on all of the **positive consequences**, it would not be equivalent to the **profile of a cheater** that has been given here. What was possible, based on the above reasoning and the evidence, was a direct contrasting of the **affective**, **behavioural** and **cognitive** components.

8. The positive consequences of not cheating

The **positive consequences** of not cheating were not particularly explicitly represented in the corpus. This may have been because of the way in which the question was worded. '*Is cheating in school wrong?*' typically led to responses of '*it is wrong because ...*' followed by punitive consequences. The word 'wrong' may have been a powerful source of a fixed response set. For example, if the question had been, '*Why should students not cheat?*', responses may have included more positive statements because the negative stimulus word ('wrong') was absent. Only 18 respondents wrote statements that could be classed as direct examples of a positive benefit of not cheating.

Positive consequences of not cheating were included for the same reason that **positive consequences** of cheating were included. During analysis of the corpus using the inversion technique and methods of questioning, it became evident that not to cheat led to the creation of some kind of moral being, in whom the individual could take pride.

The statements for this category came from the **pre-decisional reminders** that were the **angel statements of educational philosophy**. As before, with the consequence of cheating, a few respondents made explicit references to positive consequences of not cheating:

"You should take a guess because at least it will be you own work and what ever result you get you should be proud of because its your own work and you didn't cheat." (Year 7, Female)

Younger participants were more likely to suggest that not to cheat would lead to a sense of personal pride, whereas older respondents were more likely to suggest that marks gained may be better through not cheating. However, once again, this hypothesis of an age difference was speculative and could not be substantiated from these data alone.

9. Prevention points

Many respondents included statements that referred to suggestions for preventing cheating. Some of these suggestions were bound up in an explanation of the causes of cheating and were empathic. Other statements were written in a punitive tone. Nearly all of the statements were linked to particular points within the model. In order to reflect the relationship between the decision making process (to cheat or not to cheat) and the prevention of cheating, **two prevention points** were included in the model. The numbers of respondents referring to prevention strategies were small. Where the numbers were particularly small, 'n^s' have been given. Overall, however, roughly equal numbers of **ambivalent** and **wrong** respondents wrote **prevention point** statements.

The term **prevention point** was coined to reflect some respondents' views that cheating was indeed preventable if the cheater so wished it. Each **prevention point** had a similar purpose to the **pre-decisional reminder** phase where cheaters had the opportunity to weigh up the pros and cons of cheating in the decision about whether cheating was right or wrong. The difference between the **prevention points** and the **pre-decisional reminder** was (as would be expected), qualitative! The statements at each **prevention point** were *externally* imposed preventions. The **pre-decisional** reminder statements were more abstract. Some **pre-decisional** statements were *political positioning* statements used to justify cheating or not cheating and others were *internally* based philosophical arguments about why an individual should not feel the need to cheat.

(a) Prevention point 1

Prevention point 1 sat between the causes of cheating and the pre-decisional factors. Respondents acknowledged that cheating took place and gave suggestions for making cheating impossible by relying on system constraints. The system was used here to refer to constraints that authorities such as the school, teachers and parents should impose. That system constraints were required was voiced by a year 9 female:

"I think if cheating is happening in schools and in the system on exams and tests, the system must be flawed because there are ways to prevent cheating." (Year 9, Female)

What those constraints should be were suggested by a number of respondents, all of whom were female:

"I would ban cheating all-together and make each student sit away from anyone else." (Year 7, Female)

The respondent above advocated a physical method of preventing cheating. The school assessment arrangement could be adjusted to reflect this. However, the following respondent, whilst advocating a similar prevention, made a link with the causes of cheating and suggested a more holistic approach to the problem of cheating:

"I think cheating can be solved by separate desks and personalised coaching to make people feel more confident about themselves." (Year 8, Female)

Emotional and personality factors featured in the causes of cheating. The year 8 female above suggested that these should be taken into account when preventing cheating. Like the suggestion of separate desks, coaching is an externally imposed prevention on the potential cheater. The empathic approach was taken on and championed by the following respondent:

"... but for the first person (cheater) there is no obvious way to help them. They would need motivation to revise and this is the job of parents (if their child can't motivate itself) ... People like this are not bad people, they just need a confidence boost and I doubt that they would continue cheat." (Year 9, Female)

The role of the parents as external motivators (*'if their child can't motivate itself'*) was presented alongside an understanding of how the causes of cheating could be used to prevent cheating (*'confidence boost'*).

A second method of prevention for this point in the model was somewhat paradoxical. A few (less than 15) respondents suggested that, in relation to the **assessment event** cheating was impossible and that it was the assessment itself that would prevent cheating. On the other hand, some suggested that it was impossible to prevent cheating:

"I do realise though that when it comes to exams they can't cheat so people are going to see through them." (Year 10, Female)

and

"People shouldn't pass an exam if they copied someone's work or coursework but I don't think there is a way of stopping it, even though if you are caught.....cheating there is a heavy punishment." (Year 9, Female)

These statements have been included at **prevention point 1** because they were associated with the assessment which was part of the **pre-decisional factors**. However, as was noted earlier, these kinds of comments may serve to perpetuate cheating and can be placed in the **perpetuation of cheating cycle** at the **pre-decisional reminder point**.

(b) Prevention point 2

Prevention point 2 was associated with preventing cheating *after* the fact. Suggestions for preventing further cheating included rehabilitation and redemption statements as well as statements advocating punishments. Fewer respondents advocated the rehabilitation and redemption stance compared to the punishment stance:

Of those respondents who felt that cheaters should be given a second chance (n=6), four were classed as viewing cheating as right and wrong, one as viewing cheating being right and one as viewing cheating as only wrong:

"If you are caught cheating there is a heavy punishment. I think people who are caught cheating should be given another chance, because they will most probably of been scared and won't do it again." (Year 9, Female)

Here once again, an externally imposed method of prevention (*punishment*) was referred to as being enough to reform the cheater. For the respondent who said that they viewed cheating as acceptable, the prevention required a little more interpretation and related back, once again, to understanding:

"I think cheating in school is a good thing if you feel it is what you have to do but if you have to cheat you obviously do not know how to do the work so you should go over the subject with the teacher again afterwards." (Year 11, Male)

Going over the work again with the teacher may have been this respondents' advocated way of reducing the need to cheat.

There were some respondents for whom a natural realisation that cheating was wrong was a sufficient preventative (n=4):

"People who cheat find out eventually that they did wrong and realise not to do it again because the person they cheated from may find out." (Year 7, Female)

What was not clear from the above statement was how the realisation occurred. It may have been through a form of punishment when the friend found out. The realisation, whatever the cause appeared to be externally triggered. Alternatively, as suggested below, personal discovery (prompted by the participation in this piece of research: respondents may have been given cause to evaluate their own behaviour in more detail than they would otherwise) may have taken place:

"... I know I made the wrong choice but I will know next time to make the right choice." (Year 10, Female)

Respondents who advocated punishments often referred to recognised system deterrents such as detentions or the dramatic ripping up of papers if the assessment was an exam for example. However, one respondent recognised that not all punishments were effective, primarily because of the interaction between the **assessment event** and the deterrent:

"If you did cheat in school, I think that the consequences are not very effective because all you get is an detention if you cheated on something small, but if you cheat on a exam it is something totally different you get the paper thrown in the bin. I don't know if you can do it again, but I think it would be way too harsh." (Year 8, Female)

The one male voice advocating a punishment simply suggested that:

"... anyone who does cheat shouldn't get a second chance." (Year 10, Male)

Other more explicit punishments of cheating were given. However, the following statement acknowledged the struggle between choosing to cheat again and choosing not to cheat:

"And if you cheat in a exam and the teacher sees you, you will get your paper ripped up and you'll get into a lot of trouble too. The first time you cheat makes it a lot easier to cheat." (Year 8, Female)

This statement highlighted once again, the cyclical nature with which cheaters and potential cheaters interacted with the model. It also demonstrated that the decision making process regarding cheating was not straightforward (linear).

5.5 Checking the model

As part of the process of checking the model, the data from the two subgroups (wrong and ambivalent) were re-read. It became evident, that for the **wrong** group of respondents, there were three different pathways. There were no similar groupings for the **ambivalent** group of respondents. In order to check these 'new' sub-groups and to assess the goodness of fit the **ambivalent** data the corpus was 're-sampled'. Examples of **wrong** sub-group respondent data are given in the following sections.

The first **wrong** group took an anti-cheating advisory stance and used several mechanisms for justifying why cheating was wrong and that cheating should not take place. For example, this group of respondents relied on moral arguments, arguing that cheating defeated the purpose of education, that cheating would not allow students to show their capabilities and that there would be an absence of learning and understanding.

5.5.1 Anti-cheating advisors pathway

The mechanisms that this first sub-group of respondents employed spanned the divide between the **pre-decisional reminders** and **victim impact statements**. The arguments were not after-the-fact reasons as to why cheating was wrong, rather the combination of cheating consequences and anti-cheating advice were all designed to make the potential cheater consider the merits of 'doing their best' (in an empathic way) before resorting to cheating.

The potential cheater, from the viewpoint of this first group of anti-cheating advisors began the model (like any other potential cheater) from the **start**. From here the potential cheater was guided towards the **pre-decisional reminders** about why cheating was wrong. At this point the **angel statements** relating to the advisors **moral stance** and **educational philosophy** in particular would be brought into play. For example, the advice given was that by cheating the potential cheater would be denying him or herself an education. If the potential cheater chose subsequently to cheat, then the consequences that they were perceived to fall foul of were not the most punitive or dramatic in the model. The cheater was perceived to experience a variety of **victim impact statements** that began with **self-injury**. The cheater experienced the **immediate springboard**

consequence of not showing his or her true capabilities. This led onto the **prevention of learning** by denying him or herself the opportunity to understand the material that he or she encountered as part of lessons. The **profile of the cheater** that emerged of the typical cheater for this group of respondents was one that had **affective and cognitive** deficits. The cheater was someone who was **untrustworthy** and who would doubt their own academic ability.

In order to assess how well the data was fitted to this pathway, examples of complete documents have been included to allow the reader to judge the validity of the sub-group.

"I think cheating in school is wrong and unfair it's not fair on other pupils. I haven't ever cheat before and I'm not just saying that I really haven't ever cheated. Some people think cheating's fun and worth it but its not in the long run you will feel guilty so it's best not to cheat what's the point. I don't know anyone who's cheated in school and I don't want to either especially if it's a friend." (Year 7, Female)

"I don't think that you should cheat as it is dishonest. You should do your work and your answers. So I do think that it is wrong to cheat. You might as well work with someone in a test if you cheat as it isn't your work. You don't actually know if they have got the answers right or not so why bother you might as well use your brain. It's to see if your good at that subject or not the tests are for your benefit so you can see where you need to improve. Its a part of life so tests prepare you to think for yourself. It is unfair to people as well especially if you get higher than them. It's best to use your brain and not to cheat." (Year 8, Female)

5.5.2 Negative consequences of cheating pathway

The second group of respondents for whom cheating was wrong took a backward approach to cheating. The consequences of cheating were the cause for the belief that cheating was wrong. These respondents relied on the negative consequences of cheating to outline what it was about cheating that made it wrong. The negative consequences were that the potential cheater would in some way hurt themselves (e.g., cheat themselves) and other people.

The typical pathway modelled for the cheater according to this second group of respondents, began after the decision to cheat had been made. The cheater went from **start** straight to the **victim impact statements**. The range of penalties that the cheater experienced used this part of the model to its fullest extent. The penalties were often experienced simultaneously. Whilst the cheater was shown to cheat themselves and incur a form of **self-injury** caused by self deception, they would also experience the **immediate springboard consequences** of not showing the teachers their true capabilities and of course, there was the belief that cheaters were always caught. From this the cheater could experience any or all of the longer term academic consequences such as being put in a set that was too high, through to being unable to revise for

their GCSEs because they had prevented themselves from learning because of cheating. In addition to all of the **self-injury** that the cheater experienced they would be inflicting a lot of negative consequences on others. The cheater could **hurt others** by making the educational process **unfair** and by having a **negative emotional impact** on the victim of cheating. The **profile of the cheater** at the end of this traumatic process was not flattering and presented the cheater as someone with **affective, behavioural and cognitive deficits** to his or her personality. For example, they would lack confidence, be perceived as lazy and as being someone of limited intelligence.

Again, a random sample of respondents were used to check the validity of this second sub-group of **wrong** respondents. Two of the documents are presented below:

"I think cheating in school is wrong because what's the point of the teachers teaching you things if you're going to cheat? It is wrong because if you cheat it proves that you're lazy, can't be bothered and that you don't listen in lessons. If you cheat and do really well and get into a really good job that your exam results helped you get then you won't know what you're doing because you cheated and then you will look really stupid. You won't get a good job if you cheat because you won't know what to do or anything." (Year 10, Female)

"Yes, I think that cheating is wrong. I think this because even though there are many ways of cheating, practically every case, whoever is cheating it is not only cheating on themselves but other people too. I don't think it is fair when someone cheats on an exam or test because there will be people that have studied hard and actually worked for it and when another person cheats they get a good grade without putting any effort into it. There is no point in cheating as even though people who cheat make other people believe them, they will know inside that they don't really deserve it. When people cheat on their homework it is them that won't do very well in their exams at the end of the year. Even though it may seem fun when they are doing it, it will always have a bad result. If people start to cheat in school, where will it end? If they think it's OK to cheat now, what will think of it when they have more important things to do or decide? School may be important but a school test is not the same as tax books or things like that and if they feel that it is acceptable for them to cheat at school, they will probably think it is acceptable to steal as well. Stealing is a form of cheating too as you are cheating the people you steal from. 'Cheats never prosper' and I agree with that saying. Why should other people suffer because people can't be bothered. Cheating only causes trouble or problems like in an exam if you get caught cheating the exam is practically torn up on the spot and if the person hadn't cheated and had been bothered to work then at least they would have got a mark than no mark at all. Also, if they are caught they could never live it down and will be remembered like that. No one would be able to trust the cheat. People who think cheating is fine and socially acceptable are not worth knowing." (Year 10, Female)

One of the processes associated with analysing qualitative data is to look for alternative explanations for the obtained data patterns. Social desirability may have formed a (large) part of the variance in responses to the research question (Is cheating in school wrong?). Therefore it was necessary to at least entertain the notion that this sub-group of **wrong** respondents may well have also felt some degree of ambivalence. The rule of thumb that respondents applied was that

cheating was wrong because you could get caught and get into trouble, suffer long term consequences and so on. The inverse of this would be that cheating was OK as long as the cheater did it right, did not get caught and avoided the negative consequences associated with cheating. Whilst this reverse logic was very rare in the corpus it may yet stand up to scrutiny. After all, the logic that made something only wrong because it caused trouble is at odds with mainstream adult thinking, but not with this group of students. It may well be therefore that the inverse rule can apply when the need for it to do so in the life of the student arises. If a different question had been asked of this sub-group of respondents, they too may well have responded with a form of ambivalence more recognisable as belonging to the real group of **ambivalent** respondents.

5.5.3 The holistic pathway

The final group of respondents for whom cheating was **wrong** were a straightforward combination of the first two groups. Rather than rely on one set of arguments or another, they relied on both and took a more **holistic** approach to cheating. This had the maximum coverage of the model. Further, this group had more in common with the group of respondents who were **ambivalent** towards cheating. For example the angel arguments of the **pre-decisional reminders** were given by roughly equal numbers of **wrong** and **ambivalent** respondents.

It could well be that the **ambivalent** respondents were using the arguments of the **holistic** group of respondents. Both groups presented reasons why cheating was wrong from an **anti-cheating advisory** stand-point. Both groups also presented the picture of the **negative consequences of cheating**. Both groups recognised the difference between the **assessment events** in terms of factors such as severity and indeed the causes of cheating. However, the **holistic** group of respondents stopped short of suggesting that cheating could ever be right. The **ambivalent** group however, whilst recognising that cheating had **negative consequences** (angel arguments), used the persuasive arguments presented during the two pre-decisional phases to suggest that cheating could sometimes be right.

Two examples of the holistic sub-group of respondents are given below:

"I don't think cheating is right or wrong. School is to help students make something of their lives if the cheat they will only cheat themselves and will be stuck. When they go and do a course in the future to learn harder things and they will be thrown out and they will be no where.

In some aspects it is wrong, for instance other people who work hard, but don't get the grade to possible beat the person's grade who's cheated and that means the person not cheating will be denied a chance." (Year 10, Male)

"Cheating in school is wrong because they don't really get anything out of it. They either get good marks and don't learn anything out of it or get bad marks and turn out that you could have had better marks if you actually tried.

Tests are for your benefit to help you in the late future they are also very important because they will help you get a job. There should be more ways to stop people from cheating." (Year 8, Female)

Twenty-six respondents were categorised as **anti-cheating advisors**, 94 as promoting the **negative consequences of cheating** and 35 as relying on both forms of argument to demonstrate their **holistic view of cheating as wrong**.

5.5.4 Gender differences and the respondent types

Sixty one percent of the male respondents reported that they perceived cheating to be **wrong**, whilst 56% of the females reported cheating to be **wrong**. The classification of the three sub-groups of **wrong** according to gender is given in table 5.5.1 The figures are expressed as proportions of the total number of male respondents classified as **wrong** and as proportions of the total number of female respondents classified as **wrong**:

Table 5.5.1. Proportions of males and females in each of the three sub-groups of wrong

	Anti-cheating advisors	Negative consequences	Holists	Total %
Male	20	60	20	100
Female	14	58	28	100

A chi-square analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the numbers of males and females (classified as **wrong**) reporting their perceptions of why cheating in school was wrong ($\chi^2 = 1.67$, df, 2, $p=.43$).

Few gender differences if any were found throughout the analysis. Gender differences were tested in two ways. Firstly, the data were read in order to identify different voices between males and females. It may have been possible that the males were less empathic than the females, but this was not possible to substantiate due to the small sample size of the males who also happened to write a small amount! The number of documents recorded against each property and category were compared by gender. The overall ratio of males to females was 1:2. The

gender difference in the properties and categories that was identified was a text unit ratio of 1:3. Females were more likely to write a greater amount and thus produce data that could be placed in a greater number of different categories than the males. Males who wrote for example, 3 text units, may have provided data for two categories (i.e., they wrote about only 2 themes). Females who wrote for example, 10 text units, may have provided data for 5 categories or even more.

Finally, even where gender differences may have been apparent because of, for example, a complete lack of male voices in one property or category, it was not possible to conclude that this was indeed a gender difference. If more males had participated, there may well have been statements from males written that would have filled the gaps that at present only suggest a gender difference.

For completeness, the gender and age breakdown for the ambivalent group of respondents are given in table 5.5.2

Table 5.5.2. Breakdown for the respondents by decision model type.

	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11
% of ambivalent respondents (of total)	27.6	16.0	18.5	26.5	5.2
Male ambivalent	34.2	16.6	20.8	44.7	53.3
Female ambivalent	65.8	83.3	79.2	55.3	46.6
% of wrong respondents (of total)	24.4	22.0	17.8	18.5	12.5

5.5.5 Age differences and the respondent types

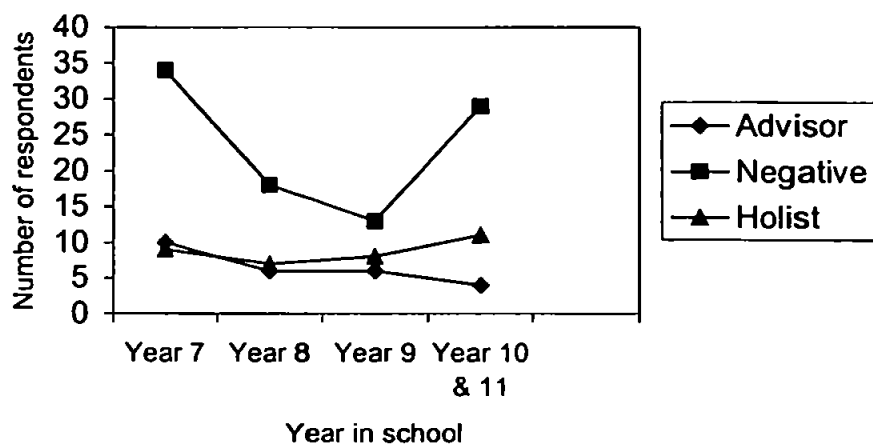
The proportion of respondents classified as **wrong** have also been given as a function of year group in table 5.5.2. As can be seen there was a developmental trend away from perceiving cheating to be only wrong associated with an increase in age. For example, 70% of the year 7 respondents felt that cheating was wrong whereas only 36% of respondents from year 11 felt that cheating was wrong. It must be remembered however, that there were only 15 respondents from year 11 and this age effect may be a reflection of sampling method, particularly as those respondents who viewed cheating as **wrong** and who were in year 11 all came from one school and were all male.

For the **ambivalent** respondents proportionately more respondents argued that cheating could be both right and wrong as year in school increased.

The three groups of respondents for whom cheating was **wrong** were categorised by age group in order to identify any age related differences. For the analysis the data for year 11 (n=4) were collapsed with the data for year 10 to deal with the small cell sizes. There was no significant difference between the three **wrong** groups as a function of year group ($\chi^2 = 4.7$, df, 6, p=.575). However, as several of the cell sizes were small it may have been that any real difference between the groups was not identified by the chi statistic. In figure 5.5.1 these data have been plotted. The important information to identify is the intra-age group differences. By this it is meant that the differences between the three sub-groups within any one year is important. Un-equal sample sizes made comparison *between* year groups inadvisable. From figure 5.5.1 it can be seen that the **negative consequences** sub-group was most frequently represented across all of the year groups, but that its 'power' diminished from years 7 to 9 before rising in year 10. In year 10 there was the greatest variation in responses, the data were skewed with fewer respondents purely advising against cheating, than respondents who took a **holist** viewpoint, which in turn were far fewer than those who perceived cheating to be **wrong** after-the-fact based on **negative consequences**.

Year 9 was the year for whom there were greatest individual differences. The numbers of respondents reflecting the three sub-groups were more equally divided than for any other age group. This reflects the individual difference reported in Chapter 4, where year 9 was the source of greater variation in the types of cheating behaviours listed.

Figure 5.5.1. The cheating as wrong sub-groups as a function of year in school



It should be noted that whilst a comparison between the year groups was inadvisable, a future avenue of enquiry may be to investigate the relationship between the **holists** and the **ambivalent** respondents. The number of ambivalent respondents generally increased with year group, as did the number of **holist** respondents. Whilst the trend shown in figure 5.5.1 does not reflect the proportion of respondents in each year it does suggest an upward trend. It was suggested earlier that the **holists** and the **ambivalent** respondents shared many characteristics within the model. Perhaps shared characteristics are the basis for a developmental difference in perceptions towards cheating? It may also have been that older respondents widened their appreciation of cheating to encompass more than one view point, which may explain why the number of **anti-cheating advisors** decreased with age. However, the big jump in the number of **negative consequences** respondents at years 10 and 11 may be a reflection of the severity with which cheating would be dealt with regarding public exams.

5.6 Evaluation of the model

5.6.1 Reliability and validity issues

Once the data had been analysed and the grounded theory (or in this case, model) captured, checks were made to ensure that robust analysis procedures had been followed in accordance with those set out in section 5.4.1 (a, b and c on page 199). To do this, an alternative source of analysis procedure to Strauss and Corbin (1990) was used to guide the checking. Martella, Nelson and Martella (1999) identified a range of reliability and validity methodological principles to which researchers using *any* kind of qualitative data and method of analysis should adhere:

(a) Reliability

Reliability for qualitative research is not the same as that for quantitative research. It was not possible to apply methods of, for example, test re-test reliability and inter-rater reliability as described by positivists. Therefore it was the responsibility of the researcher to ensure that the methodology section was well rounded, coherent, permitted replication and included the underlying logic of the analysis. Any subsequent analysis by another researcher should be able to rule out poor replication of technique as a source of error variance. Differences in corpus interpretation would still exist however. This would be because even though two researchers may use an

identical design and analysis method, the resultant theory would probably not be the same *and does not have to be the same*. Two researchers would have different subjectivity origins.

Therefore the present researcher included information about her own sources of bias and what her assumptions were (for the analysis framework) for the reader to be able to judge to what extent they may have affected the interpretation of those data. For example, any differences between two researchers' accounts of the data may be due to the subjective differences or due to the different contextual variables within which the theory was grounded. For example, the decision of whether or not to cheat in the school setting was the contextual basis for the presented interpretation of the corpus (paradigm model of 'Is cheating in school wrong?'). However another researcher may have chosen to use the context of guilt, or the self as cheater and other as cheater as the basis of the in paradigm model.

The theoretical framework for the analysis was as much as possible abstracted from the literature. Bracketing was actively used to explore the data. However, where explanations for the encountered phenomena were required, bracketing was still retained in an effort to view the data from multiple-perspectives. Indeed the fear that the literature review undertaken during the analysis would contaminate the emergent theory was unfounded. The corpus was so un-like any previous data type used for the study of cheating that disregarding previous knowledge was not difficult. At the time of analysis the two bodies of evidence (the literature and the corpus) could not have seemed more different.

Finally, the nature of grounded theory in particular involves a temporal component that requires changes in phenomena over time to be established. The data are dynamic and flexible and this needed to be grounded as part of the theory. Positivist analysis methods are grounded in constancy and in-flexibility. To enhance reliability a description of the study period was included (time of year etc.,) and mention was made that the data were gathered from multiple sources to allow the dynamism of the data to emerge.

(b) Validity

Validity issues were referred to in the analysis in two main ways. Firstly there was an acknowledgement of the ethical stance of the researcher towards the participants. There was also a clear description of the actual process of coding, allowing the reader to follow an audit trail from

concept to property to category. Secondly the actual data were used to demonstrate validity of the emerging hypotheses regardless of whether the hypotheses remained substantiated or theoretical. Procedures were put in place to ensure internal validity. Internal validity in qualitative research involves demonstrating not that the independent variable was responsible for the change in the dependent variable, but that the emergent theory was grounded in the data. Threats to internal validity include the researcher not acknowledging sources of reflexivity (subjectivity, bias) or the role that cases and situations may play in *challenging* that emergent theory.

(c) Internal validity

A separate section has been devoted to internal validity because it is fundamental to demonstrating the grounding of a theory. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990) 'a well-constructed theory will meet four central criteria for judging the applicability of theory to a phenomenon: fit, understanding, generality and control' (p23).

(i) Fit

The decision making model could be considered to be 'good' if the main themes of the model could be demonstrated to be consonant with reality as experienced by the participants. In this case the participants' reality was the educational environment of the school. The reality was taken from the corpus that was determined by sampling from a wide range of schools and age groups. Therefore the main themes of the model were grounded in the reality of the educational environment for secondary school students and not just for *some* students from a school. The process of ensuring that the data fitted the model was undertaken through the random sampling of the data. In an ideal research situation, the process of checking the data for internal validity would have involved returning to the target population. Alternatively, a robust procedure may have been to divide the data set in two and analyse half of the corpus whilst reserving the other half as a mock re-sampling of the target population. However, because some of the respondent types (break characteristics) resulted in so few respondents per characteristic, the assumption of generality (see below) would not have been met. Therefore it was decided to test the analysis process that re-built the data (axial-coding). By this it is meant that after the data were open-coded (broken apart), the axial-coding process was used to build a general model to which the majority of respondents' data would fit. To test this assumption a sample was taken from the

original corpus and assessed for goodness of fit within the model. This process was referred to in some detail in section 5.5 (checking the model, page 264).

(ii) Understanding

In order to assess the goodness of fit of the assumption that realities have been matched, the stories of the model should make sense to both the participants and those practising in the area (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). This could involve speaking to teachers and re-visiting the target population to ask new respondents how valid they felt the model to be for them. For example, potential respondents could be asked whether or not they thought that cheating could be defined as right or wrong by the simple referral to the **negative consequences** of cheating. They could be asked whether there were any **positive consequences of cheating** (a category that was largely theoretical) or whether they felt that cheating was perpetuated by the **role of friends**. Teachers could be asked the same questions to gauge how they perceived their charges to understand whether cheating in school is wrong. The researcher was a teacher in secondary school for a short period and could only be classed as an interloper as she only taught students who were older than those included in the present study (sixth form). Therefore whilst the model may appear to have *understanding* to the researcher, it was not possible to conclude that the assumption of understanding was valid and may well be a source of bias. This particular aspect of Strauss and Corbin's (1990) 'fitness tests' (understanding) was the subject of a later Chapter (8).

(iii) Generality

"If the data upon which [the theory] is based are comprehensive and the interpretations conceptual and broad, then the theory should be abstract enough and include sufficient variation to make it applicable to a variety of contexts related to that phenomenon" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, p23).

For the phenomenon of whether or not cheating was wrong, the contexts were the decisions to cheat or not to cheat. The variations in the data were emphasised by the variation in the sample population. Variation was expressed in a number of ways. Firstly there was macro level variation. Respondents were classified according to the overall theme of their response (**wrong or ambivalent**). The **wrong** respondents were further classified according to the perspective they took about why cheating was wrong (**anti-cheating advisors, negative consequences and holists**). On a micro level scale, the pathways that respondents could take

through the model varied according to each person's classification. Respondents could 'pick and mix' the properties of each category that they passed through. To a lesser extent they could also choose which categories they omitted. For example, an ambivalent respondent could choose to discuss one or more **assessment events** with reference to one or more **assessment characteristics** and **motivations**. They could then choose to pass through **pre-decisional reminders** (angel-devil) or omit this phase and go straight to the **victim impact statements**.

At this point, 'exceptions to the rule' cases were relevant. Positivist theorists hold the principle of looking for contradictory evidence (as in seeking to reject the null hypothesis) in high regard. Grounding a theory in data also required the use of this procedure as a method of overcoming subjectivity and bias. Exceptions to the rule existed within the current corpus. For example, theoretically, the respondents for whom cheating was **wrong**, had a restricted pathway through the model through which their decision making could be interpreted. This meant that after the start point the **causes of cheating** and **pre-decisional factors** were omitted and the model continued at the **pre-decisional reminders** phase. For some respondents however, **causes of cheating** featured in their explanation of why cheating was wrong, as did references to **assessment characteristics**. These respondents were empathising with students who cheated, acknowledging that rules were in place by which school students evaluated the phenomenon of cheating. However, they did not agree that cheating was acceptable. Therefore these students were exceptions to the model. However, whilst these students served as exceptions to the rule, they also provided a source of evidence through triangulation (validity) that students have unwritten rules of conduct regarding the phenomenon of cheating and that these rules are known to students outside of the reference group (**ambivalent**). Alternatively it could have been that such respondents were acting in a socially desirable manner.

Another example of exceptions to the rule cases were the small sub-group of respondents for whom cheating was right. This group of five respondents were not included as a group in their own right within the model because there were so few of them. Provision was made within the model for these respondents to by-pass all of the **pre-decisional** phases if they so wished and proceed directly to the **positive consequences of cheating**. However, should the respondents have wanted to justify their behaviour 'along the way' they could have done so by using the arguments from the **pre-decisional** phases. Indeed, they may also have perpetuated their

cheating by entering into the **perpetuation of cheating cycle**, as demonstrated by the following year 8 male:

“Cheating in school isn’t wrong everyone does it if you are in a test then it is different. I do it sometimes but if it was that wrong then everyone would be in deep trouble. I cheat a lot but not on any important aspects at school. If you cheat at school it should be allowed.” (Year 8, Male)

The main role of these particular exceptions to the rule was to support the notion that there were **positive consequences to cheating** for which support from elsewhere was limited. The respondents also served as a backdrop against which to judge the social desirability of the **negative consequences** sub-group of **wrong**.

(iv) Control

A theory that is grounded proposes relationships between events and phenomena within the model. This means that the defined relationships should form the basis for the prediction of future events and phenomena relationships. For this reason, the predictive power of the theory should be made clear. In this instance the diagrammatical representation of the decision making model was used to denote the relationships between the categories. Within the preceding sections, relationships between properties and between properties and categories were identified. Permutations, where they existed, as in, for example, the **self-injury** sub-category of the **victim impact statements** were also explored. This meant that for a student identified as **ambivalent**, a typical pathway through the model could be proposed and used as a basis to predict future behaviour. This was because the corpus was richly detailed with many options that the potential cheater could ‘pick and mix’ in his or her endeavours to **decide** whether or not cheating was wrong. However, before the decision model could justifiably be argued to demonstrate *control* further research would be needed. For example, it was not known to what extent the role of social desirability effected the respondents’ opinions about cheating.

Social desirability is a unsystematic form of error, in that it is assumed that the effects are random. However, social desirability regarding a sensitive topic such as cheating may function as an experimental form of error, despite the checks and balances put in place to make the respondents feel no need to give socially desirable responses. Further, the systematic errors that were likely to occur were controlled by gathering data across a range of age groups, school types,

times of day and periods within the academic year. In addition, a longitudinal element was introduced in that the data were gathered from a range of different academic years (1997-1999).

5.6.2 Comparison with the focus group data

The model that was outlined in the previous section contained weaknesses in the fit of the data. Re-sampling of the population would be required in order to firm up any prediction pathways that were hypothesised to exist. In particular, specific model content areas, such as the **positive consequences of cheating** required evidence. The focus groups which were discussed in Chapter 3 were used as a source of triangulation between methods. Questions such as 'is it wrong?' and 'is it serious?' were asked of the focus groups in relation to several different forms of cheating behaviours. Excerpts from the focus group transcripts have been given below to substantiate the categories of the **decision** model. It should be noted that these data had not been read by the researcher for at least three years, in which time the content had been forgotten. Therefore there was no 'conscious' bias carried over during the development of the **decision** model.

The causes of cheating were also touched upon in Chapter 3, with many of the focus group respondents reporting that authority figures were to blame. Of the **causes of cheating** that were identified from the present study, teachers, parents and the school system were identified by a small number of respondents as promoting **achievement pressures**. However, few respondents in the present study chose to mention the **causes of cheating** when exploring whether or not they felt cheating to be wrong.

Teachers being a **cause of cheating** was discussed by Hi (female). She felt that in German, the tests were too big and may have been a cause for cheating:

Hi: If we had tests more regularly and had less to learn I don't think people would cheat

Researcher: What like once a week 10 spellings?

Hi: Like if we had German tests, once every two weeks instead of once every two months or something ... like we do a unit and then we have a test ... then we start another unit

The role of teachers in causing cheating was not as salient in the model as it was for the focus group participants. This may have been because of the nature of the questioning process. In the introduction to this chapter it was suggested that situational factors were more salient in influencing the decision to cheat and person-based factors more salient in excusing cheating after-the-fact. This model was very much a decision making model. Situational factors were indeed a major part of the model (**pre-decisional factors**). The focus group participants when discussing teachers, were focused on the role that teachers played in causing cheating, i.e., cheating was hypothesised to already have happened.

The **pre-decisional factors** were mentioned frequently by all focus group members. Respondents reported that working with friends was acceptable (**the role of friends**) and that the more serious the assessment event (**public examinations**) the less likely they were to view cheating as acceptable. There is evidence to suggest that the more frequently performed behaviours are those that are perceived to be the least serious (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995). The following excerpts include the **assessment event (public examinations, tests and homework) assessment characteristics (minor, important) and motives (understanding and effort, the role of friends)**:

Joe: I think it's cheating when someone copies someone else's work 'cos they couldn't be bothered to do it or forgot to do it

Fred: If it's something affecting the GCSE grades yeah ... but it it's just a minor homework for a revision ... na, it's not cheating ... it's just catching up ... because you mightn't have been able to do it

And

Robbie: In the end of module tests you just have it in the classroom

Dan: But if it's an important test you go into the special place

Further, it was suggested in Chapter 3 that the processes involved in deciding when a behaviour was to be regarded as cheating or not cheating would be related to a personal work ethic. Many respondents reported that cheating was acceptable if **understanding and effort** was present. This was particularly true for the **anti-cheating advisor** sub-group of the respondents in the present study who viewed cheating to be **wrong**. Cheating was not acceptable if there was an element of **stealing effort and taking away credit and devaluing achievement**. Mention was

also made by respondents to the **educational philosophy** that they held, the **purpose of assessments** and the damage that cheating could do in the **prevention of learning**:

Regarding homework:

Kelly: If they understood it before hand...

Jo: If they knew how to do it ... but had to ... were depressed or had a hard time

And later

Egg: If they told you the answers of something like that, or helped you to do the answers, it's not, but if they just explained what you're supposed to do, if you don't understand, then it would be all right

Regarding the role of friends:

Researcher: ... Is that cheating because they've let you do it?

Egg: No not really 'cos they said that you could

Researcher: But if they didn't know that you were copying their work

Steve: Yeah ... that's cheating

Examples of **pre-decisional reminders** were in the form of an angel statement (**philosophical**) and a devil statement (**everyone does it**). The first angel statement extract below highlighted that not everybody perceived cheating in the same way and that models of cheating have to be flexible enough to take individuality into account.

Researcher: So would you cheat ... I'm not saying that you would ... if the opportunity arose ... would you cheat in one of her classes because it's easier?

Steve: I don't think that you would because you'd be trying to learn the things for your exams

Jo: If it was like a small test ... it wouldn't really matter

Egg: If you had to cheat with any teacher then you'd do it with the easiest

and

Researcher: Copying from your neighbour and they don't know it?

Dan: Everybody's done that

Fred: Definitely

Positive consequences of cheating were also in evidence. However, as with the grounded theory data set, whilst respondents did not always explicitly say that cheating had benefits, there were plenty of examples where **positive consequences** could have been inferred. The following examples are taken reflect explicit **positive consequences**:

Robbie: It saves time ... instead of waiting until it happened, you just write it down

And

Dan: It saves time if you have to do a survey ... um it maybe impossible to do the survey so you have to make up the results

And

Dan: Yeah, I know someone who was gutted ... he allowed someone to copy his homework ... and the person who copied his homework got an A minus and he got a B

Researcher: So it paid off to cheat?

Dan: Yeah

Victim impact statements were not as prevalent in the focus group data as the grounded theory data. This may have been because of the nature of the questioning. However, negative consequences suggested by focus group participants echoed those in the model:

Raz: When people get people, you, to do their homework for them or something?

Researcher: Is that cheating?

Worm: Cheating yourself

Researcher: Cheating yourself ... what about cheating the other person ... is it fair?

Worm: They could get into trouble for doing it really

And

Egg: The teachers' might think more of her

Jo: yeah the teacher might like ... given her harder work

Steve: She might ... for Worm's work, the teacher might have said 'Oh Worm's not so good at this' and then she goes and does the subject really well in the test ... so she would of

thought 'Oh Worm couldn't have done this because she wasn't very good at it' ... you know

Researcher: So it has good consequences and bad consequences?

Ali: Yeah

This brief re-visit to the focus groups of Chapter 3 suggests that the decision model has validity in the nature of the relationships between the categories. For example, the **assessment events** were interwoven with discourse regarding **motivations** and **assessment characteristics**. In particular, the dimensional aspects of some properties were identified. For example, in the excerpt regarding the **role of friends**, there was evidence of being *helped by* friends being regarded as acceptable and evidence that cheating *from* friends was unacceptable. Support was also forthcoming for the **positive consequences of cheating**, a category was described in the model as existing *in potentia*.

5.6.3 The neutralization framework

Whilst this study was not about replicating previous research, particularly research into models of, for example, neutralization, time was given over to investigate whether the American systems of categorisation were applicable to a younger British sample. An attempt was made to 'fit' the British data into Sykes and Matza's (1957) five categories of cheating neutralization. In addition, the question asked of the British sample was sufficiently different from those in the American studies as to bring a *new perspective* to the neutralization theory.

Using the neutralization framework in this way can also check the validity of the emergent decision model. If comparable strategies were used by students to diminish the severity of cheating, then conclusions regarding the robustness of some aspects of the grounded theory model may be claimed. A full comparison between the two methods would be inappropriate as the questions asked of the data were very different. Indeed the grounded model should be a far better tool through which to explain student perceptions of the status of cheating because of the methods of analysis employed.

The questions that the American researchers asked of the respondents began from the assumption of guilt. For example, Sykes and Matza (1957) interviewed convicted juvenile delinquents and Labeff, Clarke, Haines and Diekhoff (1990) asked only those students who

reported that they *had* cheated to present their reasons for cheating. Asking the general question about cheating, 'Is it wrong?' removed the potential association of blame and guilt from the participant. The participant was then freed to explore the conflicting aspects of the rightness and wrongness of cheating. The social construction of the student cheaters' world needs to incorporate perspectives that research cheating from more than one standpoint or perspective. For example, what should be investigated is cheating as a bi-polar or multidimensional construct, i.e., is it right/wrong, good/bad? etc, instead of simply 'you have done wrong, discuss'.

These kinds of conflicts or ambivalence that may exist in the minds of the student cheater could not be drawn out from studies which presented students with a series of reasons for and for not cheating (e.g., Stevens and Stevens, 1987). If students dip into and out of neutralization, as Sykes and Matza argued, then the *opposite poles* of the five techniques may be employed by such students to rationalise why cheating is wrong – even though they admit to cheating at the same time (e.g., there *is* a victim instead of *denial* of the victim). Support for this hypothesis comes from the work of Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) who gave students a variety of reasons why they may choose not to cheat, which were arguably, the neutralization tools reversed. Using the current study data as a test of the reverse of the intended function of neutralization ('is it wrong?', as opposed to 'why did you do it?') was arguably a strong test of theoretical robustness of neutralization and a good example of the positivist research practice.

A sub set of the data were *content* 're-analysed' using Sykes and Matza's (1957) neutralization framework. One hundred and forty three participants' documents were selected that covered the demographic characteristics of age and gender. Alternate documents in the Nud*ist document explorer were selected as a convenient way to achieve this stratified sample of 50%. Fifty four male and 83 female documents; 38 year 7, 25 year 8, 26 year 9, 38 year 10 and 7 year 11 documents formed the new sub-sample.

The definitions of the categories of neutralization that were used as the reference framework were those given in the introduction to this chapter (on page 185). Neutralization categories were developed by Sykes and Matza (1957) as a framework in which juvenile delinquents' reasons for delinquent conduct were placed. McCabe (1992) also used neutralization categories that were tailored to the educational environment. However, these categories were considered too specific and as before, reflected the position that cheating had already occurred.

Documents were read and any text units which were identified as belonging to one of the categories were coded. In addition, text units which were the antithesis of the categories were also selected. These antithetical categories denoted arguments which were written from the stand point of reasons for not cheating. The results of this mini-analysis were exploratory and at the level of descriptive statistics. The decision regarding which text units belonged to which category were not checked for reliability with another coder.

One component of the rationale for extending the neutralization model, as was outlined above, was that the students referred to more than just reasons *for* cheating, they also referred to reasons for *not* cheating. In order to test the neutralization framework within the constraints of this analysis, the equivalent of searching for Popper's black swans was undertaken. This technique was also employed with the grounded theory analysis of the main data set. Documents were selected at random and tested against the model for fit. A good model should be able to cope with new cases and therefore testing the neutralization framework against data that may be the opposite of the categories (new cases) would be one way to assess internal validity.

The decision to assess internal validity in this way had face validity because there were two types of documents. Some documents contained arguments relating only to cheating as being wrong. Other documents contained a mixture of arguments for why cheating could be both right and wrong. It was therefore anticipated that the reasons as to why cheating could be right, would be placed in the original neutralization categories, whilst the data pertaining to cheating as wrong would be placed in the opposite antithetical categories.

There were 18 sub-sample documents for which no original or opposite neutralization strategies were applicable and no attempt was made to devise novel categories for these data. Not all of the data from the remaining documents were applicable and only those text units which were relevant were coded.

Table 5.6.1 below is the number of documents coded at each category by gender. Some respondents used neutralization strategies from the same category more than once. However, this number was minimal (>5) and therefore analysis at the level of the document (as opposed to text unit) has been presented. The sub-categories marked in italics represent the antithetical (new) categories and are described subsequently. The total number of documents coded was 198. This number included the documents where more than one strategy was identified.

The subsequent description focuses extensively on the antithetical sub-categories. A description of the original categories has already been given elsewhere (on page 185). However, the first two categories under denial of responsibility were produced by respondents who tried to give reasons for possible cheating. These included laziness (for intentional acts) and emotional pressures (for external forces). Few references to being lazy as an intended cheating motive (which featured quite heavily in the decision model) were found in the sub-sample.

Table 5.6.1. The number of documents containing neutralization strategies as a function of gender.

Category	Male	Female	Total
Denial of responsibility			16 (8.2%)
Intentional act	1	9	10
External forces	2	14	16
Denial of injury			13 (6.5%)
Everyone does it	3	7	10
No harm to humans	0	3	3
Denial of the victim			92 (46%)
<i>There is a victim</i>	9	26	35
The perpetrator becomes the victim	22	34	56
There is no victim	0	1	1
Condemnation of the condemners			40 (20.2%)
Condemnation if caught	2	0	2
Condemnation of authority figures	0	12	4
<i>Drawing the focus of attention away from the perpetrator</i>	9	21	30
Condemnation of the cheater	1	3	4
Appeal to higher loyalties			37 (18.7%)
Help a friend	0	5	5
Moral dilemma	3	2	5
Appeal to wider norms	6	17	23
In-group solidarity	0	3	3
Out-group solidarity	0	1	1
Totals	58	140	198

Denial of responsibility did not contain any new sub-categories. Responses regarding the cheater as responsible would have reinforced the antithetical view that cheating was the responsibility of the cheater. None were found in this sample.

The second category, denial of injury, also only contained statements that supported the original categories. Examples used were that as everyone has cheated at some point, cheating was acceptable and that as cheating really did not do any harm, it was not the concern of the respondent. This 6.5% of respondents compared favourably in number with McCabe's (1992) 4.2% of respondents.

The third category of denial of the victim was more fruitful in the development of antithetical categories. It was also the largest category overall, with over three times as many documents as any other category. The perpetrator becoming the victim was used extensively to support a position of non-cheating. In the original neutralization model, the perpetrator becoming the victim was used to excuse wrongdoing.

However, one respondent in the sub-sample suggested that there was no victim of cheating. Labeff et al (1990) did not find any examples of this category in their study and as McCabe (1992) suggested, denial of the victim, requires further investigation before it is dismissed.

The fourth category of condemnation of the condemners contained arguments relating to the cheater being condemned as well as teachers and other authority figures being condemned for causing or allowing cheating to occur. Teachers were blamed because they were seen as responsible for putting pressures on students and as the guardians of the prevention of cheating. Arguments suggesting that teachers should prevent cheating could also have been placed in the denial of responsibility category because respondents may have been washing their hands of the responsibility of cheating:

"That's cheating some of the teachers think we are cheating if we move in an exam or breathe." (Participant 2)

and

"I think if cheating is happening in schools and in the system on exams and tests, the system must be flawed because there are ways to prevent cheating." (Participant 176)

The sub-category in table 5.6.2, regarding 'drawing the focus away from the perpetrator' was the antithesis of the original 'drawing the focus away from the perpetrator and onto the accusers'. In this instance, the accusers were not replaced with the perpetrators, but were replaced with a different focus. Attention was drawn to some forms of cheating as being less serious than other forms of cheating, or that if the cheating was committed with an underlying understanding of the work, then it may have been acceptable. In each instance a comparison behaviour was given by the respondent to move the focus away from the unacceptable act toward the more acceptable act:

"You can look at someone's work that is definitely wrong. If you get your mum to do you homework this is also wrong, But you can still ask the answer, this is not wrong. It is only wrong if you mum does the whole work. (Participant 100)

The final category of appeal to higher loyalties contained original and antithetical categories. Cheating to help friends was mentioned as it was in the original neutralization findings. However, deviation from the old framework occurred with regard to whether or not respondents would ignore cheating (in-group solidarity) or not ignore cheating (out-group solidarity). The in-group solidarity examples were not placed in an existing category because the respondents were discussing their responses to a cheating incident that had occurred as opposed to excusing the cheating incident.

A few respondents presented moral dilemmas in arguing when cheating could be acceptable:

"Sometimes although cheating is wrong it can give someone a job when they pass their exams rather than if they failed they would end up in the streets." (Participant 176)

The appeal to wider societal norms sub-category was in line with the angel arguments from the grounded theory model. Students reported that cheating should not occur because it was against the good of society at large or the system of education that governed their scholarly activities.

"We would all like to cheat sometimes, but the reason we don't is that we know it is wrong and something inside must tell us it's wrong otherwise everyone would cheat wouldn't they?" (Participant 172)

A better test of the neutralization framework would have been to have included all of the data of those respondents for whom cheating could be both right and wrong. However, discrimination at this level (identifying documents relating to different 'independent variables') using a new framework was not easily achievable, even with the use of Nud*ist. It may be a sufficient test of the framework to conclude that each category was represented by arguments advocating cheating as acceptable, even if the data were few in number. Conclusions regarding the further test of the model (antithetical) were limited as two categories were not sampled at all within the data sub-set (denial of injury and responsibility). This may not be surprising when contextualised by the person and situation arguments. Many reasons for why cheating was wrong in the decision model were person-based. Denial of responsibility included more situation-based factors than the other neutralization categories.

Alternatively, it may well be that the arguments relating to moving the focus away from the perpetrator and onto the different situations and kinds of cheating behaviours (condemning the condemners) were in fact a form of denial of injury. Denial of injury contained statements that related to the extension of the common practice of everyday behaviours, which in effect was what some respondents were arguing (e.g., 'it's only a mild form of cheating and not much different to ordinary classroom behaviours').

This conflict of category stability reflected a wider issue relating to the neutralization framework as a whole. The description of the categories in both Sykes and Matza's original 1957 paper and the description in Labeff et al (1990), were both extremely brief. This made the task of discerning which statements belonged to which category arbitrary. Whilst the coding was systematic, comparison across studies must be carried out with caution due to probable interpretation differences between researchers.

Gender differences were apparent in the sample data. As with the grounded theory model, the male 'voice' was 'quieter'. Males made fewer neutralizations than females as was also found by Ward and Beck (1990). This may have been a general reflection of the fact that males wrote fewer text units overall. Age differences were also apparent in the number of documents coded. Year 10 respondents generally provided slightly more documents for each category than the other years, (with the exception of year 7 regarding cheating having a victim). However, this too may have been an artefact of the number of text units written by year 10 overall (more rather than less).

The neutralization framework has not compared favourably with the grounded theory model. Whilst the neutralization framework was designed specifically for reasons for delinquent behaviour and later adapted for use with cheating, it was not designed to be used with data regarding whether or not cheating was perceived to be right or wrong. Having said this, the statements regarding 'cheating that might be acceptable' through the process of comparison (under condemnation of the condemners) were not well contained by the existing framework. Whilst the items were placed in one category that centred around moving the focus of attention, as outlined earlier they could also have been given as a category of denial of injury. Further, this categorical demarcation did not in anyway elucidate on the idiosyncratic ways in which respondents compared acceptable with unacceptable cheating behaviours in an attempt to neutralize cheating behaviours. Further the neutralization model was not applicable at all to some respondents. To this end, the

neutralization framework was too broad and general to identify these processes. In effect, it is not a 'good' model.

The grounded theory model on the other hand was both flexible enough to contain the variety of arguments whilst maintain breadth at the category descriptor level and depth when an individual's perceptions were 'traced through' the model. By comparing the decision model to the neutralization framework it has been demonstrated that such qualitative data requires more robust and intricate methodologies to be applied in order that the data be systematically and thoroughly explained.

McFee (1992) would argue that the use of the neutralization framework alongside the grounded theory model has not been an example of triangulation in research at all. The methods were not fixed at the same starting perspective and indeed the analysis methods asked different questions. The neutralization framework required the data to fit into an existing structure (albeit a modified structure) whereas grounded theory is not used with *a priori* questions, rather the data 'set their own agenda'. However, in terms of using the methods to assess the most appropriate form for analysis of the data, the comparison has been useful. Not only have the merits of grounded theory over content analysis been demonstrated, both methods highlighted the fact that there were some participants for whom cheating was not always wrong and that strategies were employed to neutralize or justify the behaviours.

The grounded theory was a more efficient mechanism for exploring the differences between individuals who felt that cheating could sometimes be right. There were very few respondents for whom cheating was completely right. Therefore, the model needed to take into account the double perspective of right and wrong. The neutralization model could not contain this without alteration. Altering the neutralization framework has demonstrated that in order to fully understand adolescent cheating it has to be accepted that ambivalence exists in the minds of some respondents and that theoretical models should reflect this.

5.7 Discussion

5.7.1 Summary of findings

In response to the question 'Is cheating in school wrong' participants from schools across Southern England wrote answers that reflected a range of perspectives. A model was developed using grounded theory analysis techniques, that provided a framework on which future research

into the perceptions of cheating could be built. The model was used to explore perceptions of whether cheating was wrong, by determining the decision making processes that respondents employed to arrive at their conclusion(s).

Two main perspectives of cheating decision were identified. Respondents were either classified as perceiving cheating to be **wrong** or reporting **ambivalence** towards cheating. For this latter group of respondents, cheating could be both right and wrong, depending upon several factors, such as the nature of the task and the situation. For the respondents for whom cheating was wrong, a further classification was undertaken. Three sub-groups were identified. Some respondents wrote about cheating from the perspective of advising against undertaking cheating. The majority of respondents wrote about the negative consequences which arose from cheating. The third sub-group of respondents wrote about cheating from both the perspective of advising against cheating and from the perspective that it would have negative consequences. The model as first described in this chapter was presented as a flow diagram. It was suggested that a typical **wrong** respondent relied exclusively on categories placed after the 'decision' (person-based) and the **ambivalent** respondents used the whole model and in particular the **pre-decisional factors** that were situationally based.

However, where possible **ambivalent and wrong** respondent quotations were both used to illustrate *all* aspects of the model. This appears to be a contradictory explanation of the model because the model reflects two separate pathways relying on a combination of the same *and* different categories. Firstly, it should be noted that **wrong** respondents included those who saw the need to cheat in others, but nevertheless themselves condemned cheating outright. Therefore, categories 'reserved' for **ambivalent** respondents were employed by **wrong** respondents. Secondly, **wrong** respondents in exploring the need for others to cheat often referred to situational factors. However, it was by looking at their post-decisional statements that the *why* of cheating became apparent.

The model provided information not only about whether respondents perceived cheating to be right or wrong, but information about how the decisions were made which could be used to predict when students would be likely to condone or condemn cheating was also provided. For students for whom cheating could sometimes be right, the model could also be used to predict when cheating would be most likely to occur.

Gender differences were not found regarding the individual concepts and categories of the model. There were gender differences in the number of males and females classified as perceiving cheating to be wrong and those who were ambivalent towards cheating. Females were found to be more likely to report ambivalence towards cheating, particularly those in years 9, 10 and 11. There may be several reasons to explain both the lack and presence of gender differences.

There were far more females than males in the sample and the females wrote on average a greater amount than the males. Females were more likely than males to be **ambivalent**. Ward and Beck (1990) similarly found that women referred to more neutralization strategies to justify cheating. Of those respondents who were classified as ambivalent in the present study, on average a greater number text units were written. Therefore, the masking of the male voices may have been compounded by this potential neutralizing gender effect. It is likely, that as a method of data collection, written prose was similar to the focus group method for males. Males did not respond with as much depth as females in either the present study or the focus groups. It has been suggested by teachers (personal communications) that asking males to volunteer to write something off the top of their heads usually results in brevity and that there are very few ways in which to engage them in focused discussion for research purposes! Finally, it should be noted that one school provided more participants than any other. This was a streamed girl's school where high achieving young women studied. Therefore, the average number of text units may have been affected by this sub-sample.

Age differences were found to exist with regard to both the main dichotomy between the perceptions of whether cheating was right or wrong and between the three sub-groups of respondents who viewed cheating as wrong. As mentioned above, older students (females) reported a greater degree of ambivalence towards cheating than younger students. Of those students who felt cheating to be wrong, an advisory stance against cheating lessened across the school years. It was possible that the anti-cheating advisory stance was gradually replaced by the view that negative consequences determined whether or not cheating was wrong (i.e., two perceptions were held simultaneously). This may well have been the case as those respondents only advocating the negative consequences position increased dramatically in year 10. However, the small sample size for year 11 precluded any further trend conclusions. Indeed, the explanation for this age trend was purely speculative. It was the year 9 students in the Study 4 for who appeared to be in a period of change with respect to their perceptions about cheating. The current

data also suggest that year 9 is the year in which perceptions towards cheating *begin* to change, perhaps towards a greater level of sophistication in year 10.

5.7.2 Removing bracketing

Bracketing was used in the development of the model. All previously held notions and perceptions of cheating were put to one side whilst the analysis was undertaken. As reported earlier, this exercise was not as difficult as was anticipated because the data analysis technique was so unlike any of the methods referred to in the cheating literature. However, in order to fully evaluate the present method of investigating cheating, bracketing needed to be removed and the model evaluated against the literature. This process was initiated in the evaluation of the model in section 5.6.2 and 5.6.3 (focus groups and neutralization, page 277).

To begin with, reference to the findings of Chapter 4 should be made. Both the present study and the previous study were conducted simultaneously (data gathered at the same time). The questions asked in both of these studies were in response to issues raised in the focus group chapter (Chapter 3). However, the questions were sufficiently different to ensure that cheating was investigated from different perspectives. Nevertheless, support for the validity of one specific issue has been gained. In Chapter 4, a scale of cheating severity according to assessment event was generated. This was based upon the rank ordering of the severity with which respondents perceived their self-generated behaviours to be. Support for the ordering of the assessment events was provided by the grounded theory model (and indeed by the focus group participants). The pre-decisional factors of the model could be used to distinguish between assessment events that were seen as more serious and less serious. Whilst not surprising, the similarity between the two scales was striking. Public examinations were perceived by respondents in this study to be consonant with serious cheating, as were exams in the previous study. Homework and classwork were similarly perceived to be less serious arenas for cheating in both studies.

Other research findings also bear comparison with the decision making model of cheating. In the introduction, evidence was reviewed regarding student perceptions of the reasons for cheating and the justifications given for cheating.

The question posed of respondents ('Is cheating in school wrong?') may have biased them towards responding in an affirmative manner. Social desirability and impression management may have also compounded the desire to report views that were socially acceptable (cheating is wrong).

Therefore, the fact that so many respondents wrote about cheating as being something negative which happened to cheaters, *other cheaters and not the respondents themselves* may suggest that respondents were distancing themselves from perceptions that they could or have cheated.

Cheaters were blamed extensively for causing many negative consequences to themselves and others. Indeed, the position of the negative consequences was after the decision to cheat in the model. The negative consequences were particularly personal in nature, i.e., aimed at the individual or individuals, be they victims of cheating or the cheater him or herself. Blame theory posits that the person rather than the situation is blamed when cheating was excused after the event (Wang and Anderson, 1994). Phares, Wilson and Klyver (1971) reported that internal locus of control students used external excuses for cheating, but were found to vary their excuses depending upon the situation. Situational factors were in abundance, particularly in the 'first half' of the model, where cheating was more likely to be excused.

However, those respondents for whom cheating had negative consequences, were not always wholly damning of other cheaters' behaviours. The relative preference model was used as an explanation for student perceptions towards cheaters that were more lenient than expected by Whitley and Kost (1999). 'The belief that others share one's ethical standards both justified them and makes it appropriate to use them to judge others' behaviour' (p1755). Further, Stevens (1984) reported that students saw themselves as more ethical in comparison to other students, therefore, perhaps it should be expected that fewer respondents suggested cheating could be right, than the number who suggested cheating was always wrong.

Reasons for cheating such as those reported by Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) were also in evidence in the model. For example, reasons for not cheating such as 'it is immoral/ dishonest' were found in the pre-decisional reminders phase, whilst positive consequences, such as 'better mark' were found after the decision to cheat. This is a contrast to the relationship suggested regarding the person and the situation. In general, person-based arguments were placed after the decision to cheat and situation-based reasons before the decision to cheat. However, the pre-decisional reminders were largely aimed at the potential cheater and were not necessarily about cheating being wrong. Rather they were about resisting the temptation to cheat. Further, the discussion in the introduction about reasons such as 'it is immoral/dishonest' suggested that the self should not be considered along with person-based reasons that were aimed at other people.

The devil and angel arguments in particular exemplified the fear and risk associated with cheating that were given as reasons for not cheating by Newstead et al's respondents. As before, reasons associated with negative consequences were more likely to be in the second half of the model and person-based, whereas rationales for making cheating acceptable were more likely to be in the first half of the model. There are similarities with Newstead et al's findings where reasons for *not cheating*, when the 'not applicable' type reasons were partialled out, tended to be about the self. It appeared therefore, that many respondents, particularly those for whom cheating was wrong because it led to negative consequences, were using cheating consequences after-the-fact to explain why cheating was wrong before-the-fact.

After-the-fact positive consequences were also hypothesised to exist in the form of factors such as work-avoidance. This receives support as a reason for cheating from Siefert and O'Keefe (2001) who suggested that in addition to learning and grade orientations, there were those students who were oriented towards avoiding work. That so many respondents reported the negative consequence of using cheating in attaining a higher academic setting, may attest to its real life prevalence.

However, the general use of after-the-fact consequences may be explained by excuse-making theory. Apparent responsibility links and transformed responsibility links were reported by Snyder, Higgins and Stucky (1983) to be used to distance actors from negatively perceived events. Apparent responsibility links were used when a message was sent out to observers about what was going to happen. This may be equated with the pre-decisional phases. Excuse-making tactics such as 'intentionality' were employed (see figure 5.1.1, page 182). Respondents agreed that if an act was intentional or without effort and understanding, then indeed it would look bad. Transformed responsibility links were argued by Snyder et al (1983) to be employed to deflect negative perceptions as they came back to the actor. There was a large range and intensity of victim impact statements that respondents employed to distance cheating from any perceptions of it possibly being right. Reference to the third person as mentioned above, may also have been a way of respondents articulating the view that cheating was wrong and is carried out by others.

A picture has been painted in this discussion that those respondents for whom cheating was wrong, were in fact 'pretending' that they felt cheating was wrong and that what they wrote referred to other people and not themselves. Whilst this cannot be claimed as fact, there was a degree of statement inoculation in evidence. In addition, a proportion of the data read as though it

was the received wisdom of teachers, the party line that students had swallowed to be thrown up for such an occasion as a research project. This notion was supported by Fred, an older male focus group member, from the study presented in Chapter 3, who spoke about teachers' perceptions of cheating:

Fred: They think its stupid, they give us this lecture on like ... 'Well if you do this you won't get proper grades' ... same old thing every time ... everyone

These sentiments (*you won't get proper grades*) were echoed frequently in the decision model data set.

It would appear therefore that there are many facets of the cheating literature than can be used to explain the model that has been developed. Of the theories briefly compared to the model, neutralization perhaps fared least well (Sykes and Matza, 1957). This may well have been because the model of neutralization was designed to explain only excuses of cheating after the event. Whatever the case, neutralization and other theories have not been sufficient at explaining the decision model in its entirety, which suggests that whether or not students perceive cheating to be right or wrong is not a simple matter, even if the question is!

Person-based and situational factors appeared to be fundamental in decision making regarding cheating. Indeed, Murdock, Hale and Weber (2001) reported that the academic subject of study was also a situation which affected the frequency of reported cheating, which if transposed into the present model, may have affected the decision about whether or not cheating was wrong. The subject of study (maths, science, etc) was not mentioned in these data. The subject of study is probably a situational determinant of cheating. If it had been mentioned by respondents it would almost certainly have been placed in the first half of the model with the assessment event situational determinants. Murdock et al also reported that cheating could not be predicted without reference to social motivations. Such motives were found in the first half of the model, but were more prevalent in the second half of the model where person-based variables (victim impact statements) featured more strongly.

5.7.3 Conclusions

The method of data collection and analysis whilst lengthy and complicated have resulted in an emergent theory of student cheating. It should be remembered that for data such as these,

several and not one chapter would usually be devoted to an exploration of the development and description of the model. The aims of this study have been no more ambitious than those of the other chapters, because of the method of analysis, in order to do justice to the corpus, this chapter has been slightly longer.

The emergent theory, whilst only at the level of a model has been used to demonstrate the interrelations between the perceptions of cheating that existed in the minds of the students (Ashworth, Bannister and Thorne, 1997). The perception that cheating can be both right and wrong has been incorporated into a model which transcended personality-only theories (such as locus of control) and provided a more grounded explanation of perceptions of cheating than the generic models of excuse-making and neutralization.

The model has limitations in that evidence to support the inclusion of some categories was superficial. Whilst triangulation was employed by returning to the archival data of the focus groups, further research is required before the model can be considered truly grounded (see section 5.6.1, internal validity). Grounding the model would be another PhD in itself.

The model was taken back to the original thesis population (Guides and Scouts). In an *exploration* of how best to test the decision model (and thus develop the model into a truly grounded theory), Guides and Scouts were asked various questions to ascertain whether or not they agreed with the categories and concepts comprising the current model. This process reflected Strauss and Corbin's (1990) 'understanding' component of a good model. These findings are presented in Chapter 8.

The focus of the next chapter is in exploring some of the person-based and situational determinants of cheating in more detail. Of interest is the role of parents in influencing academic pressures and the role of reasons given by *others* for cheating in determining the severity, acceptability and perceived frequency of cheating.

6

Study 4



“Cheating is a pervasive problem in education. When adolescents learn in environments that stress competition and grades, some students may begin to see cheating as a means of survival in such contexts.” (Anderman, Griesinger and Westerfield, 1998, p89)

Predictors of cheating: the influence of parents and peers

6.1 Introduction

The aims of this study were to examine the role of parents in adolescent cheating and to further examine the perceptions of cheating as a function of behaviour type and reason for cheating.

These aims were achieved by means of a questionnaire battery that included scales relating to parental styles, assessment anxiety and scenarios depicting reasons for cheating in a variety of situations.

The scales in the battery were developed specifically for this study, although the measures of assessment anxiety were modified from Watson (1988). The rationale for including the role of the parent in cheating related to the cheating research evidence that parents may be responsible in part for pressuring children to achieve higher and higher academic standards (e.g., Calabrese and Cochran, 1990).

In Studies 1, 2 and 3 mention was made of students' reasons for cheating that included parental pressure for good grades. Media attention of the pressures from parents for their offspring to do well in order to gain entry to the best schools and colleges has increased since the introduction of league tables, SATs and the re-emphasis of the importance of the 11+ ('Has the culture of tests gone too far?', Times Educational Supplement, 2001).

These pressures have been reported to manifest (amongst other things) as exam anxiety ('How it feels to be a human guinea-pig', Times Educational Supplement, 2001). Cheating, as indicated in the opening quotation may be a survival technique in the face of such pressures.

Both parental involvement and assessment anxiety with regard to cheating have received little direct attention from researchers of cheating. It was therefore necessary to review the general literature on these topics to provide a firm basis on which to design the present study. The three main areas of educational literature that were included in this study were parental styles with regard to education, assessment anxiety and reasons for cheating. The literature relating to reasons for cheating was discussed in depth in Chapter 5 and therefore the two remaining areas are now considered in turn, beginning with parental styles.

6.1.1 Parental styles.

Parental style research has centred around the degree to which parents support and control their children (Amato, 1990). Much research has been based upon the foundation studies of Baumrind (1972) and Maccoby and Martin (1983) who investigated how values, behaviours and standards were communicated by parents to children.

Baumrind developed a scale for assessing parental support and control that identified three parenting styles. The first parenting style, authoritarianism, was characterised by parents who demanded a lot from their children, but who gave little back in return. The second parenting style, permissiveness, was characterised by a high degree of tolerance from parents with few sanctions or requests for mature behaviour. The third parenting style, authoritative, was exemplified by expectations of mature behaviour, clear boundary setting, open communications between child and parent and the encouragement of independence. Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts and Fraligh (1987) undertook a series of studies to investigate parenting styles and their effects on an adolescent population's academic behaviour.

Significant correlations were found between parenting style and grades, with negative relationships between authoritarian parenting styles and grades and permissive parenting styles and grades. A positive relationship was found between authoritative parenting and grades. However, reported coefficients did not reach above ± 0.23 and not all families in the study could be categorised into one parenting style. Of those families who used more than one style, the combinations were associated with lower grades compared with families who employed a single parenting style.

Steinberg, Elmen and Mounts (1989) furthered the work of Dornbusch et al (1987). They also found in their sample of 120 families (with first born children between the ages of 11 and 16 years old), that authoritativeness led to an increase in school grades over the period of the study (one year). In addition, those adolescents who described their parents at the beginning of the study as granting higher psychological autonomy and exerting greater behavioural control further outperformed their peers. It was also found that all of the measures of authoritative parenting (especially firm control) contributed to the psychosocial maturity scores of the adolescents; which in turn was positively related to academic success. Psychosocial maturity, an 'outcome variable', was composed of self-reliance, work orientation and identity. Outcome variables are distinct from measures of parenting, but are thought to be indirectly or directly affected by parenting styles.

Lambourn, Mounts, Steinberg and Dornbusch (1991) studied a similar number of adolescents to Dornbusch et al using Maccoby and Martin's classification system. They investigated the outcome profiles of adolescents from different parenting style groups. It was found that the greatest differences in adolescents' profiles were between those adolescents who described their parents as either neglectful or authoritative. Authoritative parenting appeared to foster adolescents who were well adjusted, competent and confident in their academic abilities and less likely to get into trouble. Neglectful parenting appeared to foster the opposite. The authoritarianly raised adolescents were characterised as obedient, conformist, able at school and non-delinquent, whilst having lowered self-confidence in their social and academic abilities.

Steinberg, Lambourn, Darling, Mounts and Dornbusch (1994) carried out a one-year follow up on the sample of adolescents used in the Lambourn et al (1991) study. Over the one year, authoritative and indulgently raised adolescent's academic self-concept increased, whilst school orientation decreased. Overall, the authoritatively raised adolescents were described as better adjusted and benefiting more positively than the other three adolescent groups, with the neglectful group faring by far the worst. It was concluded that although the behaviour of the adolescents would have had an impact on the way their parents treated them, the parental practices themselves were responsible for a substantial proportion of school behaviour. Indeed, Evans and Craig (1990) found that on average, cheating was more prevalent during middle adolescence (secondary school) than late adolescence (further and higher education age group). Many studies based on the work of Davis et al (1992) have also found similar cheating age trends. Perhaps parental influences reach as far as influencing student cheating.

Steinberg et al (1992), using the same data pool as Lambourn et al (1991), to investigate whether over time, parenting practices (in particular, educational involvement and parental encouragement) led to improved academic performance as suggested by Dornbusch et al (1987) and Steinberg et al (1989). In their analysis they concentrated upon measures of authoritative parenting. Adolescents from the pure authoritative families (highest quartile) reported higher levels of school performance and school engagement than the other three categories, with the non-authoritative group adolescents performing least well. It was found that school involvement by parents ('attending school programs, helping with course selection and monitoring student progress', p1279) was an important mediator between levels of authoritative parenting and school success; non-authoritative parenting negatively moderated this, with fewer positive effects of school involvement evident in this group. It was suggested that for this latter group of adolescents, the quality of parental involvement may have had detrimental effects on academic performance.

Educational encouragement (overt and covert encouragement towards academic excellence) was not found to have an effect on academic performance. Whilst the role of parenting here is not clear, the relationship of parenting to cheating may be reflected in adolescent attitudes to education. Davis, Noble, Zak and Dreyer (1994) found that both American and Australian students admitted to more cheating in high school (secondary school) than college. In addition it was found that both samples of students 'knew' the value of education and how it 'should' be articulated, but when these attitudes were examined more closely they were found not to be supported by a matching set of behaviours. Whilst both samples of students reported that they were learning oriented, the American students were far more affected by external factors such as pressures for good grades, which, although not suggested by Davis et al, may stem in part from the types of encouragement given by parents. Indeed, Michaels and Miethe (1989) found evidence to suggest that a primary motivator for future cheating behaviour in undergraduates was the pressure from parents to achieve better grades.

The longitudinal parental influence studies discussed here all had methodological weaknesses. Not all of the studies outlined (here and subsequently) gained access to adolescents and their parents. Some chose to rely solely on adolescents' reports of their parents' behaviour.

Paulson (1994) took issue with the above studies because they measured parenting styles only from the adolescent perspective. In her study of 247 families (25% response rate), she assessed parenting style through measures of demandingness and responsiveness. She also included a separate measure of parental involvement to provide a platform through which to

compare her findings with those of previous researchers. The adolescents (14 year olds) and their parents were required to fill in the same questionnaire. The adolescents were asked how they perceived their parents behaved towards them, whilst the parents gave perceptions of their own behaviour. Moderate correlations were found between parents' ratings and their children's. The best predictors of academic achievement were gained from the adolescents' ratings of their parents' behaviours. Measures of parental involvement were found to predict achievement 'above and beyond parenting style alone', (p262). The higher levels of parental involvement were likely to be found in the authoritative families (characterised as high in both demandingness and responsiveness).

Kelly and Worrell (1978) used a parent behaviour inventory in their study of adolescent cheating. Their study was an example of research which used individual variables as opposed to integrated models to describe parenting. Despite this, Kelly and Worrell found similar results to Steinberg et al (1992). For example, Kelly and Worrell found that adolescent females who cheated viewed their parents as lacking in warmth and communication. Their mothers were also viewed as lacking in involvement, whilst being highly controlling. In addition, female cheaters reported that their fathers were more likely to pressure them into achieving well academically at school. Interestingly, no parental characteristics were found to correlate with male cheating behaviour. This may have been due to the use of the adolescent perceptions of parental behaviours and not measures of actual parental practices.

Symbolic interactionism was suggested by Amato (1990) to be responsible for perceived differences in adult and parent perceptions of the intentions of parental actions. 'Children's perceptions of parental behaviours are seen as critical determinants of their own actions and reactions' (p614). Many studies find little agreement between parents and their children on many family interaction characteristics. This may be due to the adolescents' interpretation of the events. An example that Amato gives to explain symbolic interactionism relates to an adolescent being told that they cannot stay out late. The adolescent may either think that this is a caring attitude or a restrictive attitude. The interpretation determines feelings towards the parents and the reaction to the parents.

The findings of Kelly and Worrell (1978), Paulson (1994) and Steinberg et al (1992) regarding school involvement (and to a lesser extent, parental pressure) suggest that the level of parental involvement may not be the important factor, rather it may be the *type or how* of parental involvement which is important.

Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993) concluded that it was the *how* of parenting that was an important. In their study of nine to 12 year old children they found that parenting styles which were more controlling and critical were associated with poorer academic performance. They used three family styles which mapped onto Baumrind's and Maccoby and Martin's classification of parenting styles. Ginsburg and Bronstein found that school involvement, described in terms of 'surveillance of homework' produced contradictory results to those of Steinberg et al (1992). The more parents oversaw, helped and reminded their children to complete homework, the more children relied on external sources to evaluate their academic behaviours and the lower their grades became. Michaels and Miethe (1989) found that parental pressure to raise grades and peer influences to cheat were the most important predictors of cheating in their model of deviance suggesting that parental involvement in education is not necessarily beneficial. They also found that 77.5% of their sample of 685 undergraduates reported cheating on homework. However, Ginsberg and Bronstein termed a specific aspect of involvement 'over controlling communication' and noted that 'in a broader sense, [parental involvement] has beneficial implications for children's cognitive, behavioural and psychological development' (p1469). It was also found that encouragement for hard work was related to an increase in intrinsic motivation and academic performance.

It is difficult to compare the findings of Steinberg et al (1992) and Ginsburg and Bronstein (1993). Different methodologies, parental classifications and slightly different age groups were used (grades 9 to 12 versus 6 to 9). Both studies had respondents of 11-12 years old (grade 9) but neither study found any age effects. It is possible that when responding to such questionnaires parents behaved in a socially desirable manner and reported pressuring their children more than they did in reality. Conversely they may well pressurise their children more in real life than they would like to. League tables and other public 'motivators' may be a 'push' for parents. They may feel the need to be seen to be behaving in what they perceive to be an appropriate manner regarding their children's academic progress. How the children achieve the increase in academic achievement needs to be studied, for it may well include cheating. One of the difficulties of this type of research is attrition rate. Weinberger, Tublin, Ford and Feldman (1990) found that children and families who chose not to participate in their research shared a series of often negative characteristics, such as having problematic relationships.

Attributions for success and failure formed part of Glasgow, Dornbusch, Troyer, Steinberg and Ritter's (1997) research into parenting styles and educational outcomes. The educational outcomes were classroom engagement (paying attention), time spent on homework, self reports of

academic achievement and educational expectations (how far would participants like to take their education). Attributions were termed dysfunctional if adolescents felt that their successes or failures were due to lack of ability, luck, teacher bias or task difficulty. Success and failure attributions described here as dysfunctional are similar to the fear of failure and fear of success personality traits. Researchers such as Monte and Fish (1980) found that fear of failure female undergraduates consistently cheated across all levels of task difficulty. Monte and Fish suggested that this may have been due to an extreme need to avoid evaluative tasks. Even when set tasks were easy for the participants to succeed at they did not allow their ability the opportunity to let them down. This together with the evidence presented in Study 5 regarding locus of control suggests that again, parental influence may have a role to play in school performance.

Parental influence therefore appears to be in the form of the support and control they give to their children. This can be manifested in many ways to impact on educational performance. Involvement and encouragement appear to be important for academic success, particularly in the parental style of authoritativeness. However, the degree of involvement (e.g., monitoring of homework) may be positively or negatively received by the child, particularly if explored within the framework of symbolic interactionism.

The above research has been used to demonstrate the links between parental style and academic performance. It is a short step to hypothesise that these may be significantly related to cheating. Authoritativeness, it would appear, is the model which parents should be encouraged to follow in order to help their children achieve academic success. It is also encouraging to note that parental practices may still have a positive impact throughout adolescence, (although the converse would also have to be considered).

An indication about cultural differences between non-English and English parenting styles may be found in the work of Foxcroft and his colleagues (Foxcroft and Lowe, 1991, Foxcroft and Lowe, 1995; Foxcroft, Lowe and May, 1994). They are some of the few UK researchers to study parenting styles. Much of their work was based on Maccoby and Martin's (the dimensions were reworded as family support and control). However, the focus of research was on the adolescent delinquent behaviour of alcohol mis-use. Foxcroft, Lowe and May (1994) concluded that alcohol use should not be held up as a delinquent behaviour for a large proportion of the adolescents in the study. It was found that alcohol use and the relaxed parental control regarding it were part of a passage of growth into adulthood. These findings are included here, because, according to Foxcroft et al they support the much earlier findings of Devereux (1970): American parenting styles

tended more toward high control and high support, whereas the UK parenting styles were lower in support and looser in control. UK adolescents were reported to drink more than their US counterparts, but this was not perceived to be problem drinking. Cheating is often included in measures of delinquent behaviour and whilst no behaviours other than alcohol and banned substances were measured in the Foxcroft et al studies, they may shed light on this area of academic 'delinquency'. Evans, Craig and Mietzel (1993) studied the academic and cheating behaviour performance of students from three countries; Germany, Costa Rica and the USA. They found that there were marked differences between the US and Costa Rican student perceptions and the German student perceptions. German students reported far less cheating and reported that much of the cheating which did go on was inconsequential. This difference in cultural attitudes may stem partly from the family. The interesting perspective in this case however, relates to the work of Devereux (1970). He studied English, German and American adolescents and concluded that the German families were far more like the American family culture in their levels of control and support.

As already noted, parental involvement forms part of the authoritative parenting style. Involvement includes monitoring of progress both at home and school. Parental involvement in homework may or may not be an important area of cheating research. This is the area that intuitively, for parents, is most closely related to actual school cheating. Parental help with homework was construed as cheating by participants in the focus group study, if the parents did all of the work for the child (Study 1). Homework may also be monitored by parents and cheating by adolescents condoned or condemned. Cooper, Lindsay, Nye and Greathouse (1998) reported that parents perceived that their children (10-18 years old) completed more homework than the children themselves thought they completed. Perkins and Milgram (1996) also found a mismatch between parent and child perceptions. Parents were unaware of their child's learning style and were providing a home environment which was not necessarily conducive to work. Further, Cooper et al found that grades given by teachers were positively related to amount of time spent on homework but not to standardised test scores (e.g., scholastic aptitude tests) (Holmes and Croll, 1989). Students who reported higher achievement scores had more positive attitudes towards homework and completed a greater amount of homework. Cooper et al suggested as a result of this finding, that parents had an important role to play in homework and academic performance. Indeed, if, as is suggested that parents do not really know what their children do regarding home-work, then they may also not realise when acceptable behaviours are and are not taking place; viz, cheating.

Bushweller (1999) reported that 80% of students said they had cheated, whilst 63% of parents reported that their children had never cheated.

Homework has been in and out of vogue many times during this century. It is currently returning to the fore, with advocates arguing that it can foster cognitive development and ensure that the syllabi of the various mandatory exams (GCSE, SAT, A-level) are covered. The results from Study 1 (Chapter 3) served to illustrate that the participants of the focus groups were not averse to parental help on all types of homework. When assessed coursework for formal examinations is the focus of parental help, it cannot arguably be anything but cheating. Despite the obvious scope for cheating in the homework arena, as discussed in Study 2 (Chapter 4), there is little cheating research on the topic. Faulkner and Blyth (1995) asked whether homework was important to academic success. In their review paper they concluded that British children could benefit from homework, but that not all do. Stein (1988) found that a general increase in home-school contact led to improved success rates. In contrast Toomey (1989) suggested that parents who were not confident that they could help their children in tackling homework, fostered a negative view towards it, producing an increasingly failure oriented and 'homework-is-not-important' perception in their children.

In conclusion parental influence would appear to be important in academic performance. The specific evidence regarding the influence of parental involvement in encouraging adolescents to perform well in both school and homework has served to highlight how a variety of behaviours linked to involvement, may have both positive and negative effects on performance and any subsequent cheating. Much of the research discussed has been non-UK, which is all the more reason why factors such as parental involvement and neglectful parenting styles (associated with delinquent acts such as cheating) need to be included in the study of adolescent cheating.

Whilst the research discussed has focused on good and poor educational parenting styles, it was the cheating research that highlighted the parental pressures reported to be felt by adolescents. Montor (1971) reported that adolescent interviewees said that the reason they cheated was parental pressure for good grades.

Pressures to achieve well are on the increase. Blatchford (1996) reported that British inner city school students felt that doing well at school was important for career prospects. The amount of effort that students are expected to demonstrate in order to meet such goals is on the increase (Moriarty, 2001). Harris, Wallace and Rudduck (1995) found that whilst British year 10 students did not enjoy their studies they worked hard because it was important to do so. Some students found

coping strategies of their own to deal with the pressures, whilst others relied on parents to help them, for example, to revise.

Calabrese and Cochran (1990) suggested that parental pressure may cause cheating to be acceptable because it is equated with survival. Williamson and Cullingford (1998) found that the less British adolescents felt that important others cared about their academic progress, the more alienated they were reported to be. Calabrese (1987) suggested that alienation was caused by the 'pace of life' which schools and families fostered. Calabrese cited year 5 students discussing career choices with parents as an example of this. In the UK, funding has been recently introduced to develop primary school career services. Calabrese argued that American elementary school students may have found such careers interviews threatening.

Calabrese and Cochran (1990) suggested that it was mostly affluent middle class males who were alienated in the school environment. Amato (1990) reported that secondary school students focused more heavily on the controlling behaviours of their parents (vs. primary school students who focused on parental support). This reflects the adolescents' greater number of support mechanisms (friends etc) and the need to gain independence from the parents. Amato concluded that having parents perceived to be high in control was something which was beneficial depending upon age. Children require a lot of control when younger, whereas adolescents want less control. The same parenting controlling style was found to be both benign and damaging. Alienated students are reported to form groups of like minded individuals (Emler and Reicher, 1995). Therefore it is possible that developmental differences exist in perceived parental pressures and indeed, in levels of cheating. Older secondary school students were reported to cheat more by Feldman and Feldman (1967), McLaughlin and Ross (1989) and Murdock, Hale and Weber (2001).

Peer pressure may also play an important role in the educational environment with regard to cheating. Gardner and Melvin (1988) claimed that beliefs about others' cheating behaviour explained a proportion of the variance in self-reported cheating. McCabe, Trevino and Butterfield (1999) also found that peer beliefs were a contributory factor in student cheating as did Evans and Craig (1990). Year 7-12 students who cheated were lower in academic self-ability, avoided effort, had friends who cheated and felt pressured to do well (Evans and Craig, 1990). The amount that peer beliefs affects cheating may be small however, as Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clarke (1986) found that noticing others cheating had minimal discriminatory power in determining self-reports of cheating. Micheals and Miethe (1989) reported that help from friends to cheat was second after parental pressures for good grades as reasons for cheating. Björkland and Wenestram (1999)

reported that 92% of respondents in their survey thought that their peers cheated whilst only 75% of the respondents themselves said they had cheated. This supports the suggestion of Stevens (1984) that survey respondents perceived themselves to be more ethical (in terms of cheating) than their peers.

However, Whitley and Kost (1999) investigated perceptions of cheating across a range of scenarios. They suggested that peers who assisted cheating were perceived less negatively. Indeed Roberts and Rabinowitz (1992) suggested that a person who was perceived to have a need to cheat was seen as somewhat less of a cheater.

6.1.2. Test Anxiety.

Test anxiety may be an important component of cheating. Pressure to achieve good grades may increase test anxiety in a significant proportion of students. Whitley (1998) in his meta-analysis of cheating research, found a moderate relationship between cheating and pressure to achieve good grades. A method of dealing with test anxiety may well be to cheat. As discussed, fear of failure is a component of test anxiety as well as a personality trait in its own right. Fear of failure has been linked to cheating (e.g. Monte and Fish, 1980). In some instances feelings of guilt about past cheating may have masqueraded as test anxiety. Turner de Palmer, Madey and Bornschein (1995) found that undergraduates who reported feeling guilty about past cheating behaviours were more likely to cheat in the future. Shelton and Hill (1969) administered the Alpert-Haber test anxiety scale to year 10 and 11 students. They found that cheating was weakly associated with measures of debilitating anxiety, as did Antion and Michael (1983). Conversely however, Bronzaft, Stuart and Blum (1973) found no relationship between cheating and test anxiety in undergraduates, but that good students cheated less than poor students.

Worry and emotionality form two of the main components of test anxiety (Hembree, 1988; Williams, 1996). Worry is considered to have the greater impact on test performance and relates to fears about failing. Emotionality is concerned with the physiological measures of arousal (Rost and Wild, 1994). Anderman, Greisinger and Westerfield (1998) reported that year 6, 7 and 8 students who worried more were more likely to cheat, but not to have strong beliefs either way about the acceptability or severity of cheating. Chappell and Overton (1998) used the Spielberger test anxiety inventory (1980) in a study of test anxiety, reasoning and parenting styles. The inventory contained items that sought the adolescent (aged between 10 and 12 years old) experience of a variety of reactions to examination situations. Unsurprisingly, the adolescents from the non-authoritative

backgrounds reported a greater number of reactions and thus higher levels of test anxiety. However, significantly lower levels of test anxiety were only associated with the adolescents of parents who were categorised as extremely authoritative. A possible explanation given for the lowered performance of the adolescents who experienced test anxiety was that intrusive off-task thoughts affected concentration. Chappell and Overton argued that critical parents with high expectations may negatively impact upon children from pre-school onwards, causing them to fear failure in situations where they may have been evaluated by others.

Williams (1996) put forward contradictory evidence to suggest that test anxiety can be just as prevalent and detrimental in groups of high achieving adolescents. The extent to which it affects performance however, may be minimal, as Williams reported that test anxiety only accounted for 10% of the variance in performance. Wolters and Pintrich (1998) found that test anxiety only accounted for 6% of the variance in actual academic performance. Perhaps more variance in performance scores would be accounted for if cheating were included in the equation. High performance scores obtained through cheating would not reflect a valid measure of test anxiety. The researchers did not take this possibility into account when designing their dependent variables. They similarly found differences in academic performance between adolescents (11-15 years old) who were high in self reported test anxiety (higher grades) compared to low in test anxiety (lower grades).

Martin (1997) studied Oxford University undergraduates and found that short-term anxiety levels rose significantly during the days leading up to an examination and that females reported higher levels of anxiety than males. Martin also measured levels of examination anxiety and grading anxiety. Mellanby, Martin and O'Doherty (2000) also reported that Oxford University female students reported higher exam related anxiety levels and that in males, exam related stress was associated with a lower work ethic.

Therefore it appears that anxiety may be an important moderator of academic performance. Whether or not it and how it impacts on cheating is unclear.

6.1.3 Aims of the present study

The reason why parents need to be included in the study of cheating, it is hoped, has been made clear. Parents affect the behaviour of their children well into late adolescence. Their influence may cover study habits, academic motivation and factors affecting performance.

The impact of parental style on exam anxiety and on cheating was investigated. It was hypothesised that parent measures of high academic pressure would be related to an increased incidence of cheating in their children and an increase in reported exam anxiety. In previous chapters, exams and tests were discussed as being separate assessment events for students. Therefore, two measures of assessment anxiety were taken to test the hypothesis that reported exam anxiety would be higher than reported test anxiety.

In order to assess parental styles fully, measures from both adolescents and their parents were taken. In accordance with symbolic interactionism, perceptions of parental styles, it was hypothesised, would differ between parents and adolescents. Further, in accordance with Amato (1990) who reported that adolescents perceived less parental support than younger children, it was hypothesised that younger adolescents would have higher support scores than older adolescents and lower control scores than older adolescents.

A measure of cheating that reflected the pressures placed on students was included. Thirty scenarios were developed that included a description of a cheating behaviour and an excuse as to why the cheating behaviour was acceptable. Seven broad reasons for excusing cheating were given; 'fear of failure', 'opportunistic cheating', 'poor study planning', 'cheating as a revision tactic', 'laziness', 'everyone does it' and 'the work was not important'. These groupings were largely based upon findings from Studies 1, 2 and 3 and related to the educational environment. 'Poor study planning', cheating as a revision tactic' and 'the work was not important' were allied to the work avoidance goal orientation (e.g., Seifert, 1997) identified in Studies 2 and 3 and the findings of British researchers, Harris et al (1995), who reported that students found problems in organising, making notes and time management in relation to examinations and coursework. A range of cheating situations were covered with several relating to homework. This was to reflect the nature of parental involvement in education. It was hypothesised, in accordance with the findings of the previous studies, that homework cheating would be perpetrated more frequently by adolescents. Further, parents would view these behaviours with which they may have most contact as less serious and more acceptable than other school based cheating behaviours.

These measures of cheating served two purposes. Firstly, adolescents' perceptions of their own behaviours, the behaviours of their friends and the behaviour of the people in their class were assessed. It was hypothesised that respondents would report the perception that others cheated more frequently than they did.

Secondly severity of cheating behaviours was assessed in Study 2. No measures of the severity or acceptability of cheating behaviours as perceived by parents have been reported in the literature. However, that parents act as peer accomplices on homework and coursework has been noted. Therefore, the cheating scenarios were used to assess the parents' perception of the severity and acceptability of student cheating.

Whilst age differences in student cheating have been reported in the literature, gender differences in secondary school cheating have not (apart from Hartshome and May, 1928). Therefore it was hypothesised that younger adolescents would report cheating less than older adolescents and that there would be no gender differences.

6.2 Method

6.2.1 Participants, method of recruitment and consent

Participants

Two target populations were selected for this study. Population 1 were parents with children at secondary school. Population 2 were the children of the parents in population 1. The age of the children ranged from secondary school years 7 to 11. This age boundary was increased at the upper end, to reflect recruitment problems (see below). The parents and children were recruited as dyads in order for concordance data to be gathered on parental styles. Participants were recruited during an 11 month period between March 2000 and February 2001. One hundred and forty two parent-child dyads participated.

Recruitment

Several recruitment methods were identified and evaluated for use in this study. A mail shot using the electoral register as a sampling base was not adopted because the anticipated cost of sending out resources outweighed the potential response rate benefits.

Schools were considered as a recruitment channel, but were not initially approached. During previous research with the secondary school population, the researcher had found that headteachers were reluctant to allow pupils to participate in self-report cheating research. This aspect of cheating research was considered to be sensitive and a potential source of negative publicity for schools.

In the event, recruitment difficulties were experienced and schools were approached to distribute letters home to parents requesting participants. One school agreed to allow a total of 200 contact letters to be distributed equally between secondary school years 7 to 11.

The central method of recruitment adopted was word of mouth and snowballing. It was originally intended that the target populations be restricted to Devon. Devon was the catchment area for the majority of participants in studies 2 and 3.

People whom the researcher knew personally or with whom the researcher worked were asked to suggest names of friends and colleagues who had children of secondary school age. The contacts that were generated were then in turn asked to suggest names of other parents with children of secondary school age and so on.

This method generated very few contacts. The residential area of the target population was therefore extended to the whole of England and Wales. Scotland was excluded because the Scottish education system is very different to that of England and Wales. The age of children in the study was also extended to include those students who had taken GCSEs in the Summer of 2000.

Additional notices recruiting participants for the study were placed on the Internet and in a local newsagent. Towards the end of the study, the list of contacts that had been generated were re-contacted and asked if they could supply further contact names.

Consent

The parents of the children that agreed to participate in the study were asked to sign a consent form on behalf of their child. The covering letter explained the nature of the study and requested that the child be free to decide about their participation. Questionnaire packs were sent out to participants only after the consent form had been returned to the researcher. Further details are given in section 6.2.4.

6.2.2 Sample size and return rates

In total, there were 97 questions in the parent questionnaire battery and 101 questions in the adolescent questionnaire battery. One of the key aims of the study was to develop a basic tool for measuring parenting styles of adolescents relating to education. Whilst the tool would function as a psychometric test in name, it would not be a tool developed using the full range of methods applied in psychometric scale construction. The development of a fully tested psychometric

measure was beyond the scope of this thesis. Nevertheless, care was taken where possible, to ensure good research methodology was observed.

Thirty-seven items were written to sample the content areas of parental style. Item-case (participant) ratios can be a minimum of number of items + 1 (e.g., Rust and Golombok, 1999) but recommended item-participants ratios of 1:2 and 1:10 can be found in the literature (e.g., Cooper, 1998). This meant that technically, a total of 38 parent-child dyads would need to be recruited. However, it was felt prudent to sample above the level of the overall total number of items, especially as the adolescent questionnaire battery included an existing psychometric measure of test and exam anxiety, at a total of 34 items. Therefore, the minimum number of parent-child dyads to be recruited was 102, which reflected the overall total number of items in the larger battery, plus one.

Sixty-seven percent of respondents contacted using the snowballing method returned completed questionnaires (both parent and child), 16% of the 200 letters sent directly to a secondary school resulted in completed questionnaires. The overall response rate for all methods was 43%.

6.2.3 Materials

An aim of this study was to measure, in both parents and adolescents, parenting styles; adolescent cheating frequencies and perceptions of cheating and of adolescents' test and exam anxiety. Of these three themes only assessment anxiety had an appropriate existing research base and pre-existing questionnaires that were readily available and suitable for the current study. Questions relating to parenting styles and reported frequency of cheating were therefore developed specifically for this study.

The parent battery contained three sections measuring parenting style, perceptions of the seriousness of cheating and perceptions of the acceptability of cheating. The adolescent battery contained two sub-sections measuring parenting style and perceived frequency of cheating and a sub-section each covering test and exam anxiety, giving a total of four sub-sections.

As far as possible all sub-sections within the two batteries were the same. Similar themes and phrasing were used. Differences in question style took into account readability and experiences. For example, questions were written in a manner that an 11 year old could read and understand; adolescents were asked if they had cheated in various ways at school, whereas

parents were only asked to report their perceptions about the seriousness and acceptability of cheating.

(a) The questions

The final parent version of the battery was made up of five sections and the adolescent version, six (both versions including demographic data sections). A description of the sections with the similarities and differences between the two batteries is outlined in table 6.2.1 below. Full details of the questionnaire batteries are given in appendices 7 and 8.

Table 6.2.1. Description of the question sub-sections across the two batteries.

Parent Battery	Adolescent Battery
Demographic information about the person filling in the sections; their marital status, occupation and children's genders, ages and years in school.	Demographic information about the school attended, gender, age and year in school.
Parental style: responses obtained about the child who completed the adolescent battery	Parental style: questions the same as the parent version, but altered to allow responses to reflect the direction of the relationship, i.e., child reporting about the parent's behaviour towards the child
Perceptions of the <i>seriousness</i> of school-based cheating scenarios. Perceptions of the <i>acceptability</i> of the same school-based cheating scenarios.	Frequency of cheating for school-based cheating scenarios; i) <i>self-reported frequency of cheating,</i> ii) <i>perceived frequency of cheating by friends,</i> iii) <i>perceived frequency of cheating by people in their class.</i>
No data collected on exam and test anxiety in the child.	Watson's (1988) Achievement anxiety test: <i>exams.</i> Altered to be parsed by a younger population. Watson's (1988) Achievement anxiety test: <i>tests.</i> Altered to be parsed by a younger population.
Perception of progress of child at school in Maths, English and Science; perception of child's favourite and least favourite study subjects.	Perception of own progress at school in Maths, English and Science; perception of favourite and least favourite study subjects.

(b) Parenting style

Parent and child dyads were presented with questions assessing parenting styles. These questions were not taken from a pre-existing scale. The literature suggests that there are very few questionnaires which are general measures of parenting style (as opposed to parenting styles towards for example, health issues), or parenting measures related to the educational environment. Those that exist are mainly American. The cultural differences which may exist between the USA and Britain and the non-generalizability of the scales precluded their usage in this instance.

Items for this study on parenting style were therefore generated around dimensions of parental support and control. Support and control form the basis of a majority of the dimensions

which researchers use to measure parenting styles (see introduction to this chapter). The two dimensions of support and control, were treated as bi-polar with high and low poles. It was around these four poles (high and low support and high and low control) that questions were written. In addition, a measure of parental academic pressure toward adolescents was included to enable analysis of the relationship between parenting style and academic behaviour. Parental academic pressure was also treated as a bi-polar dimension (high and low) to maintain a uniform response format across all of the parenting questions and to avoid unnecessary problems of data transformation during analysis.

The three measures of parenting formed the test specification of the scale for which items were generated. The support and control items were generated using the parenting literature as a guide to the types of questions that would be relevant. The academic pressure items were generated again with reference to parenting literature, but also to the cheating literature and to the responses given by participants in the previous studies presented in this thesis. Items were generated using methods suggested in the psychometric test construction literature (e.g., Cooper 1998, Rust and Golombok, 1999). For example, items were checked for double negatives, readability and response set matching. The test specification was piloted to identify additional potential problems. The recommended 100+ items required for the development of a psychometric tool far exceed the number of items generated for the current study. Practical constraints held the number of parental style questions low. For example, the response rate would probably have been a great deal lower if there were over 100 parental style questions in the battery. With these constraints in mind, care was taken to sample items as widely and as accurately as possible across the test specification.

The parenting style items could be scored to produce a profile of levels of parental academic pressure (known hereon as parental pressure), control and support. For example, there were 10 parental pressure questions. Five questions were written from a low pressure perspective and five from a high pressure perspective. An example of a high and a low pressure question are given below.

An example of a high parental academic pressure question.

I feel that it is very important for my child to get the best marks possible all of the time	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	4	3	2	1

An example of a low parental academic pressure question.

It does not bother me if my child fails a class test	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>

This reverse scoring or polarisation has the effect of preventing a fixed response set because five items were scored low to high and five high to low. The scores allocated to each response for the high and low pressure questions are indicated on the above examples in italics. The numerals were not printed on the questionnaire. The way in which all the parental pressure items were written was such that on any question a high score was equivalent to high parental pressure and a low score to low parental pressure.

In the same way, all of the questions in the parenting style sub-section had a four point response format ranging from 1 to 4 with the value label relating to whether the question reflected the high or low pole of the dimension. In total there were 37 parenting style questions, 13 referring to levels of control (7, high; 6 low), 14 to levels of support (7, high; 7 low) and as mentioned in the above example, 10 referring to academic pressure (5, high; 5 low). Examples of the questions and response format for the support and control dimensions are given below. Whilst equal numbers of high and low questions are not a pre-requisite in scale construction, equal numbers were written initially. One was then dropped from the item pool as a result of pilot discussions with parents.

An example of a high control question.

My child is given homework each night. They must sit down and get it done as soon as they come in from school.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	<i>4</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>1</i>

An example of a low control question.

My child is allowed to stay out as late as they feel they want to.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>

An example of a high support question.

I support and help my child in all of their school work	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	<i>4</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>1</i>

An example of a low support question.

Doing well at school is not important to me as long as my child has lots of friends	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	4	3	2	1

The items from the test specification were piloted. The aim of the pilot was not to identify poor items, rather to check for face validity, readability and general errors. As no problems other than poor wording of compound items were identified (one of which was dropped), piloting was limited to three parents and three adolescents.

(c) Perceptions of cheating

Five cheating measures were included in the batteries, two in the parent version and three in the adolescent version. The parental battery included questions on their perception of the seriousness and acceptability of cheating, whilst the adolescent battery included a survey of quasi-self reported cheating behaviour and perceptions of the frequency of cheating behaviour of friends and people in the adolescents' class.

Thirty scenarios each describing a cheating incident along with a reason for the cheating were written. The 30 scenarios were sub divided into seven rationales for cheating. The rationales were developed using the data in Studies 1, 2 and 3. The seven rationales are given below:

1. Cheating as a planned revision technique.
2. Cheating as a response to poor planning.
3. Cheating because the test/ exam is not important.
4. Cheating through fear of failure or academic anxiety.
5. Opportunistic cheating.
6. Cheating through laziness.
7. Cheating because 'everyone does it'.

The scenarios were short descriptions about a named person or persons cheating along with a reason why they cheated. Samples of the scenarios as a function of reason for cheating are given in table 6.2.2.

Table 6.2.2. Sample scenarios as a function of reason for cheating**Fear of failure scenario**

Before a test in class, Anna copies the answers or helpful notes onto her pencil case. It's a good way to make sure she passes.

Opportunistic cheating scenario

Gillian finds the questions for a French vocabulary test on the teacher's desk. As there is no one around, she makes a note of what the questions are.

Poor planning scenario

Emily has to spend time training for swimming competitions at the weekend. She always forgets to do her homework on Sunday and ends up copying from her friends.

Revislon tactics scenario

Ginny carefully chooses where she sits in exams. She likes to be able to spy on the work of others in case she needs an answer to a question.

Laziness scenario

Shama finds it quicker to ask her parents for the answers to her maths homework than to work the answers out herself.

Everyone does it scenario

Esther gets her brother to help her with her maths homework. Teachers understand that pupils need help from their family with coursework.

Not important scenario

David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this because it is not a real exam.

Care was taken to ensure that an even spread of male and female names were used and that the names used were familiar and easy to read. The situations depicted in the scenarios covered in-class tests, end-of-year exams, GCSEs, SATs (standard assessment tests), coursework and ordinary lessons. The range of assessment situations reflected those identified in Study 2 (the four factor model). However, because parents were a focus for this study, items referring to work at home and the involvement of parents were included to a greater extent than by other researchers. To avoid fixed response sets and to allow for analysis of the perceived seriousness of the different types of cheating behaviours, a range of scenarios were written that reflected differences in severity. The findings reported in Study 2 indicated that the cheating behaviours could be differentiated by seriousness. The findings reported in Study 3 suggested that severity

was in some way manipulated by the rationale assigned to the behaviour by the cheater or observer. These questions aimed to take this into account by varying the nature of the cheating behaviour and the cheating situation.

(i) The parental measures of cheating sub-sections

In the parental battery, the scenarios measured the perceived seriousness and acceptability of cheating in two separate sections of the battery. In each case, all 30 items were included but in a different order to help the parents distinguish between the focus of the responses (severity vs. acceptability) and to prevent fixed responding.

Piloting of the measures of cheating sub-sections

The perceived seriousness and acceptability of each scenario is open to debate. Initially, a selection of items were written which were felt to sample a range of severity and acceptability. Whilst these scenarios would not be used to develop a psychometric scale, the good practice outlined in the test specification phase of the parenting style questionnaire was employed for the whole questionnaire battery. In order to check that a range of seriousness and acceptability was included in all of the items, a series of judges (10 parents) were asked to place each scenario along the 4 point scales shown below. The judges were asked to rate the scenarios twice, once for seriousness and once for acceptability.

Rating scale for 'Seriousness'.

David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this as it is not a real exam.

Very serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
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Rating scale for 'Acceptability'.

David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this as it is not a real exam.

Totally unacceptable	Unacceptable	Acceptable	Completely acceptable
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As was anticipated, fewer items fell at the acceptable and less serious ends of the scales than at the 'very serious' and 'totally unacceptable' ends of the scale. Items were removed or re-written to try and reduce the skew and represented to the judges, whilst maintaining a spread of items across the seven reasons for cheating mentioned above. However, the changes did not appear to have much impact upon the skew. Research into the perceptions of the seriousness of cheating has found that few behaviours are rated as not at all serious (e.g. Davis et al 1992; Newstead et al 1996). Indeed, those behaviours that are, such as plagiarism and inventing data are often not understood by secondary school students. However, the lack of an even distribution across response scales in such research has not prevented differentiation between different types of cheating. Therefore, it was felt that having a skew would not be a problem for analysis in the current study. Despite the presence of the skew, every effort was made to write items that would sample the different levels of severity and acceptability.

For the acceptability scale however, behaviours centred heavily around the 'Totally unacceptable' and 'Unacceptable' end of the scale. Discussion with the judges suggested that some way of stretching out the unacceptable end of the scale was required. This was dealt with by keeping the response format interval, altering the phrasing of the scale to reflect the situation in each scenario and altering the layout of the scale. A change from a horizontal layout usually associated with interval measures to a vertical tick box response format was adopted. This layout can be seen below.

An example of an acceptability question from the perceptions of cheating section.

David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this as it is not a real exam.	<input type="radio"/>	Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.
	<input type="radio"/>	Unacceptable.
	<input type="radio"/>	Acceptable in the circumstances.
	<input type="radio"/>	Acceptable anyway.

Therefore, to summarise the parental measures of cheating sub-sections, the response format of subsection one (seriousness) remained the same after piloting. Instructions referred to the rating of the perceived seriousness of the cheating behaviour in the scenario on a 4 point scale of 'very serious' to 'not at all serious'. Instructions made it clear that it was the *behaviour* which should be the focus for responding and not the *reason* for carrying out the cheating.

The second sub-section of the scenarios (acceptability) focused upon the *reason* for

the cheating and instructions referred to perceptions of the acceptability of the cheating in the scenarios. As indicated above, this latter response format and page layout was re-designed to stretch out the response scale and to continually re-focus the parents towards thinking about the reason and thus acceptability of the cheating in the scenario as opposed to the seriousness of the behaviour.

(ii) The adolescent measures of cheating subsection

In the adolescent version of the battery, three measures of cheating were incorporated. The same scenarios used for the parental measures of attitudes towards cheating were employed for the adolescent measures. For each scenario respondents were asked to 1) report on the frequency with which they perceived themselves to be like the characters in the scenarios, 2) report how often they perceived their friends to be like the characters and 3) report how often they perceived the people in their class to be like the characters.

The measures of the frequencies of reported cheating were obtained indirectly. As can be seen below, respondents were asked to tick 'how like me' the person in the scenario was. This response format combined both the actual behaviour and the reason for cheating, i.e., the behaviour in a given context. This combination method of measuring the frequency of cheating has a greater ecological validity. Descriptions of cheating and the frequency of cheating have been used extensively in the study of cheating (e.g., Evans and Craig, 1990). However, as mentioned elsewhere, data gathered are usually a-contextual, more often than not limited to a few cheating behaviours and almost exclusively non-British. Therefore whilst technically the measure of frequency in the current study was indirect, it was perhaps a more accurate reflection of actual cheating in everyday situations by British adolescents. Realism in this study was high because data from British adolescents (Studies 1, 2 and 3) were used in developing the scenarios.

Piloting of the adolescent measures of cheating subsection

A think aloud protocol was used with a group of Guides and Scouts (ages 10-17). The adolescents were given three different versions of the questionnaire. The versions differed only in the response scale used to indicate the different responses for each perceptual standpoint (Like me, Like my friends, Like the people in my class). One of the versions had 7 numerical anchor points with descriptors at the extremes, one had just descriptors with no numerical anchor points

and one had 4 descriptors in place of numerals ('all of the time', 'some of the time', 'once or twice', 'never'). The final 4 point version was the version of preference. However, the descriptors were not felt by the respondents to be equally spaced. Therefore the descriptors 'always', 'often', 'sometimes' and 'never' were used. The effect of this response scale was to make some of the statements appear unrelated to the response format. However, as this was the preferred format, it was adopted for the final scale.

(d) Measures of test and exam anxiety

Alpert and Haber's Achievement Anxiety Test (AAT, 1960, as cited in Watson, 1988) has an uni-dimensional structure composed of two independent aspects of test anxiety; debilitating and facilitating anxiety. The AAT was adopted because it has been reported (by e.g., Watson, 1988) to differentiate well between participants and therefore be useful in examining 'extreme' groups of participants on other characteristics associated with academic achievement and cheating. For example, Watson selected respondents who were 1 standard deviation above and below the mean to form two extreme groups for comparison with other measures of performance.

The AAT questionnaire is made up of 17 questions, 10 of which refer to debilitating anxiety and 9 to facilitating anxiety. The alpha co-efficient for the total scale was .82 (Watson, 1988), with .79 and .67 respectively for the debilitating anxiety sub scale and the facilitating anxiety sub scale. The questions were written for students in non-British education systems and therefore some phrases required re wording. For example, the word 'grade' was removed and replaced with the word 'marks'. Other changes made included ensuring readability for younger and less able students. The original questions, with the changes are given in appendix 9.

The questions in the AAT use the words 'test' and 'exam.' interchangeably. From the data in studies 2 and 3 it was evident that tests and exams were treated as independent and unrelated events by the students. Therefore, the scale was included twice in the adolescent battery; once using references to exams only and once referring only to tests. By distinguishing between exam and test anxiety a more detailed picture of exam and test cheating may emerge.

(e) Demographic information

The first sub-section of both versions of the battery requested demographic information about the family. The final section of both batteries requested information about the adolescent's progress at school. Some of the questions in the first section were intended to be a concordance

check between parent and child, e.g., asking both parties for information about age and year in school etc. However, the academic progress information was included to isolate any differences in perceived academic success between the parent and child, as well as a concordance check. This may shed light on the nature of the relationship between parental academic pressure and cheating. It is accepted however, that the validity of parental reports of their children's progress may be low, as parents may genuinely not know how their child is performing at school.

The request for information about the child's progress was made at the end of the battery for very straightforward reasons. This kind of information is non-threatening and easy to generate. It hopefully also refocused the adults back onto the child (making them mentally check that they had completed the questions about this particular child and not another of their children). For the adolescent, the focus was back on school progress and not on cheating, exams or the role of their parents! In addition, the layout of the section was very different to all those preceding it. It was short and to the point. This would probably be a very welcome sight in view of the overall length of the battery!

(f) Errors in the questionnaire batteries

Despite rigorous checking, several errors were discovered in the final version of the two questionnaire batteries after they had been returned by the respondents. Two questions from the parental styles sub-section of the parental version had been omitted with two questions duplicated in their place. Approximately 30 parents recognised this error. Most of those 30 responded in the same way to the identical items. Some however, did not! This omission reduced the already modest number of items available for the development of the test.

Two questions from the test and exam anxiety sub-sections had been omitted. Both were from the facilitating anxiety sub scale. This has important ramifications for the analysis of the assessment anxiety questions, especially as the facilitating anxiety scale was found only to have an alpha of .67 by Watson (1988).

The adolescent battery had been sent to reprographics in two forms. One with the test anxiety sub-section featured before the exam anxiety sub-section and the other form, vice versa. However, reprographics duplicated the entire set (150) with exam anxiety before test anxiety, therefore removing any chance of counterbalancing the order of the assessment anxiety sections. A further 60 copies, which were reproduced at a later stage were counterbalanced. It was not until the very end of data collection that the errors of omission and commission were identified, when it

was too late to make changes to the second batch of copies. The copies of the questionnaire batteries that were returned and which came from the corrected batch of 60 were used as a comparison group to identify whether the lack of counterbalancing had a significant effect.

6.2.4 Ethical considerations

During all of the phases of the battery development and data collection ethical practice was a prime consideration. A central reason for this was that the study requested adolescent indirect self-reported cheating behaviour.

Pilot phases

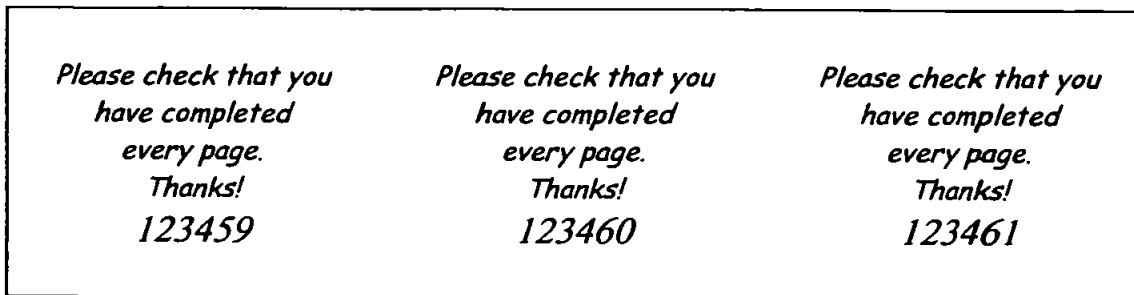
Participants involved in the piloting of the adolescent frequency of cheating (Guides and Scouts on camp) had their unit or troop leader act in loco parentis. It was explained to the leaders and potential participants that the responses to the scenarios were not important; the research focus was how easy or difficult they found the scenarios to read, understand and respond to.

The parents involved in piloting the response scales for the perception of cheating scenarios entered into an open discussion with the researcher about the nature of the task they were to perform and about the overall research in general. In both pilot studies, participants were free not to take part, encouraged to ask questions and were assured anonymity and confidentiality in their participating.

The main study

The ethical considerations for the main phase of data collection were slightly different. Informed consent requires that potential participants understand the full nature of the study in order that they may make a decision as to whether or not they should participate. This decision is made in the light of any potential detriment to themselves such as embarrassment, physical threat of harm etc.

Although all the questionnaires were anonymous, it was necessary to be able to match the parental questionnaire with the corresponding adolescent questionnaire. This was achieved by the use of an iconic code sticker (see figure 6.2.1).

Figure 6.2.1. Examples of the iconic code stickers

For each battery, the sticker was identically worded. However, the ordering of the symbols was unique for each pair of parent-child dyad questionnaire batteries sent out. An excel spreadsheet of consecutive 6 digit numbers was created. The script was then changed to an iconic font to ensure no inadvertent duplication of symbol order.

6.3 Results

6.3.1 Preparatory analyses

Respondents provided data relating to three different measures. Adolescents provided data regarding two forms of assessment anxiety (exam and test), parental style and three measures of the perceptions of 30 cheating scenarios ('Like me', 'Friends' and 'Class'). Parents provided two measures regarding the 30 cheating scenarios (severity and acceptability) and one measure regarding parental style. All respondents were also requested to provide basic demographic information.

Demographic data analyses are presented first to give an indication of the sample characteristics. These data indicate an homogenous sample which may impact on the interpretation of subsequent findings. The suitability of the test and exam anxiety scales is then discussed followed by the description of the parental style scale construction. Data regarding the five measures of cheating are presented in the main analyses.

(a) Parent demographic information

One hundred and thirty two mothers of adolescent respondents and nine fathers of the adolescent respondents participated. Eighty five percent of the families were classed by the parent as nuclear (both biological parents in the family home), 4.2% were step-families and 8.5% were one-parent families. Fifty five percent of parent respondents reported that they had two children, 25% had three children, 10% had one child and 10% had more than three.

Maternal and paternal occupations percentages are given in table 6.3.1. Categories were based on the Standard Occupational Classification 2000 system (Office for National Statistics, 2000). Thirty five percent of mothers were in the teaching profession as lecturers, teachers or learning support assistants, whilst 7% of fathers were in the teaching professions. Teaching staff formed the largest named occupational sub-group. No parents were reported to be unemployed. However, the large percentage of missing father occupation data may mask this. Appendix 10 details the breakdown of categories into occupations.

Table 6.3.1. Parental occupation by gender (%)

Occupation category	Mother occupation	Father occupation
Housewife; student	14.8	-
Professional	37.3	54.9
Associate professional and skilled	13.4	19.0
Administrative and support	32.4	8.5
Unskilled	1.4	-
Missing	.7	17.6
Total	100	100

(b) Adolescent demographic information

Sixty three males and 79 females participated. There was a fairly even spread of year groups represented. Twelve participants recorded that they were in the sixth form. However, as the questionnaire requested participation from students who had taken GCSE examinations in the preceding Summer, these students qualified. The small number of these sixth form respondents were combined for analysis purposes with the year 11 (5th form) data.

Information about the respondents' school was requested (name). Only two respondents declined to provide this information. Over 50 schools were sampled across England and Wales, the majority of which were based in Devon and Cornwall. One school that was deliberately targeted (known as 'School A') provided 25 respondents.

(c) Educational information

Both parents and their children were asked to provide information about the child's perceived ability in Maths, English and Science. Descriptive statistics for these measures are given in table 6.3.2. The responses were reported on a non-labelled 7-point scale with extreme markers of 'lower end of my (child's) class' and 'upper end of my (child's) class'. The adolescent

sample rated themselves to be above average in class standing on all three subjects. The parents also rated their children to be of above average class standing.

Table 6.3.2. Descriptive statistics for parent and child academic ability ratings

Parent	Mean	SD	Skewness	Adolescent	Mean	SD	Skewness
Maths ability	5.2	1.5	-.730	Maths ability	4.9	1.7	-.42
English ability	5.6	1.3	-8.42	English ability	5.3	1.3	-.4
Science ability	5.4	1.4	-.703	Science ability	5.0	1.4	-.4

Whilst these data were skewed with a high proportion of positive values in the tails of the distribution, normality was not improved with transformations. However, analysis of variance is robust and providing the largest variance is not 4 times larger than the smallest variance, the data are skewed in the same direction and the sample size is adequate, these assumption violations can be contained by ANOVA (Howell, 1992). Homogeneity of variance and sphericity was present in the mixed design ANOVA (3 x 2). An analysis of variance revealed a main effect of study subject $F_{(2,552)} = 7.3, p < .01$. There was no significant interaction between respondent type (parent-child) and study subject. Differences were revealed by a between groups ANOVA to be significant for perceptions of Maths ability ($F_{(1, 278)} = 4.0, p < .05$) and Science ability ($F_{(1, 278)} = 4.1, p < .05$), with the parents estimating a higher mean ability than their child.

Adolescent respondents were asked to report their favourite, least favourite, easiest and hardest academic subjects. Parents were also asked to provide this information about their child. The degree of concordance was relatively high. Significant Spearman rank order correlations are given in table 6.3.3. All co-efficients were significant at the .01 alpha level.

Table 6.3.3. Correlation co-efficient data for parent-child study subject relationships

Question	Rho
Favourite study subject	.46
Least favourite study subject	.22
Easiest study subject	.34
Hardest study subject	.46

(d) Interim summary

The respondent sample was comprised largely of middle-class occupation families of whom few were single or step families. Parents tended to over-estimate the ability of their child (Maths, Science and English). The moderately strong correlation co-efficients between perceptions of favourite, easiest, hardest and least favourite study subjects suggested that the parent

responding to the questionnaire had quite a good knowledge of their child's educational likes and dislikes. These data may indicate that the parental sample could be described as an 'involved' group with regard to their child's education. Further, estimates of ability by the adolescents were nearly all above average class standing for Maths, Science and English.

(e) Measures of assessment anxiety

It was hypothesised that there would be a difference between the anxiety reported to occur relating to exams and to that reported to occur for tests. The findings reported in the previous chapters suggested that the two assessment situations were perceived differently with reference to cheating.

The mean response for the exam anxiety scale was 42.1 and 42.0 for the test anxiety scale. Means and variances were calculated for the sub-populations to determine whether or not the ordering of the scales in the battery had effected a systematic error (e.g., carry-over effects). The larger sample ($n=117$) for whom the order was exam-test were referred to as the 'main data set'. The smaller sample ($n=25$), the participants of which came from the same school were referred to as 'School A'. The exam anxiety scale means for the main data set and 'School A' were 42.0 and 42.5 respectively, whilst the test anxiety scale means were both 42.0. An independent samples t-test revealed that the means for the exam anxiety scale were not significantly different across the two samples, $t_{(140)} = .343$, $p = .35$ (one-tailed) neither were the means for the test anxiety scale, $t_{(140)} = .07$, $p = .45$ (one-tailed). This suggests that the responses were not affected by the presentation order.

Reliability analyses were carried out on both versions of the scale. Item-total correlations were all above .4 for the exam anxiety scale and .3 for the test anxiety scale except for one item on both scales. This item '*Although staying up all night to revise does not work for most people, I find that if I need to, I can learn lots of stuff just before an important exam*', was negatively (and non-significantly) correlated with the item-total for the exam anxiety scale ($r = -.02$) and non-significantly related to the test anxiety item-total ($r = .05$). This suggested that the item was a poor discriminator between individuals and that it was measuring something other than assessment anxiety. It may well have been that the item was too complicated for some respondents to parse as it was a compound item. Alternatively, it may well not have formed part of the assessment anxiety profile for these respondents. This item was identified by the measure of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) as being poor for both assessment anxiety scales. The scale alpha for exam

anxiety was .8 and for the test anxiety scale, .81. With the poor item removed from the scale, the alphas would have increased to .83 and .84 respectively.

Reliability analyses were also undertaken for the main data set and the 'School A' data set. The alphas for the main data set (without the poor item removed) were .82 and .83 for the exam and test anxiety scales respectively. For the 'School A' data set, the alphas were .67 and .59 respectively. In both cases, removal of the poor item would have increased reliability (to above .7 for 'School A').

The lower alpha co-efficients for 'School A' may be a reflection of several factors. Firstly the sample size of 25 was very small. It is recommended by authors such as Nunnally (1972) that a minimum sample size is 200. Further, as the respondents in the sample were from the same school, this may have affected heterogeneity. Reliability is most effected by the sample, and data for just one school would more than likely require normal table information. Indeed, a random sample of 25 from the main data set produced robust alpha co-efficients for both scales supporting the notion that the characteristics of the sample for 'School A' were responsible for the reduced alphas.

(i) Item bias and item group interactions

Means were inspected for the two scales and found not to differ according to gender, 'Year in school' or 'School type'. Therefore the items were, using the mean difference as a measure, free from item bias.

(ii) The sub-scales

The alpha co-efficients for the exam and test sub-scale of facilitating anxiety were .6 and .63 respectively. The alpha co-efficients for the exam and test sub-scale of debilitating anxiety were .8 and .81. The low alphas for the facilitating anxiety sub-scale reflected the missing items from the original 19 item questionnaire. However, if the poor item was removed from the facilitating anxiety sub-scale of the test version, the alpha reached .7.

(iii) Conclusions regarding the assessment anxiety data

The null hypothesis that there would be a difference between the anxiety reported to occur relating to exams and to that reported to occur for tests was assessed with an independent samples t-test and retained ($t_{(141)} = .275, p = .34$, one-tailed). Further a Pearson product-moment

correlation revealed the two scales to be strongly positively correlated, $r = +.885$, $n=142$, $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

There were no discernible differences for the whole data set, the main data set and 'School A' between the exam and test anxiety scales. Alpha co-efficients and item-total correlations were above acceptable limits for the whole scale, particularly when the poor item was removed. Therefore analyses of the assessment anxiety data were restricted to the exam scale (minus the poor item) as this was the more robust measure of the two anxiety forms. The measure of exam anxiety was used in later analyses to provide a measure of construct validity and act as a predictor variable for the measures of cheating scales.

(f) Parental style

One hundred and forty two dyads completed a 35 or 37 item, 4 response option scale (two items had inadvertently been omitted from the parental version). Three content areas were sampled (parental control, parental support and parental academic pressure).

The aim of including the parental style items was to develop a measure (scale) that could be used to determine individual differences in parenting styles relating to education. In order to achieve this, items that were poor discriminators were removed and the retained items factor analysed.

The variable to subject ratio was 4:1 which met the minimum ratio requirement set out by Kline (1994) of 2:1. However, there are those who argue that 200 is a suitable minimum sample size (e.g., Coakes and Steed, 1999) and that the item pool should be approximately 200 items.

It has also been suggested by authors such as Kline that the factor to subject ratio should be 20:1. As the number of factors anticipated was based on the number of content areas (support, control and academic pressure), the ratio requirement was met (47:1). However, these analyses were exploratory, therefore fewer factors or a greater number of factors than three may have been extracted for the simple structure. Finally, Tabachnick and Fidell (1989, as cited in Genereaux and McLeod, 1995) suggested that item:subject ratios of less than 1:5 should be considered for exploratory analyses only.

(i) Parent data

The assumption of normality was assessed by inspecting the means, standard deviations and skew figures (table 6.3.4). The data were fairly normally distributed, however the standard

errors were quite large. The f-max statistic was less than 2, which according to Howell (1992) indicates that transformation is not required.

Table 6.3.4. Distribution of the variables in the parental style data – parent version

Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Item	Mean	SD	Skewness
1	2.8	.7	-.25	20	1.9	.57	.22
2	2.6	.69	-.13	21	3.3	.52	.20
3	2.3	.7	.81	22	2.3	.55	1.01
4	3.7	.62	-2.43	23	*		
5	3.2	.65	-.27	24	*		
6	3.7	.58	-1.97	25	3.0	.68	-.22
7	2.7	.62	.18	26	2.3	.62	.26
8	3.1	.58	-.22	27	3.1	.58	-.25
9	2.2	.62	.54	28	1.9	.5	-.17
10	3.3	.57	-.52	29	3.5	.5	-.40
11	2.7	.67	.22	30	3.2	.59	-.11
12	2.2	.68	.43	31	2.8	.57	-.16
13	3.4	.51	.11	32	3.3	.59	-.57
14	3.4	.7	-1.11	33	2.8	.67	-.20
15	3.1	.6	-.22	34	3.5	.54	-.38
16	3.5	.69	-1.49	35	3.0	.8	-.60
17	3.2	.6	-.33	36	2.4	.62	.46
18	3.3	.62	-.25	37	2.9	.62	.05
19	2.4	.68	.51				

*Items omitted by accident from the final version of the scale

Inspection of box plots to identify (and remove cases with) outliers was conducted. Fifteen variables were identified to have outliers, seven of which had more than one outlier. These are highlighted in bold in table 6.3.4. The variables (all 35) were not skewed in the same direction (and were not symmetrical) suggesting that transformation was in fact necessary. In addition the normality and detrended normal plots confirmed the need for transformation. Transformation of these data did not improve the distributions or improve the Kolmogorov Smirnov statistics which were all significant at $p < .01$. A significant Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic indicates deviation from the theoretical distribution.

Kline (1994) recommends selecting items using classical items analysis before identifying the simple structure using factor analysis (Principle Components Analysis, PCA). Significant item-total correlations were identified along with item variances. Factor analysis can be used as a device for deciding on which items to retain, however, this may result in the domain not being sampled adequately because items of a similar phrasing may be selected instead of a range of items. Therefore classical item analysis was used to identify the items that had higher item-total correlations, were a mixture of positive and negative wording (reverse scored) and that reflected the content areas of support, control and academic pressure. All item-total correlations bar one were above .3. The item total correlations and variances of the selected items are presented in table 6.3.5. All item-total correlations were significant at the .001 alpha level. Items with an asterisk

were reverse scored. The alpha co-efficient (Cronbach's alpha) for the scale was .73, which reached the suggested level of acceptability for internal consistency (.7).

Table 6.3.5. Item-total correlations and variances for items selected through item analysis

	Item-total correlation	Variance
Control items		
3	.43	.49
15	.53	.37
21	.54	.27
10*	.27	.32
16*	.32	.47
Support items		
11	.47	.45
17	.37	.36
33	.47	.45
6*	.36	.34
18*	.37	.38
30*	.37	.35
Academic pressure items		
1	.45	.49
13	.55	.26
19	.44	.47
25	.44	.47
2*	.38	.47
8*	.42	.34
14*	.36	.49

The final scale had 18 items (the literature suggests 15-20 items). However, as there were only 35 items in the selection pool, the item choice was limited to those that were above .3 (item total) and that had adequate variances. For this item pool size, the variances were not particularly high indicating that there was not an even spread of responses across the response scale value labels. This may reflect sample homogeneity or the item response style.

The suggested length of the final scale varies in the literature. For example, Kline (1994) does not recommend having a factor with fewer than 10 items loading on to it because a factor with fewer items may reflect 'bloated specifics'. Bloated specifics are factors that have items loading which are paraphrases of other items. Such factors do not correlate with external criteria and reflect a large degree of error variance.

Linearity was assessed by inspecting a selection of scatterplots for the variables in table 6.3.5. It would have been time consuming to compare each combination of the variables. Linearity was not found to be present in the combinations of variables assessed. Factor analysis is based on correlation and therefore any "solution may be degraded" (Coakes and Steed, 1999, p156) if linearity is not present. However, the factorability of the correlation matrix was found to be adequate. Whilst only a few items had correlation co-efficients above .3, both the KMA measure of

sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity reached significance. The anti-image correlation matrix identified no items for deletion as all correlations were above .5.

The correlation matrix of the variables was inspected to check that all of the variables correlated well with each other. Items 3, 19, 25, 10, 14, 6, 18 did not correlate above .3 with the other variables. These items were therefore considered outliers among *variables* and discarded. The items that were included in the factor analysis were the following: 1, 15, 21, 13, 19, 17, 11, 33, 16, 8, 2 and 30. Therefore the final scale for factor analysis purposes had twelve items, five relating to academic pressures, three relating to control and four relating to support. Again, however, whether or not the items would remain in their content areas after factor analysis was unknown.

Factorability was assessed again after the 7 items were deleted and the remaining items were found to be satisfactory (KMO= .697; Bartlett's test, $p < .01$).

Table 6.3.6. Total variance explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	2.87	23.9	23.9
2	1.58	13.2	37.1
3	1.24	10.3	47.4
4	1.12	9.3	56.7

Four factors were identified by principle components analysis (PCA) to have eigenvalues above 1. Together these accounted for 56% of the variance in the items (table 6.3.6). An oblimin rotation was applied to reach simple structure because it was hypothesised that the factors based on the content areas would be related (non-orthogonal).

Two items loaded on component 1, three on component 2, four on component 3 and three on component 4 (table 6.3.7).

A varimax rotation was also performed on the data which resulted in a similar factor structure. The rotated component matrix, table 6.3.8 like the oblimin solution did not show simple structure because several variables had multiple loadings above .3. Six items loaded purely onto factors, with the resulting factor structure of component 1 with 5 items, component 2, with 2 items, component 3, with three items and component 4 with 2 items.

In both cases, the highest loading for each item was taken as the initial 'home factor' for that item. The factor structures of the two rotations were very similar. Only one item gained a different factor home. However, the 'order' of the factors was different.

Table 6.3.7. Oblimin rotation factor structure

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
13. The school expects parents to encourage pupils to study hard. I agree with this view.	.730			
30. If my child is unhappy at school, I do not force them to go.	.769			
1. I feel that it is very important for my child to get the best possible marks all of the time.		-.356	.337	.344
16. My child finds school a struggle. They do not seem to be able to settle down in class.		.776		
33. My child is confident that they will do well at school.		.672		
2. The position of my child's school in the local league table is not important to me.			.694	
15. It is important for my child to do very well in their end of year tests.	.336		.467	
18. Families should discuss lots of things. However, the views of children are not as important as the views of adults.			.663	
19. The marks that my child gets at school are important because they show how well they will do in their career.			.715	
11. Our home is a happy place to be.				-.782
17. The people in my family are good friends with each other.		.336		-.669
21. My child's homework must be done on time.	.321			-.591

The item labels appeared to relate well and form intuitive factor groups. Two exceptions were items 18 and 21. However item 18 was a pure item and loaded highly on the same factor for both rotations. Item 21 also loaded highly in the same place for both rotations. A lower factor loading for the varimax rotation is shown in table 6.3.8 under factor 2, where intuitively it made greater sense. It should be noted that for sample sizes of approximately 150, co-efficients of .45 or above are usually the accepted value. However, for these data, because the relationship between the wording of the factors was semantically more powerful with item 21 under factor 2, subsequent analyses were conducted using the factor structure given in table 6.3.9.

Further, as the factor structure for the varimax rotation had greater intuitive appeal than the oblique rotation factor structure, it was the varimax structure that was retained. Factor labels were given thus; factor 1 'academic achievement'; factor 2 'school-parent interaction'; factor 3 'family' and factor 4 'coping at school'. See table 6.3.9 for the final item-factor structure

Table 6.3.8. Varimax rotation factor structure

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
13. The school expects parents to encourage pupils to study hard. I agree with this view.		.728		
30. If my child is unhappy at school, I do not force them to go.		.749		
1. I feel that it is very important for my child to get the best possible marks all of the time.	.401	.355	.392	
16. My child finds school a struggle. They do not seem to be able to settle down in class.				.779
33. My child is confident that they will do well at school.				.702
2. The position of my child's school in the local league table is not important to me.	.652			.316
15. It is important for my child to do very well in their end of year tests.	.502	.384		
18. Families should discuss lots of things. However, the views of children are not as important as the views of adults.	.667			
19. The marks that my child gets at school are important because they show how well they will do in their career.	.716			
11. Our home is a happy place to be.			.765	
17. The people in my family are good friends with each other.			.633	.422
21. My child's homework must be done on time.		.392	.610	

Table 6.3.9. Factor composition for the parental style scale (parent version)

Factor 1 Academic achievement	Factor 2 School-parent interaction	Factor 3 Family	Factor 4 Coping
1. I feel that it is very important for my child to get the best possible marks all of the time.	13. The school expects parents to encourage pupils to study hard. I agree with this view.	11. Our home is a happy place to be.	16. My child finds school a struggle. They do not seem to be able to settle down in class.
2. The position of my child's school in the local league table is not important to me.	30. If my child is unhappy at school, I do not force them to go.	17. The people in my family are good friends with each other.	33. My child is confident that they will do well at school.
15. It is important for my child to do very well in their end of year tests.	21. My child's homework must be done on time.		
18. Families should discuss lots of things. However, the views of children are not as important as the views of adults.			
19. The marks that my child gets at school are important because they show how well they will do in their career.			

These final 12 items were subjected to a reliability analysis (table 6.3.10). Cronbach's alpha was .67, which falls short of the recommended .7. An alpha of .67 suggests that approximately 40% of the variance in the data were left unexplained.

Table 6.3.10. Reliability analysis for the parental style scale (parent version)

Item	Corrected item-total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
1	.3	.65
2	.25	.66
11	.41	.63
13	.41	.64
15	.36	.64
16	.29	.65
17	.32	.65
18	.12	.68
19	.32	.65
21	.38	.64
30	.25	.66
33	.32	.65
	Alpha	.67

The means for the four factors are given in table 6.3.11.

Table 6.3.11. Mean total scores for the four factors of the parent version of the parental style scale

Academic achievement	Family	School-parent link	Coping
14.0	10.0	6.0	6.5

The means in table 6.3.11 indicate both the proportion of items in the factors ('academic achievement' has a greater number of items than 'coping') and the relative importance of those factors to the parents. 'Coping' is represented as being less salient than issues relating to academic achievement.

Finally, the intercorrelations between the factors are given in table 6.3.12. Only the significant correlations have been presented. 'Family' and 'coping' were most strongly correlated, indicating a common response style across factors.

Table 6.3.12. Significant inter-factor correlations (parent parental style scale)

Relationship	Pearson product-moment correlation	Sig.
Academic achievement x school-parent link	.27	.01
Academic achievement x family	.26	.01
Family x school-parent link	.27	.01
Family x coping	.34	.01

(ii) Adolescent scale

Thirty seven items were treated in the same manner as the parent, parental scale items. The variables were once again, non-normal. However, three-quarters were all negatively skewed. Detrended probability plots and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests confirmed non-normality. Box plots were used to identify the initial items to be dropped from analysis (items 8,9,10,20,24,28,29,31,32) due to large numbers of outliers. Means, standard deviations and skew figures are given in table 6.3.13.

Table 6.3.13. Distribution of the variables in the parental style data – adolescent version

Item	Mean	SD	Skewness	Item	Mean	SD	Skewness
1	3.2	.64	-.26	20	1.9	.67	.51
2	2.4	.73	.03	21	3.5	.57	-.47
3	2.3	.83	.27	22	2.7	.65	-.07
4	3.3	.65	-.57	23	3.2	.81	-.75
5	3.4	.62	-.71	24	2.9	.51	-.77
6	3.3	.69	-.64	25	3.1	.70	-.26
7	2.8	.67	-.05	26	2.2	.68	.30
8	3.0	.66	.02	27	2.8	.70	-.39
9	1.9	.63	.60	28	2.1	.58	.21
10	3.0	.68	-.79	29	3.0	.65	-.17
11	2.9	.8	-.09	30	3.3	.62	-.26
12	2.1	.78	.25	31	3.0	.55	-.52
13	3.4	.54	-.02	32	3.2	.56	-.46
14	3.3	.72	-.59	33	3.2	.52	.24
15	3.3	.56	-.01	34	3.2	.72	-.65
16	3.1	.84	-.63	35	2.9	.70	-.10
17	3.2	.67	-.51	36	2.5	.64	-.17
18	2.8	.76	-.14	37	2.3	.76	-.18
19	2.8	.69	-.03				

Significant item-total correlations were used as the first step in selecting items through classical item analysis. Fourteen items above .3 were selected and one item with an item-total correlation of .29 was selected giving 15 items in total. Table 6.3.14 gives the item total correlations of the selected items with the variance. Again, the variances were poor. The Cronbach's alpha for the selected items was .76.

The 15 items in table 6.3.14 were included in an oblimin rotation principle components factor analysis to determine the factor structure of the items. Inspection of the correlation matrix revealed that item 7, whilst having an item-total correlation of .428, did not meet the .3 correlation criterion for the factorability of the data. Therefore, this item was discarded.

Anti-image correlations were all above .5, the KMO was .729 (higher than the parent data) and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant.

Table 6.3.14. Item total correlations and variances for adolescent scale

	Item-total correlation	Variance
Control items		
3	.45	.69
15	.47	.31
21	.43	.32
35	.33	.48
Support items		
5	.40	.38
11	.54	.64
17	.46	.44
23	.52	.65
33	.43	.27
37	.32	.57
Academic pressure items		
1	.39	.41
7	.43	.44
13	.39	.29
19	.29	.47

Table 6.3.15. Total variance explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	3.5	24.7	24.7
2	1.9	13.4	38.1
3	1.2	8.6	47.0
4	1.1	7.5	54.2

In table 6.3.15 it can be seen that 4 factors with eigenvalues above 1 accounted for 54% of the variance in the data. Once again, the pattern matrix of the oblimin rotation was almost identical to the varimax rotation structure. In the factor structure for the oblimin rotation, 7 items were considered pure as they loaded onto only one factor (table 6.3.16).

Table 6.3.16. Oblimin rotation factor structure

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
3. I am given homework each night. I must sit down and get it done as soon as I come home from school.	.495		-.416	
11. My home is always a happy place to be.	.738			
17. The people in my family are good friends with each other.	.653			
23. If I need to talk about a problem my family is always there to listen.	.851			
1. My family feel that it is very important for me to get the best possible marks all the time.		.713		
13. My family expect me to work and study hard.		.559		
15. My family feel that it is important for me to do very well in my end of year tests.		.719		
19. My family thinks that the marks I get in school are important because they will show how well I will do in my career.		.608	.306	
5. My family support and help me in all of my school work.			-.518	.393
21. My family say that my homework must be done on time.		.379	-.545	
35. At home I do not play up very often.			.546	
6. I prefer my family not to go to parents evenings. I do not want them to know how I get on at school.				.616
33. My family is confident that I will do well at school.				.714
37. If I do something wrong at school, the school should be able to deal with it, without letting my family know.				.591

As before, the varimax rotation structure was retained in favour of the oblique rotation.

This was because the component matrix was easier to interpret (table 6.3.17).

Table 6.3.17. Varimax rotation factor structure

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
3. I am given homework each night. I must sit down and get it done as soon as I come home from school.	.452			.512
11. My home is always a happy place to be.	.734			
17. The people in my family are good friends with each other.	.650			
23. If I need to talk about a problem my family is always there to listen.	.833			
1. My family feel that it is very important for me to get the best possible marks all the time.		.724		
13. My family expect me to work and study hard.		.523		
15. My family feel that it is important for me to do very well in my end of year tests.		.679		.333
19. My family thinks that the marks I get in school are important because they will show how well I will do in my career.		.632		
5. My family support and help me in all of my school work.			.411	.550
21. My family say that my homework must be done on time.		.334		.643
35. At home I do not play up very often.	.317		.358	-.467
6. I prefer my family not to go to parents evenings. I do not want them to know how I get on at school.	.340		.642	
33. My family is confident that I will do well at school.			.716	
37. If I do something wrong at school, the school should be able to deal with it, without letting my family know.			.594	

The four factors were labelled as follows. Factor 1 'family'; factor 2 'academic achievement'; factor 3 'independence' and factor 4 'homework'. See table 6.3.18 for the final item-factor structure.

Table 6.3.18. Factor composition of the final adolescent version of the parental style scale

Factor 1 Family	Factor 2 Academic achievement	Factor 3 Independence	Factor 4 Homework
11. My home is always a happy place to be.	1. My family feel that it is very important for me to get the best possible marks all the time.	6. I prefer my family not to go to parents evenings. I do not want them to know how I get on at school.	3. I am given homework each night. I must sit down and get it done as soon as I come home from school.
17. The people in my family are good friends with each other.	13. My family expect me to work and study hard.	33. My family is confident that I will do well at school.	5. My family support and help me in all of my school work.
23. If I need to talk about a problem my family is always there to listen.	15. My family feel that it is important for me to do very well in my end of year tests.	37. If I do something wrong at school, the school should be able to deal with it, without letting my family know.	21. My family say that my homework must be done on time.
	19. My family thinks that the marks I get in school are important because they will show how well I will do in my career.		35. At home I do not play up very often.

Once again, with the items rejected by PCA, the Cronbach's alpha was slightly lower than before. However, this time, the alpha level stayed above .7 (table 6.3.19).

Table 6.3.19. Reliability analysis for the parental style scale (adolescent version)

Item	Corrected item-total Correlation	Alpha if Item deleted
1	.29	.75
3	.39	.74
5	.37	.74
6	.36	.74
11	.52	.72
13	.3	.75
15	.34	.74
17	.45	.73
19	.22	.75
21	.38	.74
23	.55	.72
33	.4	.74
35	.24	.75
37	.31	.75
	Alpha	.75

The means for the four factors are given in table 6.3.20 and indicate, as for the adult version of the scale, that most weight has been given to 'academic achievement'.

Table 6.3.20. Mean total scores for the four factors of the adolescent version of the parental style scale

Family	Academic achievement	Independence	Homework
9.3	12.7	8.8	12.0

Whilst there were mean differences between the factors as evidenced by table 6.3.20, no mean differences were identified across the year groups or between males and females. Year group differences were tested with a series of independent t-tests using first and fifth form (years 7 and 11) as grouping variables.

Table 6.3.21 gives the intercorrelations between the factors. The strongest correlation for the adolescents was between 'family' and 'homework'. This relationship, as will be discussed matched the parental scale factors of 'family' and 'coping' (which was the strongest relationship).

Table 6.3.21. Significant inter-factor correlations (adolescent parental style scale)

Relationship	Pearson product-moment correlation	Sig.
Family x academic achievement	.20	.05
Family x independence	.42	.01
Family x homework	.47	.01
Academic achievement x homework	.34	.01
Independence x homework	.35	.01

(iii) Construct validity

In order to test the validity of the scales, correlations were conducted. If the two parental style scales were measuring the same construct, then a positive correlation co-efficient would indicate convergent validity. Convergent measures are usually achieved with pre-existing validated scales and therefore correlating the parent and adolescent scale may produce a co-efficient that is meaningless.

Gardner and Melvin (1988) assessed the construct validity of their perceptions of cheating scale by comparing staff scores with student scores. They hypothesised that staff scores would be less tolerant than student scores. Testing construct validity in this way is subject to the same problems as correlating the two parental style scales and may not resolve the issue of whether the scale is measuring what it was intended to measure at anything other than the level of face validity. With regard to the parental style scale, it could be hypothesised that the parents' scores would be lower than the adolescent scores because the attitude of adolescents would be one of perceived intolerance by parents. This view assumes that the adolescents perceive their parents in this way. Symbolic interactionism indicates that for some adolescents parental behaviour may seem harsh, whilst for others the same behaviour may be perceived as tolerant. The mean total score for the adolescent version of the scale was 42.8 (SD=4.6) and was higher than the mean for the parent version of the scale (M=36.3, SD = 3.5). A related samples t-test revealed this difference to be significant ($t_{141} = 15.4, p < .01$, two-tailed). This suggests that whilst there is an indication that both scales were measuring the same construct, emphasis in the responses to the individual factors

were different for parents and children. A similar degree of concordance was achieved between the factors of the two versions of the scale. Table 6.3.22 details the significant correlations. Both family factors correlated more strongly than the overall scales (.32), suggesting that of all the factors, this was the most stable across the scales.

A Pearson product-moment correlation between the parental and adolescent versions of the scales revealed a positive weak significant relationship, $r=+.252$, $n=142$ $p<.05$ (one-tailed).

Divergent (or discriminant validity) was tested using the exam anxiety scale. A Pearson product-moment correlation revealed a non-significant correlation between the adolescent version of the parental styles scale and the exam anxiety scale ($r=-.06$, $n=142$, $p=.238$) and a similar non-significant relationship between the exam scale and the parental version ($r=-.085$, $n=142$, $p=.157$). This suggested that perceived parental style was not related to perceived exam anxiety in adolescents.

Table. 6.3.22 Significant inter-factor correlations between the parent and adolescent parental style scales

Relationship	Pearson product-moment correlation	Sig.
Adolescent family x parent family	.32	.01
Adolescent academic achievement x parent academic achievement	.19	.05
School-parent link x homework	.27	.01
Parent family x homework	.17	.05

(iv) Factor analysis of the scenario data

Appendix 11 contains factor analyses for the three questions types. Principle components analyses regarding the scenario measures of cheating may have resulted in degradation of the factor structures. However, assumptions were violated and the main method of item deletion was through the principle components analysis procedures. Item analysis was not efficient in identifying items for deletion as item-total correlations were large and highly significant. As mentioned during the analysis of the parental style data, deleting items using PCA may be a cause of bloated specifics.

Factor structures were obtained for the 'Like me' and 'Class' question types. Violation of assumptions was most probably the main cause of a lack of convergence for the 'Friends' data set. The factor structures that were obtained were very different from one another. This suggested two issues. Firstly, the scenarios may have been interpreted according to the relative salience of behavioural and reason components of the scenario. Secondly, the differences in the two obtained factor structures, whilst probably due to the poor underlying data composition, may also have been

due to the way in which *other* people were perceived to 'interact' with cheating behaviours. In addition the two factor structures had very little in common by way of factor labels. Therefore it was felt that it was, in conjunction with the other issues relating to degradation, inappropriate to pursue factoring the scenario data.

Subsequent analyses using the scenario data only differentiates between question type ('Like me', 'Friends', 'Class'). Total scores for each question type were used as opposed to factor scores.

The parental measures of cheating data were not subject to factor analysis because, as with the adolescent data, test assumptions were violated and similarly high item-total correlations were achieved.

6.3.2 Full analyses

(a) Measures of cheating – adolescent data

Figure 6.3.1. Example scenario used for the adolescent battery

David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this as it is not a real exam.

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Never</i>
<i>David and Ian are 'Like me' ...</i>			4	
<i>David and Ian are like my friends ...</i>		4		
<i>David and Ian are like the people in my class ...</i>	4			

The adolescent sample responded to 30 scenarios in three ways giving a total of 90 questions. These three question types are referred to as 'Like me', 'Friends' and 'Class'.

(i) Method of analysis

The adolescent measures of cheating data were analysed using two different techniques. Firstly, an index of cheating was created to reflect the range of behaviours in which respondents reported to be like the characters in the scenarios. This index was only calculated for the 'Like me' data as it was the only self-report measure. Secondly, descriptive statistics were used to explore the individual scenarios and to identify those behaviours that were perceived to be least and most frequently perpetrated.

(ii) Index of cheating

In accordance with Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) an index of cheating was created. The 'sometimes', 'often' and 'always' responses for the 'Like me' data were combined and divided by the total possible response number (120, 30 scenarios x 4 responses). This gave an index of the *range* of scenarios (characters) to which respondents had reported they were like (called 'propyes'). The index ranged from 0 to 1 with two respondents reporting themselves to be like 1% of the scenarios and thirteen respondents reporting themselves to be like 8% of the scenarios. The highest range of scenarios which one respondent reported to be similar to was 23% (table 6.3.23). The total mean response for the 'propyes' data was .1, which indicated an average of 10% (3 scenarios) were reported by respondents to hold similarities with their own behaviour. The corresponding proportional mean value for the 'Friends' data was .14 and for the 'Class' data, .19. This trend reflected the overall trend reported earlier of perceiving friends and classmates to cheat more than the self. Analysis of variance revealed a significant interaction between 'propyes' and 'Year in school' ($F_{4,132}=3.23, p<.05$). Years 7 and 8 had significantly lower 'propyes' scores than years 9, 10 and 11 indicating that the younger respondents perceived themselves to be like the characters in fewer scenarios than older students.

Table 6.3.23. Proportion of scenarios for which respondents reported they were like 'sometimes', 'often' or 'always'

Proportion	No. of respondents	Proportion	No. of respondents
.01	2	.12	12
.02	3	.13	16
.03	4	.14	11
.04	3	.15	5
.05	7	.16	5
.06	5	.17	2
.07	8	.18	5
.08	13	.19	2
.09	7	.20	1
.10	9	.23	1
.11	10		
Total		142	

(iii) General measures of cheating analyses

Mean response rates for the three question types were obtained and rank ordered. Of the 30 scenarios, for the 'Like me' question type, 26 of the scenarios had means below 2 indicating that overall respondents perceived themselves 'never' to be like the characters in the scenarios. Four scenarios had a mean rating above 2, ('sometimes'). The difference between these scenarios and

the scenarios which had mean response ratings below 2 was the number of times the 'always' option had been selected by respondents. In table 6.3.24 the four scenarios for which most respondents rated themselves to be 'sometimes' like the characters are given (along with information relating to the 'Friends' data). The number of respondents indicating that they were 'always' like the person in the scenario is also given as an indication of the conservative nature of the 'Like me' data.

Table 6.3.24. The 'Like me' and 'Friends' scenarios with mean responses above 2 (N=142)

Scenario	Like me Mean	No. of 'Like me' 'always' responses	Friends Mean
Esther gets her brother to help her with her Maths homework. Teachers understand that pupils need help from their family with coursework.	2.1	10	2.2
Fred asks his friend what was in the Biology exam he took last week. Fred has to take the same exam this week. He doesn't mind asking because everyone does it.	2.2	8	2.3
Tom "thinks smart" during tests. If there are answers on the posters around the room, he writes them on his answer sheet.	2.4	25	2.5
Jessica is pleased when her teacher gives them an extra day past the deadline to complete their GCSE coursework.	2.8	46	2.9
Ally overheard some friends talking about ideas for a project. She thought the ideas were good and used one for her own project.	-	-	2.0
If George doesn't have time to do his homework he borrows his friends and copies it.	-	-	2.3

The number of scenarios with a mean rating of 2 or above rose to six for the 'Friends' measure. Note that the rank order changed slightly from the 'Like me' to the 'Friends' question type. The two 'new' items have not joined the bottom of the 'Like me' rankings, but have been interspersed within them, suggesting that the perception of others' cheating behaviour may be dependent upon the type of scenario.

Sixteen scenarios received a mean response of above 2 for the 'Class' measure. For this final measure one scenario scored above 3, 'often' like the people in my 'Class' (extra time for coursework).

The scenarios which received the four lowest scores for the 'Like me' and 'Friends' question types are given in table 6.3.25.

Table 6.3.25. 'Like me' and 'Friends' scenarios with the lowest three mean responses (N=142)

Scenario	Like me Mean	Friends Mean
If Martin has a really important test or exam he gets his Mum to phone the school to say he is ill.	1.05	-
Jenny smuggled notes into her practice GCSE exam. She said it didn't matter because they weren't real exams.	1.05	1.2
Keith started revising for an exam the night before and found that there was too much to learn. He made some notes on his arm to copy during the exam.	1.1	-
Matthew finds it hard to find time to learn things at home, so he keeps books open on his lap during tests at school.	1.15	1.24
Becky finds coursework a drag. She borrows the coursework of a friend from another school and copies it.	-	1.22
Ben's sister is a few years above him at school. To save time and effort he copies out her old essays and hands them in as his own.	-	1.3

The low scores for the 'Like me' scenarios reflected the restricted range of responses ('often' and 'always' were rarely used, if at all). However, there was little to differentiate these scenarios from the other 'Like me' scenarios that also received a score under 2. The lowest four are therefore given here for illustrative purposes.

Feigning illness to get out of a test or exam (Martin), the least 'Like me' scenario in table 6.3.25 was 11th for 'Friends' and writing notes on you arm for an exam was 6th (Keith).

For the 'Class' scenarios, the scenario about finding it hard to find time to learn things at home (Matthew) was pushed into 5th place by the Simon scenario (*essay left on computers*). The lowest mean scenario response for the 'Class' data was 1.5 (Becky – *borrowing coursework*).

The five scenarios for which there was the greatest mean difference between 'Like me' and 'Class' data are presented in table 6.3.26. As can be seen, there was not a large overall difference between the different perspectives. Full means and standard deviations for all the scenarios are given in appendix 12.

However, examination of the *total* number of 'always' responses given across the three question types suggested that respondents rated the people in their 'Class' (231) as 'always' being like the people in the scenarios more frequently than their 'Friends' (153) or themselves (120).

Table 6.3.26. The scenarios for which there was the greatest reported mean difference across question types.

	Like me	Like my friends	Like the people in my class	Mean difference between Like me and Like the people in my class
Danielle's sister thinks that homework is a waste of time, so she doesn't do any	1.3	1.7	2.3	1.0
If Martin has a really important test or exam he gets his mum to phone the school to say he is ill	1.0	1.5	2.0	1.0
Sam always copies the person next to her during lessons. It's easier than working it out for herself	1.6	1.9	2.4	0.8
If George doesn't have time to do his homework he borrows his friend's and copies it	1.8	2.3	2.6	0.8
Before a test in class, Anna copies notes onto a scrap of paper or onto her pencil case. It's a good way to make sure she passes	1.2	1.6	2.0	0.8

Each scenario was treated as a separate factor in a within-subjects analysis of variance for comparison with the three question types (3 x 30). The analysis of variance revealed a significant interaction between the scenarios and the question types $F_{(58, 8178)} = 9.4, p < .01$. There was also a main effect of question type ($F_{(2, 282)} = 184.2, p < .001$) and a main effect of scenario ($F_{(29, 4089)} = 99.6, p < .01$). As Mauchley's test of sphericity was significant, findings presented were based on the Greenhouse-Geisser statistic. The means and standard deviations for the question types are presented in table 6.3.27.

Table 6.3.27. The total means and standard deviations for each question type.

Question type	Mean	SD
Like me	45.9	9.1
Like my friends	52.0	10.9
Like the people in my class	61.4	11.7

In table 6.3.27 the total mean scores can range from a minimum of 30 (selecting the 'never' option for every scenario) to a maximum of 120 (selecting the 'always' option for every scenario). Therefore, the 'Like me' data fell mid-way between 30 and 60, respondents reported themselves to be like the characters in the scenarios mostly 'never' or 'sometimes'. For the 'Class' data, the total mean rating was at the 'sometimes' level.

Within each scenario, question type differences were investigated. Whilst the earlier reported analysis of variance found evidence of differences, it was not possible to ascertain where the differences lay using follow-up tests for 30 factors! Individual scenario follow-up tests (Bonferroni) were therefore carried out to identify where the differences lay in the *question types* for each scenario. Bonferroni's follow-up test is a pairwise multiple comparison of the difference between each pair of means. Whilst technically follow-up tests cannot be conducted on non-independent data (within-subjects), Bonferroni's test is suitable in place of contrasts, which are complicated to interpret. It is a conservative test suitable for comparing large numbers of conditions (which was particularly appropriate for the analyses reported after these) and one which does not locate many significant differences. The alpha level was set at 10% ($p=.1$) to reflect the large number of comparisons being made. This caution was appropriate for the scenario data which violated some ANOVA assumptions.

Overall, a greater number of significant differences were found between pairs of question types than non significant differences. In table 6.3.28 the pairwise differences have been reported. Where differences were *not* found it was typically with the 'Like me' by 'Friends' comparisons. This meant that respondents tended to rate themselves and their 'Friends' as similar. Single asterisk cells should be interpreted with caution as these differences were above the conservative alpha level set by the Bonferonni follow-up test.

In each case, the direction of mean difference was 'Like me' < 'Friends' < 'Class'. The table is split into seven groupings reflecting the composition of the reasons for cheating given in the scenarios, (which are the focus of the subsequent section).

Table 6.3.28. The alpha levels for non-significant pairwise comparisons.

Fear of failure scenarios	Me vs. Friends	Me vs. Class	Friends vs. Class
Before a test in class, Anna copies the answers or helpful notes onto her pencil case. It's a good way to make sure she passes.	***	***	***
Sally is worried that she might get a low mark in her end-of-year test. She asks her friend if she can copy from her.	***	***	***
Mike likes to change his marks as he teacher reads the test answers out. He does this because he is embarrassed that he does not understand the questions.	***	***	***
If Martin has a really important test or exam he gets his Mum to phone the School and say he is ill.	***	***	***

Opportunistic cheating scenarios	Me vs. Friends	Me vs. Class	Friends vs. Class
Gillian finds the questions for a French vocabulary test on the teacher's desk. As there is no one around, she makes a note of what the questions are.	n.s	***	***
Simon found an essay someone else left on one of the computers. He thought it was good, so he made a few changes and printed it off. He handed it in as his own work.	n.s	***	***
Jessica is pleased when her teachers gives them an extra day past the deadline to complete their GCSE coursework.	n.s	n.s	n.s
Tom "thinks smart" during tests. If there are answers on the posters around the room, he writes them on his answer sheet.	n.s	n.s	n.s
Ally overheard some friends talking about ideas for a project. She thought the ideas were good and used one for her own project.	n.s	***	**

Poor planning scenarios	Me vs. Friends	Me vs. Class	Friends vs. Class
Emily has to spend time training for swimming competitions at the weekend. She always forgets to do her homework on Sunday and ends up copying from her friends.	***	***	**
If George doesn't have time to do his homework he borrows his friend's and copies it.	***	***	**
Keith started revising for an exam the night before and found that there was too much to learn. He made some notes on his arm to copy during the exam.	**	***	***
Matthew finds it hard to learn things at home, so he keeps books open on his lap during tests at school	n.s	***	***

Revision tactics scenarios	Me vs. Friends	Me vs. Class	Friends vs. Class
Ginny carefully chooses where she sits in exams. She likes to be able to spy on the work of others in case she needs an answer to a question.	n.s	***	***
Jamie revises for his German spoken test by listening to what the person in front of him says to the teacher and repeating it when it is his turn.	n.s	***	*
Sue and Kate share their revision load. Sue learns the stuff for one subject and Kate learns the stuff for another subject. They make sure that they sit together in the test so that they can check their answers.	n.s	***	***
Fred asks his friend what was in the Biology exam he took last week. Fred has to take the same exam this week. He doesn't mind asking because everyone does it.	n.s	**	n.s

Laziness scenarios	Me vs. Friends	Me vs. Class	Friends vs. Class
Shama finds it quicker to ask her parents for the answers to her Maths homework than to work the answers out herself.	n.s	***	**
On a field trip for a piece of coursework, Andy and Jason cannot be bothered to count the number of trees in a wood or find out the information about the trees, so they guess the number of trees and write up their report on made-up information.	n.s	***	***
Ben's sister is a few years above him at school. To save time and effort he copies out her old essays and hands them in as his own.	n.s	***	***
Becky finds coursework a drag. She borrows the coursework of a friend from a different School and copies it.	n.s	***	***
Sam always copies the person next to her during lessons. It's easier than working it out for herself.	***	***	***

Everyone does it scenarios	Me vs. Friends	Me vs. Class	Friends vs. Class
Esther gets her brother to help her with her Maths homework. Teachers understand that pupils need help from their family with coursework.	n.s	**	n.s
If Nick gets stuck on his GCSE coursework, his Dad gives him some of the answers. Everyone gets help with their coursework.	n.s	***	.
Using a calculator during a Maths test when you're not allowed to doesn't bother Amanda. Everyone in her class does it.	n.s	***	***
Everyone changes the answers to a test at least once in their life. This is what Jack and his friends say when they swap their work.	n.s	***	***

Not important scenarios	Me vs. Friends	Me vs. Class	Friends vs. Class
David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this because it is not a real exam.	**	**	n.s
Jenny smuggled notes into her practice GCSE exam. She said it didn't matter because they weren't real exams.	n.s	***	***
Jonah thinks that copying from friends in exams doesn't do you any harm. When you get a job, you never have to use anything that you were taught in school anyway.	**	***	***
Danielle's sister thinks that homework is a waste of time, so she doesn't do any.	***	***	***

*** sig at p<.001; ** sig at p<.01, * sig at p<.05

The relationship between the three measures was assessed using a Pearson product-moment correlation. Table 6.3.29 gives the correlation co-efficients for the three relationships.

Table 6.3.29. Correlational data for the three question types (N=142)

Relationship	Correlation co-efficient*
Like me x Like my friends	.8
Like me x Like the people in my class	.45
Like my friends x Like the people in my class	.55

* significant p<.01

As can be seen from table 6.3.29 the closer the relationship between the respondents and his or her friends and peers, the higher the correlation.

(iv) Scenario groups

The scenarios were divided into seven groups dependent upon the *reason* given for the cheating. The means and standard deviations and distributions for these data are given in table 6.3.30. The numbers given in brackets after each scenario group referred to the number of individual scenarios comprising the group.

Table 6.3.30. Descriptive statistics for the seven scenario groups collapsed across all question types

Scenario group	Mean	SD	Skewness
Fear of failure (4)	4.89	1.67	.78
Opportunistic cheating (5)	10.27	2.42	.52
Poor planning (4)	6.9	2.01	.65
Revision tactics (4)	7.1	2.0	.75
Laziness (5)	8.39	2.21	.72
Everyone does it (4)	7.68	2.06	.59
Not important (4)	5.99	1.93	.89

All the groups were similarly skewed and the biggest variance was not four times larger than the smallest variance. Therefore, whilst the data were non-normal as tested by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic and two scenario groups (Fear of failure; Not important) had unequal variances (Levene's test), analyses of variance were still performed. ANOVA procedures are fairly robust and can deal with a degree of non-normality. The type of question was revealed to significantly interact with the scenario groups, $F_{(9,4, 1328)} = 16.1$, $p < .01$. Again, the Greenhouse-Geisser statistics are reported. There were main effects of question type ($F_{(1,5, 215)} = 182.6$, $p < 0.01$) and scenario grouping ($F_{(4,9, 691.7)} = 305.8$, $p < 0.01$). Inspection of the means indicates that opportunistic cheating was the most frequently occurring cheating scenario. Indeed, for each question type individually, opportunistic cheating was the highest mean grouping ('Like me', 9.5; 'Friends', 10.0; 'Class', 11.3).

A Bonferroni post-hoc analysis was performed on the scenario groups and question types. All combinations of question type and scenario group comparisons were found to be statistically different except for three comparisons. For 'Opportunistic cheating', 'Revision tactics' and 'Everyone does it' the 'Like me' with 'Class' comparisons were found not to be statistically significant. Mean differences of .55 for 'Opportunistic cheating', .55 for 'Revision tactics' and .5 for 'Everyone does it' were not significant ($p = .139$, $p = .053$ and $p = .104$ respectively). For these three scenario groups, the respondent did not perceive his or her overall behaviour to be different from the people in his or her class.

(v) Homework scenarios

The scenarios were divided into those that referred to homework (Emily, George, Shama, Ben, Esther, Nick and Danielle) and those that referred to other forms of assessment. The mean reported 'Like me' ratings for the homework scenarios were higher (1.6) than the mean ratings for the remaining scenarios (1.5). A related samples t-test revealed this difference to be significant,

$t=5.2$, df , 141, $p<.05$ (one-tailed). This suggests that homework cheating behaviours were more frequently perpetrated than the other cheating behaviours when collapsed as a group.

(vi) Individual differences

No effect of gender, 'Year in school' or 'School type' were found when analyses were conducted using the full range of variables for 'Year in school' (5) and 'School type' (2).

(b) Parental measures of the severity and acceptability of the cheating scenarios

Two measures of cheating were obtained from the parent respondents. Respondents were requested to respond to each scenario twice; once by rating the severity of the behaviour depicted in the scenario and once by rating the acceptability of the behaviour in light of the reason given for the behaviour.

Means, standard deviations and skewness are given in appendix 13. Neither the severity or the acceptability data sets were normal as tested by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic (all scenarios were significant at less than the .001 alpha level).

F-max for the acceptability data was 3 and 2.7 for the severity data. Inspection of the skewness figures indicated that most of the scenarios for both data sets were negatively skewed. Transformations on a sample of the scenarios did not reduce the skew. In accordance with Howell (1992), analysis of variance tests can still be conducted provided the smallest to biggest variance ratio is not bigger than 4 (f-max) and that the data are similarly skewed. However, as the sphericity assumption was violated (unequal population difference variances) the Greenhouse-Geisser statistics once again have been reported.

A within-subjects analysis of variance revealed that the means for the perceived severity of the scenarios were significantly different, $F_{(16,8, 2295)} = 132.4$, $p<.01$. The mean perception of acceptability was also found to differ significantly according to the scenario, $F_{(5,2, 730)} = 201.4$, $p<.01$.

(i) Comparison between acceptability and severity

Inspection of the mean responses for the two question types indicated on which scenarios the behaviours were perceived to be more acceptable than they were severe. It was anticipated that the reasons for the cheating would temper the acceptability of the cheating behaviour. However, overall, scenarios appeared to be rated as more unacceptable than they were severe. Only eight scenarios were rated as more acceptable than severe (see table 6.3.31).

Table 6.3.31. Scenarios for which the mean acceptability response was less than the mean severity response

Scenario	Acceptability mean	Severity mean
Jenny smuggled notes into her practice GCSE exam. She said it didn't matter because they weren't real exams.	2.8	3.5
Using a calculator during a Maths test when you're not allowed to doesn't bother Amanda. Everyone in her class does it.	2.2	2.9
If Martin has a really important test or exam he gets his Mum to phone the School and say he is ill.	1.8	3.5
Sam always copies the person next to her during lessons. It's easier than working it out for herself.	2.9	3.3
Simon found an essay someone else left on one of the computers. He thought it was good, so he made a few changes and printed it off. He handed it in as his own work.	2.0	3.4
If Nick gets stuck on his GCSE coursework, his Dad gives him some of the answers. Everyone gets help with their coursework.	2.0	2.4
Shama finds it quicker to ask her parents for the answers to her Maths homework than to work out the answers herself.	2.3	3.0
Becky finds coursework a drag. She borrows the coursework of a friend from a different School and copies it.	3.0	3.3

The biggest mean difference was for the scenario where parental involvement was greatest (making an excuse of behalf of the child to get out of an exam). The mean acceptability of 1.8 is closest to the response of 'acceptable in the circumstances'. The mean severity response of 3.5 is between 'serious' and 'very serious'.

The top three scenario positions for which the acceptability-severity mean difference was greatest (of the remaining 22 scenarios) in the direction of unacceptability, related to opportunistic cheating and teacher sanctioning of cheating. The behaviour for which there was the biggest difference was excusing help for homework by referring to teachers' understanding that help is given (Esther). Second place was tied between teachers giving an extra day past the deadline for GCSE coursework (Jessica) and using information on the poster in the classroom to answer a test (Tom). The scenario relating to plagiarizing ideas (Ally) came in a close third. For these behaviours the reason for the cheating did not temper the perception of acceptability and perceived severity was less than perceived acceptability.

When the two measures of cheating were both included to test for a within-subjects interaction between question type (acceptability and severity) and scenario group (2 x 7), a significant interaction was revealed, $F_{(5,2, 731,6)} = 143.2, p < .01$. The mean differences between acceptability and severity ratings as a function of the scenario groupings are given in table 6.3.32. Inspection of the means suggested that the differences lay with the opportunistic cheating scenario group and the revision tactics scenario group.

Table 6.3.32. The mean differences for the scenario group – question type interaction

Scenario group	Mean difference (Severity – Acceptability)
Fear of failure	1.4
Opportunistic cheating	-3.1
Poor planning	0.6
Revision tactics	-2.1
Laziness	1.4
Everybody does it	-1.1
Not important	.3

For these two scenario groups, measures of acceptability were higher than severity (i.e., more unacceptable). This meant that the scenarios were perceived to be more unacceptable than they were perceived to be severe.

The relationship between acceptability and severity was assessed using a Pearson product-moment correlation co-efficient. The correlation co-efficient indicated a strong positive relationship which suggested that overall increased severity was associated with decreased acceptability, $r = +.74$, $n = 137$, $p < .01$.

(ii) Homework scenarios

The scenarios were divided into those that referred to homework and those that referred to other forms of assessment. The mean severity ratings were lower for the homework scenarios (2.8) than for the remaining scenarios (3.0). A related samples t-test revealed this difference to be significant ($t=9.1$, $df, 141$, $p < .001$, one-tailed). A similar finding was revealed for the acceptability ratings (homework mean, 3.0; the rest = 3.1). Again, this difference was significant ($t=6.5$, $df, 141$, $p < .001$). Homework was therefore perceived by parents to be less severe and more acceptable than other forms of assessment-based cheating behaviours.

(c) Comparison of the parent and adolescent measures of cheating data

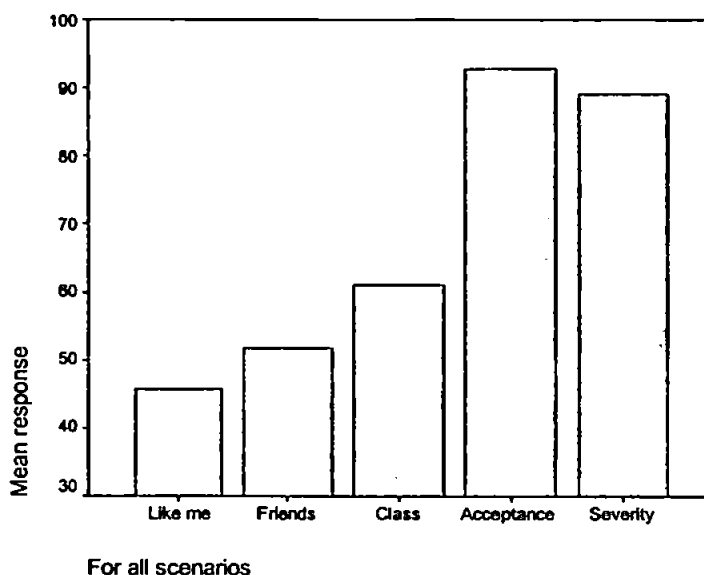
The parent and adolescent responses for the measures of cheating data were compared. Means, standard deviations and normal distribution information are given in table 6.3.33.

Table 6.3.33. Descriptive statistics for the five measures of cheating.

Cheating measure	Mean	SD	Skewness
Acceptance	92.82	10.54	.025
Severity	88.82	11.37	.068
'Like me'	45.94	9.09	1.27
'Friends'	52.04	10.86	1.12
'Class'	61.43	11.72	.13

Severity and class were the only measures for which there was normality (Kolmogorov-Smirnov) . Acceptability was negatively skewed, whilst 'Like me' and 'Friends' were both positively skewed. However, f-max for the five measures was within the acceptable range (1.6).

Figure 6.3.2. Mean total scores for all five measures of cheating



In figure 6.3.2 the mean total scores for each of the five measures of cheating are presented. The acceptability and severity bars represent how acceptable and how serious each of the 30 scenarios were perceived to be by the parents. High numbers represent a greater degree of severity and a lesser degree of acceptability.

(d) Comparisons between the parental style scale and the other questionnaire battery measures

The parental style scales (parent and adolescent) were used as dependent variables in a series of mixed design and between-subject analyses of variance. No relationships in the data were identified with the parental version of the parental style scale as the dependent variable. However, a main effect of year in school for the adolescent version of the parental scale was found ($F_{(4,137)} = 8.3, p < .001$). First year students (year 7) reported higher mean scores than the other year groups (Scheffe follow up test, table 6.3.34).

Table 6.3.34. Total mean scores for the adolescent parental scale as a function of year group

Year group	Mean	N
1st year	47.3	20
2nd year	42.8	25
3rd year	43.1	37
4th year	41.7	22
5th and 6th	40.8	38

In accordance with the research techniques of authors such as those given in the introduction, the highest and lowest 40 cases were identified within the sample for the parental scale measures (parent, adolescent) and the exam anxiety measure. These cases were classed as at the extremes of the distributions. Research suggests that using the data in this way isolates 'pure' groups of respondents.

Methods that involved using the top and bottom 25% of the total scores were not deemed appropriate as the distributions were heavily skewed. Isolating the data in this way led to disproportionately large groups at the top end of the data set and small n groups at the bottom end of the data set. Watson's (1988) method of selecting cases 1 standard deviation above and below the mean was also flawed. For example, the extreme groups for the adolescent version of the parental style scale, when obtained using this method resulted in two groups of 16 and 18 cases.

Therefore to make multiple comparison analyses possible, extreme groups were based on the number of cases that would avoid empty cell problems (n=40). The 62 remaining cases in the middle of the distribution formed a bigger group in order that a clear distinction could be drawn between the two extreme groups. Further, in a distribution, there are a greater number of cases in the middle, which represent a more homogenous sub-sample.

Independent t-tests were conducted on the three scales to ensure that the extreme group means were different. Details of these are given appendix 14. In each case, Levene's test for equality of variances were non-significant.

(i) Parent data

Mixed design analysis of variance revealed a significant interaction between the type of parental cheating measures (severity and acceptability) and father occupation, $F_{(2,35)} = 3.4, p < .05$.

Table 6.3.35. Means for the parental cheating measures as a function of father occupation

Occupation	Severity	Acceptance
Administrative	97.1	94.3
Associate professional	88.2	96.6
Professional	83.0	89.0

For this extreme group of parents (high and low scoring parenting styles) inspection of the means suggested that respondents who reported the father occupation to be less skilled perceived the cheating scenarios to be more serious than unacceptable. This was against the general trend of the main data set where behaviours were perceived to be more unacceptable than severe. In addition, there may be a trend away from severity as professional status of the father increases as indicated by the means in table 6.3.35

(ii) Adolescent data

Two significant interactions for the adolescent version of the parental style data were found. The first interaction was between question type ('Like me', 'Friends', class) and the adolescent groups (high and low scores), $F_{(1.7, 87.5)} = 5.03$, $p < .02$. Means are presented in table 6.3.36. Lower scoring respondents perceived themselves and their friends to be less like the characters in the scenarios compared with the perceptions of the higher scoring respondents. Conversely, the lower scoring respondents perceived the people in their class to be more like the characters in the scenarios than did the higher scoring respondents.

Table 6.3.36. Adolescent measures of cheating means as a function of parental style (adolescent)

	Like me	Like my friends	Like the people in my class
High scores	49.0	54.4	60.25
Low scores	45.0	51.5	66.9

Table 6.3.37. Adolescent measures of cheating as a function of parental style and gender

		Like me	Like my friends	Like the people in my class
High	Male	45.0	51.5	59.3
	Female	52.5	56.9	61.1
Low	Male	46.0	50.1	64.6
	Female	44.0	52.7	68.9

A three-way interaction was revealed between gender, question type and the adolescent groups for the parental styles data, $F_{(1.7, 87.5)} = 4.0$, $p < .03$ (table 6.3.37). Three way interactions are difficult to interpret. However, inspection of the means suggests that for the group of respondents

classified as 'low', the spread of responses across the three questions types was wider. These respondents have reported themselves to be more conservative in their cheating perceptions than those of their classmates *in comparison* to the group of respondents classified as 'high'. Within this difference, the male 'high' respondents were more conservative regarding the 'Like me' question type than the female 'high' respondents as indicated by the mean responses in table 6.3.37.

(iii) Exam data

No differences were identified between the extreme groups of respondents 'classified' according to high and low exam anxiety. However, the undifferentiated (all cases) debilitating anxiety scores were positively correlated with 'Like me' ($r=.31$, $n=142$, $p<.01$), indicating increased cheating with increased anxiety. Facilitating anxiety was negatively correlated with 'class' ($r=-.19$, $n=142$, $p<.05$). Facilitating anxiety increased with the perception that cheating by classmates decreased. However, this correlation was near zero.

(e) Regression analyses

A multiple linear regression was conducted using the 'Like me' total scores as the dependent variable. For the purpose of this analysis, the 'Like me' scores were treated as an indication of reported self-cheating. The relationship between the dependent and predictor variables was unknown and therefore a backward regression was performed using the following predictor variables:

'Friends', 'Class', severity, parental scale (adolescent), parental scale (parent), exam anxiety, gender, 'Year in school' and 'School type'.

Severity and acceptability were not both included as these two variables were highly correlated (multicollinearity). Regression analysis assumes independence of variables and if two variables are correlated the final model may drop one because the variables are measuring the same thing. Severity was therefore included as this is a measure frequently reported in the cheating literature.

Assumptions of the regression were tested. The correlation matrix between all possible predictor variables is given in appendix 15. 'Friends' and 'Class' were moderately highly correlated ($r=.5$). Other significant correlations between the variables which were present were below .4. For a full model with nine predictor variables the critical mahalanobis distance of χ^2 was 27.88. No cases were found to be equal to or higher than this figure (thus there were no multivariate outliers)

The full model R^2 was .682 (adjusted $R^2 = .667$) indicating that all of the variables together accounted for 68% of the variance in 'Like me' total scores. The order of elimination for the predictor variables was parental style (parent), school, class, parental style (adolescent). The final model included 'Friends', severity, 'Year in school' and exam anxiety. These predictor variables accounted for 67.6% of the variance. The beta values for the final model are given in table 6.3.38. The Durbin-Watson statistic was 2.2 which is close to 2, indicating that the residuals were independent.

Table 6.3.38. Beta values (standardized) for the predictor variables

Predictor variable	Beta values	t	Sig.
Friends	.77	15.3	.00
Severity	.13	-2.6	.01
Year in school	.09	2.1	.03
Exam anxiety	.11	1.8	.07

As can be seen from table 6.3.38 the predictor variable, exam anxiety, did not reach significance at the 5% alpha level. However, the model overall, as tested by ANOVA was highly significant, $F(4,135)=70.5$, $p<.01$. The beta values confirmed that the best predictor was 'Friends'. Inspection of the t-statistic in table 6.3.38 indicates a large t value to a small p-value. The larger the difference between t and p the greater the contribution of the predictor variable to the dependent variable. In this model, 'Friends' has a t value of 15.3.

The normal probability plot of the residuals was consistent with the assumption of normality (figure 6.3.3) and the scatterplot of the residuals against the predicted values (figure 6.3.4) indicated linearity (no relationship).

Figure 6.3.3. Normal probability plot of the residuals for the final model.

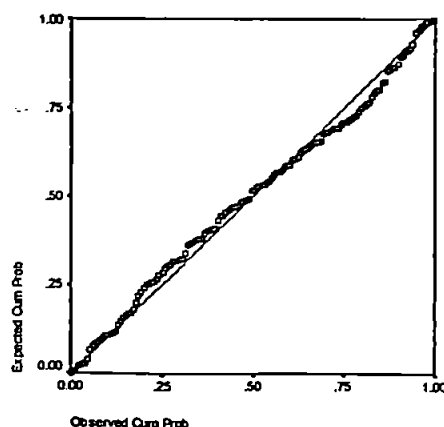
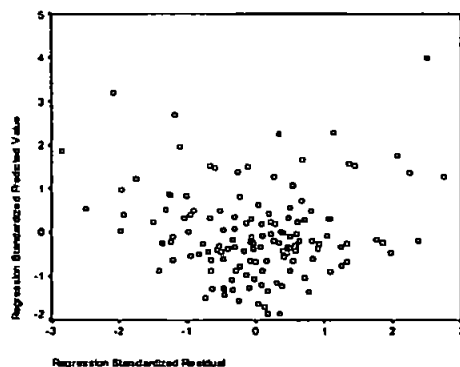


Figure 6.3.4. Scatterplot of the residuals against the predicted values

It is possible that the significant correlation between 'Friends' and class masked the inclusion of class in the final model. Therefore a regression was conducted that excluded 'Friends'. For this model, 36.1% of the variance in 'Like me' scores was account for (adjusted $R^2 = .347$). However, Beta values were all highly significant (see table 6.3.39) and severity was replaced by the adolescent version of the parental style scale. The Durbin-Watson statistic was 2.4.

Table 6.3.39. Beta values (standardized) of the predictor variables for the class model

Predictor variable	Beta values	t	Sig.
Class	.47	6.7	<.01
Exam anxiety	-.31	-4.5	<.01
Parental scale (A)	.25	3.6	<.01

When the proportion of scenarios to which respondents reported similarity was used as the dependent variable (index of cheating) in the regression analyses, unsurprisingly a similar set of predictor variables was reported to account for 60% of the variance in 'propyes' adjusted $R^2 = .59$, $F_{3, 139} = 67.9$, $p < .01$.

6.4 Discussion

6.4.1 Summary of findings

The findings of the present study are discussed in relation to the hypotheses that were outlined in the introduction, beginning with those relating to parental styles.

(a) Parental style scale

The parental style scale developed for this study was based on the three content areas of support, control and academic pressures. The total scores of the respondents were intended to reflect the degree to which the respondents reported support, control and academic pressure, with

an high overall score indicating high support, control and pressure. Steinberg, Lambourn, Dombusch and Darling (1992) suggested that both high support and control may be important for academic achievement.

In the event however, factor analyses indicated for both versions of the parental style scale that four factors explained the relationship between the retained items. These factors, whilst indicating support and control across the spread of items, were more similar to the *sub components* of the authoritative parenting style than anticipated (expressed in the literature as educational involvement and encouragement).

Two of the factors however, in each version of the scale may directly relate to support and control. The two factors of 'family' reflected the supportive environment of the home. The parental factor of 'coping' reflected the parents' need to maintain control in school, whilst the adolescent factor of 'independence' reflected the need to seek autonomy (restricted control) from the parent in the school environment.

The presence of the two polarised factors of 'independence' and 'coping' may be explained by symbolic interactionism. The perceptions of the questions were dependent upon the respondent type. Questions relating to the child at school were clustered into the 'coping' factor for parents and the 'independence' factor for adolescents, indicating a difference in the interpretation of the meaning of parental behaviour. Amato (1990) suggested that a difference in cheating perceptions scores between staff and students in his study may have been related to symbolic interactionism. In the present study, the 'independence' and 'coping' means were found to differ, supporting the hypothesis that parental styles would be perceived differently depending upon the respondent type.

Overall, both parents and adolescents reported that 'academic achievement' and educational responsibilities at home ('parent-school link', 'homework') were more important than family support or control as measured by 'coping' and 'independence'. However, adolescents reported a higher perception of the degree of family support encountered and a higher perception of the amount of independence sought than parents. Parents were less concerned about maintaining control in school as expressed by 'coping' than were adolescents regarding the seeking of autonomy ('independence').

Inspection of the means between the four factors of the two versions of the scale suggested that no differences in factor scores for either high or low classified respondents (extreme groupings) were evident. In addition, it was hypothesised that there would be a difference in the levels of support and control expressed by adolescents of different ages. No differences in the four

factors across year in school were found. However, first years (year 7) were more likely to report higher total parental scale scores than the other years. No hypotheses were included that specified gender differences regarding parental styles and none were found.

Educational involvement and parental encouragement were reported by various authors (Ginsburg and Bronstein, 1993; Steinberg et al 1992) to be an important mediator between levels of authoritative parenting and school performance. Ginsburg and Bronstein described educational involvement as the surveillance of homework with greater levels leading to lower grades, whilst Steinberg et al reported the opposite. Michaels and Miethel (1989) reported that parental pressure to achieve grades was a major predictor of cheating. However, despite the similarities between the parental styles scales developed in this study and the literature, no relationship was found between self-reported cheating and either measures of parental style.

The relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement was also not proven in the current study. Correlational evidence between parental styles and perceived ability in Maths, English and Science was weak. The adolescent version of the scale correlated with adolescents' perceived ability in Science (.35), whilst the parental version of the scale correlated with parental perceived ability in Maths (.2) and English (.23).

Educational involvement and educational encouragement were reflected by the two factors of 'school-parent link' and 'academic achievement' in the parent version of the scale, and by 'homework' and 'academic achievement' in the adolescent version. Toomey (1989) reported that for parents who were able, help with and monitoring homework improved success at school. Further, time spent on homework was found to be positively related to middle-classness (Holmes and Croll, 1989). The respondents in the present sample were described according to parental occupation as largely middle class.

Conclusions regarding the parental styles scales suggest that similar factors were found relating to parenting practices as those reported in the literature (support, control *and* involvement and encouragement). Relative importance was given by parents and adolescents in this study to educational encouragement and involvement in preference to support and control. This may be a reflection of the educational emphasis of the scale. A greater number of items relating to the content area of academic pressures (as measured by the 'academic achievement' factor) were retained in both versions of the scale.

The relative preference of these two encouragement and involvement factors is interesting because in the literature these have been used to explore *how* parenting styles can be used to

moderate adolescent academic performance. This finding is support for the need to study parental styles in relation to educational issues when investigating the role of the parent in education.

The sample demographic characteristics, as mentioned earlier, indicated that the respondents' families were largely middle class and involved in their child's education. Paulson (1994) reported that parental involvement was the biggest predictor of achievement. Moreover, the adolescents were reported by both the parent and child to be of above average class-standing for Maths, English and Science. Whilst no substantial claims can be made about this study's parenting styles vis-à-vis the styles defined in the literature, it may well be that the respondents sampled were heavily oriented towards authoritative parenting. Evidence for this can be found in the literature. Children of authoritative parents were academically able, psychologically autonomous and under a greater amount of behavioural control (Steinberg, Elmen and Mounts, 1989). This latter point aligned with the 'homework' factor in which there were items relating to the completion of homework on time.

Assessment anxiety did not correlate with parental style. Therefore whilst adolescents reported that they strongly felt the pressures their parents placed on them regarding 'academic achievement', this was not translated into exam anxiety. Shelton and Hill (1969) reported a correlation between debilitating anxiety and cheating. A similar positive correlation was found in the present study between debilitating anxiety and self-reported cheating (more cheating amongst those with higher debilitating anxiety scores). That assessment anxiety was not found to be related to academic performance may reflect the findings of Wolters and Pintrich (1998) who reported that exam anxiety only accounted for 6% of the variance in academic performance.

In summary therefore, whilst parental styles were not found to impact on academic achievement or exam anxiety, respondents on the parent, parental style scale reported academic achievement as being important, taking their responsibility as parent seriously (e.g., ensuring homework is completed on time), having a loving home and concerned about their child's ability to cope in school. Respondents on the adolescent parental style scale reported a loving home to be important, to feel that their family felt academic achievement was important, to seek independence and to have a family environment that supported the adolescent and ensured that he or she completed homework on time.

Other findings regarding parental styles related to the measures of cheating. When the extreme groups were compared on the measures of cheating, a question type-gender interaction was reported. Low scoring respondents were more conservative of their estimation of the

prevalence of cheating in comparison to their high scoring counterparts. Further, within the group of high scoring adolescents, males reported cheating less than females ('Like me' scores). For this group of males, academic pressures, family support, independence and homework activities were associated with less reported cheating.

For the parent version of the scale, father occupation was found to be related to perception of severity and acceptability of the cheating scenarios. Father occupations that were less skilled were associated with parent reports of increased severity in comparison to the other occupational groups. In addition, for this category of occupations severity was greater than perceived unacceptability. Acceptability slightly increased with professional status, whilst severity decreased.

(b) Measures of cheating

Perceptions of cheating varied according to what was assessed. For the adolescents, reported similarity between the self and the characters in the cheating scenarios was less than for the respondents' friends and classmates. It is possible that measures of 'self-reported' cheating were lower than would be found in a more heterogeneous sample. Ability has been consistently associated with lower levels of cheating (e.g., Ellenburg, 1973; Kanfer and Deurfeldt, 1968).

Friends and classmates were reported to engage in more activities more frequently like those depicted in the scenarios. However, all adolescent respondents reported that they were like at least one of the scenarios 'sometimes'. The order of perceived involvement with cheating increased with the move from the self, to friends, to the people in the respondents' class. The range of behaviours (index of cheating) with which respondents reported to be engaged in also increased from the self, to friends, to the people in the respondents' class. This was in keeping with the hypothesis that the self would be perceived as more ethical than peers. Self-reports of 'Like me' cheating were also found to increase with year group. However, no gender differences in reported levels of cheating were found. The amount of cheating reported by respondents in terms of the range of behaviours compares favourably to Evans and Craig's (1990) finding. They reported less cheating in higher education than secondary education. In fact, Newstead et al (1996) found that some British undergraduates denied cheating at all. This is in comparison to the present study in which all respondents were reported to view themselves like the characters in the cheating scenarios.

Cheating which was reported to occur 'sometimes' or more frequently related to behaviours that were considered marginal forms of cheating by the researcher (thinking smart during tests and

being given an extra day by the teacher to complete GCSE coursework). This latter item was an example included to assess perceptions of cheating by teachers. The behaviour which was reported to occur the least by adolescent respondents was feigning illness to avoid taking an important test or exam. However, it was reported to be used more frequently by friends and classmates. The scenarios reported by respondents to be least likely to be carried out by their friends and classmates mostly related to obtaining finished work by unauthorised means (e.g., coursework from another school, essay from a computer, essays from an older sibling). Along with feigning illness to avoid an assessment, the biggest reported difference between the respondent and the people in his or her class related to not doing homework because it is believed to be a waste of time.

When the scenarios were collapsed across the three question types and investigated by reasons for cheating groupings, the most frequently reported scenario group to occur related to opportunistic cheating, followed by cheating through laziness and cheating because everyone does it.

Findings regarding the measures of the acceptability and severity of cheating as assessed by parents were not as anticipated. Parents reported that overall, the behaviours in the cheating scenarios were more unacceptable than they were severe. Exceptions were in evidence. The scenario for which there was the greatest acceptability-severity difference, with severity being higher than acceptability was feigning illness to avoid an assessment. This scenario reported that the mother made the excuse for the child. Over 90% of the parent respondents were mothers. Further, in Study 1, the younger female focus group reported that this behaviour was 'not cheating' if the parent lied for the child. Of the eight scenarios for which severity was greater than unacceptability, three related to parental involvement in the cheating. Peer accomplices were reported by Whitely and Kost (1999) as being perceived with more sympathy, whilst cheaters with a need to cheat were perceived with greater sympathy (Roberts and Rabinowitz (1992). In this instance, the parents were the accomplices.

Smuggling notes into a mock exam was reported by adolescents to be the least frequently performed behaviour by their friends and classmates. However, this behaviour was reported by parents to be one of the eight more acceptable than severe scenarios, along with stealing an essay found on a computer. Copying in lessons was also reported by parents to be more acceptable than severe. Seven of these eight behaviours were rated at the mean level of 'acceptable in the circumstances', whilst all eight scenarios were rated as 'serious' or 'very serious'. These data

suggest, that for the eight behaviours, the parents were responding in a 'do as I say (it's serious) and not as I do (but acceptable in the circumstances)' manner. This is particularly so for the scenarios where the parent was depicted as the accomplice

There was a general trend discernible however, in the remaining scenarios. In general levels of unacceptability and severity were high across all scenarios. For scenarios where parents were particularly conservative in their perceptions of cheating, so too were the adolescents (cheating less likely to be reported). Similarly, for the scenarios that the parents were less conservative regarding, so too were the adolescents. Thus whilst the correlation between parent and adolescent data was not significant, it appeared that severity and unacceptability was associated with reported frequency of cheating by the adolescent, their friends and the people in the adolescent's class.

There were no significant relationships between any of the parental measures with the adolescent measures. Although there were no significant relationships, from the charts in appendix 16 which are individual scenario plots of all five measures of cheating, a trend can be discerned. The less frequently a behaviour was reported to occur by adolescent respondents, the more serious and unacceptable the parents reported the scenario to be. Parents perceived the scenarios relating to the home to be less severe and more acceptable than the other school based scenarios. This mirrors the assessment perceptions reported in previous studies that adolescents reported more cheating on homework and that they viewed homework cheating as less serious (Study 2, Chapter 4).

(c) Regression analyses

Regression analyses indicated that three variables predicted adolescent reported cheating behaviour. The amount of cheating reported to be perpetrated by the respondents' friends, parental perceptions of the severity of cheating and exam anxiety accounted for 68% of the variance in self-reported cheating behaviours. Year in school was included in the final model, but did not reach significance and was therefore dropped. Classmates were not found to be a predictor variable in the final model. In order to ascertain whether the exclusion of 'Class' was due to the correlation between 'Friends' and 'Class' a regression was conducted that excluded 'Friends'. Classmates, exam anxiety and this time, parental style (parents) predicted self reported cheating. However, the model only accounted for 36% of the variance in the self-reported measure of 'Like me'.

An interpretation of the regression model may be that for respondents who perceived their friends to cheat, had parents with less serious perceptions of cheating, were older and who tended to be slightly more exam anxious, self-reported cheating was higher. This interpretation was arrived at by examining the general evidence presented in the results section. The correlation between self-reported cheating and cheating by friends was strong and positive. Therefore, the more friends were perceived to cheat, the more respondents reported cheating. Neither severity or year in school were found to significantly correlate with self-reported cheating. However, the data indicated that whilst non-significant, the relationship between severity and cheating was negative. The year in school self-reported cheating means indicated an increase in self-reported cheating with age. Indeed, the interaction between self-reported cheating and year only just failed to reach significant ($p=.06$).

Exam anxiety was correlated with perceptions of the respondents' own cheating behaviour ($r=.281$), again suggesting that as anxiety increased, so too did cheating behaviour.

These age related findings reflect those reported in the introduction (e.g., Murdock, Hale and Weber, 2001). Overall, however, the role that friends played in accounting for cheating by the self provides support for the findings of researchers such as Evans and Craig (1990) and Michaels and Miethé (1989). This year finding is limited support for the hypothesis set out in the introduction. Compared to the other predictor variables, the amount that friends were perceived to cheat was by far the greatest factor in accounting for the variance in self-reported cheating behaviour.

Parental style was found not to be a predictor of self-reported cheating, despite there being a weak negative correlation (parent version). Thus, whilst academic pressures were noted to exist, by virtue of the number of items loading on to the academic achievement factor (more rather than less) and the identification of academic achievement in both versions of the scale, they were not linked in this sample of adolescents with cheating behaviour.

6.4.2 Limitations of the study

It was hoped that parental pressure for good grades would emerge as a predictor of cheating in the parental style scales. Whilst academic achievement was the most important factor for both parent and child it was not found to relate to levels of cheating or exam anxiety. This may well have been due to the sample, which was mainly homogenous or the skewed distribution of the data. However, as academic pressures were evident in both versions of the scale, pressures on

adolescents cannot be dismissed and should be taken seriously in future studies. Therefore, in future research, if parental pressure is not measured in terms of parenting styles it should at the very least be measured more explicitly. For example, parental pressure for good grades could be assessed perhaps as in the form of a reason given in a scenario.

As reported in the results, all variables were skewed. This is not an uncommon finding in cheating research and it has been dealt with in a number of ways. For example, Anderman, Greisinger and Westerfield (1998) divided all their cheating variable along the 50th percentile. However, by doing this, there was no clear gap by which cheaters and non-cheaters could be differentiated. Murdock, Hale and Weber (2001) dealt with skewed data by collapsing all of the agree options together. A similar technique was used in this study in the calculation of the 'propyes' index of cheating variable. However, for this study, no differences were found in the results between using 'propyes' as an independent variable and 'Like me'.

Nevertheless the data were 'poor' in terms of normality and the results as presented here should be interpreted with caution. Researchers who have developed psychometric scales of cheating have used item-total correlations that have been as low as .2, with similar factor loadings (e.g., Haines et al 1986). Whilst this is acceptable in some quarters, in view of the nature of cheating data, these scales should be re-assessed in light of the difficulties associated with developing a psychometric scale using the scenario data given in appendix 16.

In addition, the data were further degraded by the omission of two items from the parent version of the parental style scale. One of the omitted items was included in the 'family' factor of the adolescent scale. As these two scales were identical for both groups of respondents, except for this one item, it is probable that this item would also have remained in the final scale for the parent version.

The difficulties associated with psychometrically refining a scale are largely associated with the sample and the items. As already identified, the sample was homogenous. This severely limits the generalisability of the findings. The items that were generated were few in number (30 for the measures of cheating and 37 for the parental scales). In addition, the response scales were 4 point forced choice (no 'neutral' position), in keeping with earlier researchers into cheating who found that the neutral option was selected more frequently than any other (e.g. Anderman et al 1999). Many parents wrote on the questionnaires that they found this response choice too limiting and that many of the questions were poorly worded. Indeed one respondent was a market researcher and went to great (and useful) lengths to explain how the scale could have been

improved. Parents were concerned that they were being forced to represent themselves in a light that was too limiting. Many reported that their behaviour towards their child was dependent upon the situation. This view reflects earlier reported findings (Dornbusch et al 1987) that many families were not suitable for slotting into one parenting style and the findings of this study, that extreme groupings did not relate independently to any of the measures in the battery.

The items that were generated in the form of the scenarios with behaviours *and* reasons may also have been responsible for the poor factorability of the data. Whilst the adolescent version of the cheating measures were more amenable to factor analysis, this was probably due to the variance imparted to the data through the combined use of behaviour and reasons for cheating. Respondents may have chosen sometimes to react to the reason and sometimes to the behaviour. When the reason was separated from the behaviour as in the parent measures of cheating, the data became more homogenous and even less suitable for factor analysis. The issue of only having four response points for the items in the battery may have been a contributory factor to the low or non-significant correlations between variables. Restricted range was therefore taken into consideration for the study reported in Study 5 (Chapter 7).

Another issue related to the generation of items was what constituted cheating. Scenarios were written to cover a broad range of cheating severity. However, whilst some scenarios were marginal forms of cheating, such as being given an extra day to complete coursework (Jessica), one scenario was traditionally not classed as a cheating behaviour at all (not doing homework because it is a waste of time; Danielle). Whilst Jessica was a good discriminator, Danielle was not. Respondents reported that they were rarely like Danielle, even if their friends were. This suggests that it may well be perceived as a form of cheating (work avoidance) *and* that cheating is closely intertwined with others aspects of the learning environment. Alternatively, it may be that for this group of respondents not doing homework was not an option and therefore the item was irrelevant. Perhaps cheating should therefore not be studied in academic isolation as it has tended to be in the past.

This study was ambitious in covering many different cheating behaviours across many different cheating situations, with a variety of reasons for cheating. In addition both parental and adolescent perspectives on a large scale (n=142) were gained. The size of sample and response rate was particularly impressive considering the lengthy consent process. However, this may have added to the homogenisation of the self-selecting sample.

These two design issues of multiple behaviours and multiple perspectives have rarely been attempted by other researchers. Whilst the results have been complicated, they have been no more complicated than those presented by researchers using fewer cheating behaviours (e.g., Whitley and Kost, 1999). However, in retrospect, employing a method of scale construction based on the Rasch measurement model may have been preferable. Rost and Wild (1994) used such a model to determine the perceptions of cheating of adolescents from several countries. The Rasch model, it is claimed, can identify items in terms of difficulty or severity and remove items that are contaminated by item biases such as culture or age differences (parent vs. child). It was not employed in this instance however, for practical reasons. Development of a Rasch model is even more lengthy and complex than a 'traditional' psychometric scale.

Finally, was cheating measured in this study? Respondents were asked to report how like themselves they were to the characters in the scenarios and therefore the measure of self-reported cheating can only be considered an indirect one. Nevertheless, every respondent reported cheating at least once and cheating levels were probably underestimated due to the emphasis given to the reasons for cheating. Respondents may well have perpetrated the cheating behaviour depicted in any one of the scenarios, but not reported to have done so, because their reason for cheating did not match the given scenario reason.

In the next chapter, the teachers' perspective on cheating is gained. Perceptions of the severity of cheating behaviours are sampled along with an exploration of what teachers perceive cheating to be and what they perceive to be the causes of student cheating. In this way, an holistic approach to cheating will have been gained through the examination of cheating from the perspective of the adolescent, the parent and the teacher.

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7

Study 5



Teachers' perceptions of cheating in the secondary school environment

7.1 Introduction

In the preceding chapter (Study 4), one type of authority figure, parents, were not found to influence cheating to a great degree. Parental perceptions of severity regarding cheating behaviours were found to be a minor predictor of perceived student cheating. Despite these limited findings, the focus group participants and the respondents in both Studies 2 and 3 (Chapters 4 and 5) gave authority figures, such as parents and teachers, a role in their perceptions of cheating.

In this study, the teacher as an authority figure was the focus for investigation. Teachers' perceptions of cheating behaviour severity need to be studied as do perceptions of the constituents of cheating. This may lead to increased comprehension of the factors that influence student cheating. Also in the previous chapter, the importance of the wider educational environment was discussed. For Study 4, this meant home-school links. In the present study, the wider educational environment refers to the role that teachers have in student learning and student cheating. The role can be broken down into components such as those highlighted in Study 1 (e.g., classroom management, communication of acceptable behaviour and teaching styles). In this study, factors such as these have been investigated in relation to the issues that students highlighted as important in the preceding studies. This study is about the teachers' perceptions of those factors.

The role of the teacher in the causes and consequences of cheating has rarely been a primary focus for research. There are instances of lecturer misconduct which focus on poor research practice (Swazey, Anderson and Lewis, 1993) or instances of cheating policies being studied (Keith-Spiegel, Tabachnick, Whitley and Washburn, 1998). More often it is research into teachers' perceptions of cheating relative to student perceptions of cheating that has been conducted (e.g., Livosky and Tauber, 1994; Platt-Jendrek, 1989; Tom and Borin, 1988).

Summarising the findings of research that will support the development of a teacher-participant investigation is complicated by the lack of British cheating research with secondary school teachers. The review that follows concerns the cheating literature on teachers and lecturers in the UK and US. The words 'teacher' and 'staff' are used here to refer to academic teachers at all levels of education. This has not been done to suggest similarities where comparisons should not be drawn, rather to reduce the range of terminology to something more manageable, (c.f., lecturer, professor, graduate teacher, faculty and so on).

The reasons for the dearth of research in this area of academic dishonesty may be four-fold. Firstly, there may have been practical difficulties associated with accessing busy teaching staff. Response rates vary from 26% (Roberts and Toombs, 1993) to 50% (Plat-Jendrek, 1989) in studies that involve teachers, and levels of participation have usually been higher for students (e.g., Livosky and Tauber, 1994). Secondly there may have been issues of sensitivity. Teachers may have felt that their profession was unjustly under scrutiny, even when *student* cheating was the focus of the research. Thirdly, researchers simply may not have felt that teacher perceptions were important in the study of student cheating, which leads into the fourth and final reason for a lack of research focusing on teachers. Researchers have been primarily interested in attitudes and perceptions towards cheating.

Studies of attitudes and perceptions constitute the majority of cheating research involving teachers' perceptions of cheating. Attitudes and perceptions are dependent variables which are relative measures. Such measures require comparison groups. Through comparisons, for example, the contribution made by perceptions to the acceptability of a cheating behaviour across different academic groups (teachers vs. students) may be determined. Teachers have tended to be used as a comparison group for student cheating alongside other independent variables of gender, age and religion to name but a few (e.g., Evans and Craig, 1990). It might appear to the cynic that research with teachers is un-innovative and 'tagged onto' the end of a study. The teachers' data form a variable that is placed last in a long line of variables that are compared to

various measures of student cheating. Little thought is given to the potential of teacher-perceptions as a central focus for research in the field of academic cheating. However, the comparison research that has been conducted has been essential. Tom and Borin (1988) argued that where student cheating was concerned comparison with teachers was necessary. Comparison research informing the baselines of cheating would impact on the future work of the prevention of student cheating.

The research that has been carried out with teacher respondents has concentrated on the following topics: What is cheating and how serious is it? What are the reasons for and possible causes of student cheating? Teachers' methods of dealing with cheating and lastly teachers themselves as cheats.

To clarify the discussion that follows, the cheating data that can be gathered varies. For example, data about the respondents' *perceptions* of cheating can be gathered (e.g., Anderson and Obenshain 1994); data about *perceptions* of cheating by the respondent's *students* can be gathered (e.g., Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995) and teacher reports of the *actual* frequency of student cheating can be gathered (e.g., Newstead et al 1996). The literature relating to respondents' own perceptions of cheating is presented first because it makes sense to discuss the literature in relation to an earlier study of this thesis - what constitutes cheating?

7.1.2 Consensus data regarding cheating behaviours

What teachers perceive to be cheating, is, like student perceptions of cheating, ambiguous. On one level secondary teachers' comprehension of what is and is not cheating is more sophisticated than students'. For example, both giving *and* receiving answers in a test may be viewed as cheating by teachers (Evans and Craig, 1990). However, on another level, there is just as much confusion in the minds of teachers as of their students. Paraphrasing is poorly understood by students, and teachers admit knowing little better, perhaps because paraphrasing is a grey area at this level of education (Graham et al 1994). In higher education however, where sophistication of understanding should be more similar between students and staff, studies have shown a closer degree of agreement between staff and students (Anderson and Obenshain, 1994; Graham et al 1994; Tom and Borin, 1988).

Degree of agreement is relative however. Anderson and Obenshain (1994) studied cheating in an American medical school. They only found a greater degree of agreement between students and staff for traditional academic cheating behaviours. However individual behaviours

may highlight potential differences. In the *academic* medical setting the students were more likely to view the writing of a report without actually participating in the practical as cheating, whilst the staff were more likely to view the use of false extenuating circumstances as cheating. Agreement ratings diverged most for behaviours which described ethical misconduct on hospital wards (*real life* medical settings). Behaviours in this setting were viewed more leniently by teachers (i.e., practicing hospital staff) than their students. Here it would appear that there is a difference between perceptions of academic ethical conduct and real life ethical conduct

In Graham et al's (1994) research, American university undergraduate students and staff also did not differ greatly in their agreement ratings as to what constituted academic cheating. Tentative differences however, were found between passive and active cheating items. Teachers agreed more between themselves that passive items constituted cheating than did students. Most disagreement was found relating to the most frequently occurring behaviours.

Not all research however, has found this close degree of agreement about what constitutes cheating. Stern and Havicek (1986) asked staff and students to report whether they thought each of a range of 36 behaviours constituted academic misconduct. For 24 of the items, there was a significant difference in agreement ratings, with staff more than students viewing the behaviours as more likely to be cheating. Why the anomaly between studies? Perhaps students in the two 1994 studies had a greater awareness of what constituted cheating as more information about academic dishonesty may have been forthcoming over the intervening years.

In three of the previous studies described above, measures of agreement *between teachers themselves* were calculated. The agreement percentages are listed in table 7.1.1, where the *same* behaviour was mentioned in all studies.

Table 7.1.1. Comparison of teacher agreement ratings (%)

	Anderson and Obenshain (1994)	Graham, Monday, O'Brien and Steffen (1994)	Stern and Havicek (1986)
Copying from another student	100	100	99
Using a crib sheet	100	100	99
Impersonation	100	100	97
Looking at unauthorised materials	88	100	95
Gaining advance information about a test	97.7	100	94

As can be seen, the degree of agreement for three of the five behaviours was total for Anderson and Obenshain and Graham et al. Variance in the other two behaviours might be a function of the situation, especially the behaviour associated with 'looking' which is ambiguous and

difficult to articulate in questionnaires without some degree of intent or situational reference being inferred by respondents. Items where there was a lower degree of agreement and which were not included in the table, related to, amongst other behaviours, plagiarism. Anderson and Obenshain found a 97.1% plagiarism agreement between teachers, Stern and Havlicek 98%. A lesser degree of agreement was found between the teachers in Barnett and Dalton's (1981) study: 74%. Whilst the degree of agreement was still relatively high, it is typically this behaviour, plagiarism, where most disagreement between staff and students occurs (e.g., Barnett and Dalton, 1981; Evans and Craig, 1990).

7.1.3 Staff vs. student perceptions of cheating

With regard to the studies presented in table 7.1.1, there were some behaviours where the lower agreement levels as to what constituted cheating were similar for staff *and* students. For example, for social loafing as a cheating behaviour, Anderson and Obsenshain found that 74% of staff and students that it was cheating, and Graham et al found a 79% agreement rating. It would appear that uncertainty about the status of this behaviour is the same for staff and students across different academic settings (medical vs. non-medical). But, where cheating is concerned, very rarely can generalisations be made. In contrast Barnett and Dalton found that whilst 83.7% of staff agreed that social loafing was cheating only 48% of students did.

However, Barnett and Dalton, like the researchers in table 7.1.1, and Tom and Borin (1988) also found plagiarism to be one of the greatest sources of disagreement between staff and students. Perceptions of seriousness, like perceptions of what constitutes cheating also differ depending upon the behaviour. Comparing perceptions of seriousness across studies is difficult because measurement scales differ. At best it can be said that the passive items, such as group work (social loafing) and passing information on about the contents of an assessment were perceived by staff and students as less serious than active items such as copying. Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) drew the seriousness divide between exam related behaviours (serious) and coursework related behaviours (less serious). They used alternative conceptual labels (to passive and active) but similar constituent items. Students perceived exam related cheating to be more serious than coursework related cheating.

Generally, however, if a difference between staff and students (disregarding behaviour type) was found at all, intuition would suggest that staff perceptions of severity should be greater than those of students. The intuitive reasoning is thus: staff, by virtue of entering the teaching

profession should be more committed to education and the promotion of learning. Not all students share the same degree of commitment to learning. Most teachers can report the frustrations of working with students who do not pursue knowledge for knowledge's sake.

Tom and Borin's research indicated that all but one of 23 behaviours were perceived with the same degree of severity by both staff and students. Unsurprisingly, staff perceived plagiarism to be more serious than students. However, plagiarism was ranked in the bottom five (i.e., less serious) of all the behaviours studied. Differences between overall staff-student perceptions of seriousness were identified by Evans and Craig (1990). Secondary school teachers viewed cheating in schools *in general* to be a serious problem, whilst denying that there was a cheating problem in their own school! This was in contrast to students who were more likely to say the opposite, that there was a problem in their school. Bushweller (1999) surveyed high school teachers in America. Nine out of 10 teachers were reported to know that cheating took place in most of their classes. Whether or not the teachers felt this to be a problem was not reported by Bushweller. Contrary evidence that teacher perceptions were less severe than students, like Evans and Craig (1990), came from Livosky and Tauber (1994). They studied intentions to cheat. The students were more critical than teachers in their perceptions of those who prepared to, but did not actually cheat. In a study of Maltese secondary school students, Borg (1998) found that some form of stereotyping was strongly in evidence on the non-co-educational island. Teachers viewed cheating and lying as unacceptable (rating cheating the 13th most serious problem classroom behaviour out of 49), but that it was more unacceptable in girls than boys. Unfortunately, no information about the perceptions of these behaviours by the students themselves was gathered.

It appears that differences between staff and student ratings of seriousness in higher education are unlikely to approach significance and where they do it is more likely that it is the students who will have the less severe outlook.

7.1.4 Perceptions of frequency and severity

Whilst agreement ratings about what constitutes cheating has been little studied, the perception of others' views about cheating has been even less widely researched, i.e., out-group perception data. The sparse research that is available may indicate that staff commonly incorrectly estimate student perceptions of the frequency and severity of student cheating. Graham et al (1994) found that students in their study were more accurate in their estimates of what they thought their teachers' views towards cheating would be. Staff however, consistently underestimated how

severe students thought the cheating behaviours would be. Similarly, Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) found that staff underestimated the *frequency* of student cheating as perceived by students. Therefore, it would appear, based on these two studies, that teachers view students as believing that cheating occurs less often and that when it does occur, students view cheating more leniently than reality would suggest.

Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) also studied the respondents' own perceptions of severity and frequency in the same way that, for example, Anderson and Obenshain (1994) studied respondents' perceptions of what constituted cheating. Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead found that British university staff consistently rated 22 cheating behaviours as more serious than did students. Behaviours such as falsification of data and plagiarism were perceived by students to be less serious than staff. Whilst staff and students agreed that the less serious behaviours (coursework) were more frequently performed than the more serious behaviours, student reported levels of occurrence were higher than staff perceived reported occurrences. It was on coursework-related behaviours that the greatest staff-student perception differences were found by both Stern and Havlicek (1986) and Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) even though the general trend was to grade less serious behaviours as occurring more frequently.

Staff perceptions of punishment for cheating were found to be slightly more stringent than students', by Roberts and Toombs (1993). The staff mean-rating-response corresponded to 'failing the student' whereas for students' it was 'lowering the student's work by one letter grade'. How staff deal with incidents of cheating, like other aspects of teacher approaches to cheating, has been the focus of few studies. Staff apparently do not like dealing with or reporting cheaters, even though up to 60% have reported witnessing some form of cheating in an exam (Plat-Jendrek, 1989). Lack of evidence is usually the most frequently cited reason for ignoring cheating and in Keith-Spiegel, Tabachnick, Whitely and Washburn's (1998) model of punishment procedures, lack of evidence was a heavily used, single-item factor. Emotionality, difficulty of following up the cheating, fear and denial formed the four 'full' factors in the model. Denial that cheating occurred was the least prevalent factor in the model. Keith-Spiegel et al found this to be contradictory to their anecdotal evidence. Teachers claimed that cheating was rife in American colleges – but not in their classes (cf. Bushweller, 1999).

Tom and Borin (1988) argued that staff should make the consequences of cheating clear to students. Curtis (1996) found that secondary school students across Europe (not Britain) and America were unsure as to whether their teachers had done so, with 40-60% of the sample

reporting that no explanations were given. 'Such a statement [about cheating to students] defines the cheating behaviour, the consequences of the cheating behaviour and the severity of the cheating behaviour' (Tom and Borin, 1988, p156). Perhaps this reluctance on behalf of academics to deal with cheating and make their views known to students, contributes to the ambiguous nature of behaviours such as plagiarism. These comments about dealing with cheating probably cannot be applied to British secondary schools. Whilst British universities have policies for dealing with misconduct (Armstead, 1993), secondary schools do not use the same system or have the adversarial policies of some universities. Even if they did have such policies, research suggests that rates of the reporting of cheating would not be much higher (McCabe, 1998).

Plat-Jendrek (1989) reported that some teachers did not follow-up cheating incidents because they felt to do so would only harm the student. Cheating is a form of failure, either by the student or teacher, depending on the perspective taken. There may be another equally valid reason for the non-reporting of cheating in American schools and universities. As most of the literature originated from the United States, it is sensible to look for reasons which American teachers argued inhibits them from dealing adequately with cheating. Bushweller (1999) reported the results of a survey into teachers' experiences of cheating in high school classrooms. The teachers reported that they were not always backed up by their departments and of the 356 teachers surveyed, 70% said that parental pressure often discouraged the teachers from penalising cheating; that parents were ready with excuses where the child failed. It would appear that where the punishment of cheating is concerned, evidence is mostly anecdotal and to be found in in-house journals and newspapers. Bushweller (1999) reported successful prosecutions of cheaters. The processes involved in bringing even the simplest of cases were characterised by litigious parents, a lengthy hearing and an extremely stressed teacher. Schneider (1999) on the other hand presented a report full of American University failed cheating-prosecutions in an attempt to understand why teachers ignored cheating. The article made startling reading and would make even the most self-assured professional think very hard before prosecuting a cheater. Accused students were reported to make threats against the accusing teacher and even resort to violence. In some cases where the evidence was clear-cut teachers were overruled by institutions' governing bodies and the teacher asked to leave the institution. It seems that for some American institutions reputation is all. Schneider (1999) presented the cheating scene in American universities as a war between the staff member and the student *and* a war between the staff member and the administration. The loser was the staff member on both counts. Whilst the evidence is limited to the reports of cases that

reached the media, it would appear that the more teacher-supportive environment was in primary and secondary levels of education in America. The real trouble for teachers began at university where the stakes were perceived to be much higher.

7.1.5 Teachers as cheaters

Whatever the case, students take a very dim view of teachers who ignore cheating (Keith-Spiegel, Tabachnik and Allen, 1993), and they view their teachers as being more ethical than themselves (Newstrom and Ruch, 1976). Pratt and McLaughlin (1989) found that American undergraduates used their teachers as a benchmark for acceptable ethical behaviour, more so than the perceptions they held about their peers' views of ethical behaviour. Is this deference to teachers deserved? Anecdotal evidence and media reports suggest that cheating amongst secondary school staff does exist (e.g. 'Fiddling the figures to get the right results', *The Guardian*, 2000). Teacher cheating was reported by Gay (1990) in an eye-opening report on the use of standardised tests in American high schools. In a study of 168 teachers a surprising amount of cheating was found to be carried out by teachers. Gay's concerns were primarily with maintaining the validity of the increasingly used standardised tests in the classroom. Classroom teachers were responsible for the administration and initial marking of aptitude tests. The importance of avoiding (or ignoring) testing irregularities was translated into students receiving higher tests scores than they merited. This then may have led to a wider range of college options and educational promotion to name but two consequences.

The cheating that teachers reported participating in was classified as one of 6 behaviours: inaccurate timing (giving an extra five minutes 'to let them check their answers'); altering the answer sheets (to make sure they had marked down what they had been taught); coaching (placing the questions on the board 2 days ahead of schedule); teaching the tests (teaching more advanced problems in class to help weaker students); errors in scoring/reporting (changing scores instead of making the marks on the test sheet clearer) and student cheating.

Such behaviours were not restricted to American teachers. British teachers have been found to allow students to sit their SATs early or have given students notice of the questions before the exams ('Test leak leads to suspension', *Times Educational Supplement*, 2001).

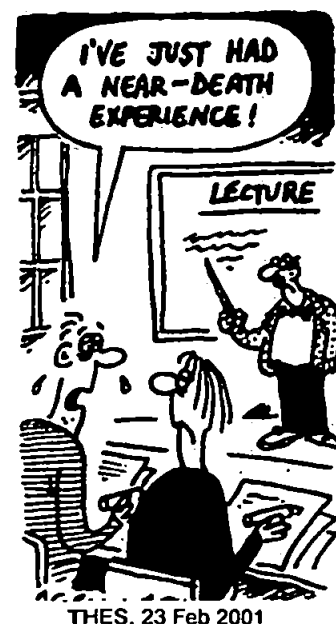
Other practices identified by Gay (1990) included leaving the students alone whilst taking the test and making gestures to indicate the correct answer. Reasons given by the teachers for this cheating were that they wanted to 'promote the self image of the student' (11%, p100); that the

cheating was to improve the image of the teacher (60%). Teachers felt that the primary reason for students engaging in cheating was parental pressure for good grades, with over 30% of teachers in each year group reporting this reason. Finally, the teachers were asked whether or not they felt that cheating was increasing. Seventy five percent reported that they felt cheating was increasing among teachers and students, with 43% of the 75% believing that teacher cheating was on the increase. Of the 25% who believed that cheating was on the decrease, 56% believed the decrease to be with the teachers. Bowers (1964) reported that students regarded standardised tests as '... short-cut methods...' and that they were '...an invitation to academic dishonesty given them by the teachers who employ[ed] these methods' (p36).

Having reviewed the evidence on teacher perceptions of cheating, the relationship between the characteristics and prevalence of cheating in students and the characteristics of their teachers will be discussed. Davis et al (1992) reported that 90% of respondents thought teachers *should* be bothered about cheating. This figure included those respondents who reported that they had in fact cheated.

7.1.6 The role of the teacher in promoting cheating

Teacher vigilance during assessments and the fairness of exams set by the teacher have been found to be consistent indicators of fluctuations in the prevalence of cheating. Cheating, not surprisingly, is reported by students to increase when vigilance is low and assessments are hard (Genereaux and McCleod, 1995). However, the friendliness of the teacher hardly figured in student reports of factors increasing or decreasing cheating investigated by Aiken (1991) and Genereaux and McCleod, whilst teacher friendliness most certainly did in research carried out by Evans and Craig (1990). Students in their study *did* think that unfriendly, boring and dull teachers would encounter more cheating (see cartoon). Furthermore, they thought performance-oriented teachers would also experience a greater prevalence of cheating. German students were found by Evans, Craig and Meitzel (1993) to attribute cheating to these teacher factors less than American or Costa Rican students. Whilst the teachers in Evans and Craig's study did not agree with these perceptions, they did agree with the students' premise that low vigilance and poor organisation would lead to cheating. These findings, however, were dependent upon



school type and so have limited generalisability. Generalisability was slightly better for classroom characteristics. Students mentioned classroom factors in relation to cheating far more than did teachers. The amount of material and difficulty of materials were reported to be prime indicators to students of a potential increase in cheating. Teachers agreed with students that poor learning objectives, courses with a single summative assessment and poor explanations of the consequences of cheating were all likely to increase cheating prevalence (Evans and Craig, 1990). Pulvers and Diekhoff (1999) reported that undergraduate participants who admitted to cheating, in their study of the classroom environment, perceived the classroom to be less personalised, less satisfying and less task oriented.

7.1.7 Teacher perceptions of the student cheater

What of the characteristics of the students themselves? Evans and Craig (1990) found that teachers and students were again in agreement about the characteristics of a cheater. The student cheater was described as perceiving themselves to be of low academic ability, have poor study skills, avoid effort, to fear failure, feel pressured by parents and also had friends who cheated (Evans and Craig, 1990). The same researchers found a surprising area of teacher-student disagreement when looking at the expectations that teachers held for their students. Teachers reported that they valued a high-achievement ethos and communicated this to students through high expectations. This communication of confidence in student abilities was perceived negatively by some students. The combination of high teacher expectations with the negative perceptions of those expectations by students was called the 'expectancy paradox' by Evans and Craig (1990). They reasoned that the expectancy paradox may be associated with cheating. Teachers could have been inadvertently pressurising students into cheating because attainment levels were unrealistically high. Curtis (1996) echoed this view; '...children receive mixed signals from their teachers and are often actually encouraged to cheat by the structure of our evaluation process and by pressures induced by both their schools and their parents' (p37). Anecdotal evidence suggests that this occurs in British Secondary schools and that this pressure may even be perceived as a form of cheating on the behalf of teachers (2000, Study 5 advisory teacher, personal communication). Curtis further commented that the number of tests students were given was a contributory factor. With the introduction of SATs in the UK, the number of tests has increased dramatically in British secondary schools. Whether Curtis' comments about Northern European and North American students can be applied to Britain is open to question. However, that students

perceive classroom cues to be ambiguous may also be linked to the perception that 'students ... view the classroom as a reciprocal process. When [teachers] are unfair, students see this as a violation of the rules and thus feel freer to cheat' (Graham et al 1994, p259).

Expectancy paradox effects may also be created by individual teaching styles. Student motivation can be increased or decreased by teachers, without teachers necessarily realising the indirect impact that their teaching style may have (Wang and Weisstein, 1989). Wang and Weisstein demonstrated that if a teacher believed that a student was a high achiever, they would interact with them more frequently, allow them more opportunities at getting the answer to a question right and provide more instructional help. If a teacher believed that a student was a low achiever, the opposite occurred. For students perceived as low achieving, the impact of being ignored leads to a decrease in motivation to seek help. Wang and Weisstein argued that this negative impact could be overcome by using a teaching style that encouraged self-directed study, whereby students can succeed without instructional help from teachers. However, such 'individualised learning environments' (ILE) may actually compound the original problem that they were designed to overcome. Anecdotal evidence of the use of ILE's in secondary school maths classes in 'low ability' educational areas, suggests that success is only achieved through cheating, because the study skills needed to be able to use the ILE are absent (2000, Study 5 advisory teacher, personal communication).

Research into the expectancy paradox and the discussion on individual teaching styles, suggests that teachers use heuristics by which to make judgements about classroom behaviour, for example, an heuristic used by teachers may be that as a group, high achievers do not cheat (Ellenburg, 1973). Blease (1995) found that British secondary school teachers made 3 heuristic judgements about students based on (i) personality, (ii) academic ability, and (iii) maturity and attitude to work. Each of these factors have been studied in relation to cheating (in higher education) and produced neatly polarised results; alienated individuals cheated more than included students (Calabrese and Cochran, 1990), high ability students cheated less than low ability students (Ellenburg, 1973) and older students cheated less than younger students (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995). Using simple heuristics to organise students in relation to cheating makes the prevention of cheating easier to manage. For example, if teachers believe that the more able students do not cheat, they do not have to supervise or observe them as closely as the group of students that they perceive do cheat. To test the academic ability heuristic, Ellenburg (1973) gave year 9 students the opportunity to alter the score of a test they had taken. Eighty-one percent

of the sample were found to have cheated in some way. This included 72% of the high grade point average (GPA) students and 94% of the low GPA students (however, there was a far greater number of high GPA students in the sample).

7.1.8 Summary

Teachers may or may not have different perceptions from students about what constitutes cheating or how serious the individual behaviours are. Levels of agreement between teachers themselves are equally inconsistent. What can be said with any degree of confidence is that active behaviours (e.g. some exam related) are more likely to be perceived with a greater severity than passive (e.g. some coursework related) behaviours. The relative impact of teachers on cheating by students appears straightforward, with pressure on students and poor classroom management effecting an increase in cheating. However, whilst a few studies have been with secondary school students and teachers, the overall lack of research in this area makes any conclusions that are drawn, tentative. One conclusion that can be drawn is that reports of teachers cheating for their students is on the increase. Summer examinations are becoming increasingly synonymous with media reports of teacher cheating.

7.1.9 Aim of the study

As has been pointed out more than once, much of the literature on teachers' perceptions of cheating is non-British and non-secondary school. None of the literature is both British *and* based in secondary school. Whilst the literature can inform what questions should be asked of teachers in general, there is limited help where the British educational system is concerned, particularly as there are so many government-led changes currently taking place. Therefore a simple approach to studying the perceptions of teachers was taken. As with the previous studies in this thesis, one of the key premises was that as there was no previous research, the analogy of 'walking before running' needed to be employed, i.e., examining what is known to test reliability and validity with British secondary school participants.

Studies 1, 2 and 3 in this thesis focused on student perceptions of cheating. Study 4, involved parents in the gathering of perceptions on cheating but still gave adolescent voices equal weight. The study presented in this chapter has been a direct attempt at drawing together some of the findings from each of the four preceding studies. In particular, some of the questions have

been used to validate the findings of Studies 2 and 3. For example, the perceptions of severity that students held regarding cheating behaviours were compared with the perceptions held by teachers.

Finally, some questions raised by the studies in this thesis were either answerable only by teachers or were questions that have been asked of students and parents, but which need the perspective of teachers to develop the research further.

Three main teacher perceptions of cheating research areas were identified thus:

1. Perceptions of the constituents, prevalence and seriousness of cheating in secondary school (Study 2) and how these compare with the findings in Study 3.
2. Perceptions of the determinants and legitimacy of cheating in secondary school.
3. Perceptions of the pressures that may effect an increase or decrease in cheating in secondary school.

In view of the limited nature of the research and the fact that direct comparisons with student data would not be possible (because similar but *different* questions were asked of students and teachers) hypotheses have not been stated. This study is exploratory and possibly the first in this country to focus exclusively on the teacher experience.

7.2 Method

7.2.1 Participants

The participants in the main study were secondary school teachers from three schools in South Devon. In addition, four teachers (known to the researcher) acted as advisors. One of the advisory teachers was a member of staff from one of the participant schools. At the time of the study, this teacher had been seconded to lead a Devon Education Action Zone (EAZ). The other three teachers were personal friends of the researcher. Two were based at a secondary school in South Devon and one was the leader of the Mathematics EAZ team.

The teachers who participated in the main study were based in three very different schools. School 1 was in an affluent area of South Devon and was recognised as a school with excellent results (identified by league tables). School 2 was in a South Devon EAZ. EAZ's are public-private-partnerships that have been set up in areas of the country (often deprived) where government-set educational targets (such as all year 9 pupils should reach SAT level 5) were not being met. School 3 was also in an affluent area of Devon, but had a far wider catchment area and was much bigger than the other two schools, was rural, and was a community based school that offered an extensive range of subjects and courses.

Demographic details of the sample

Twenty five males and 30 females participated. Eighteen respondents came from school 1, seven from school 2 and 30 from school 3. Six respondents were English teachers, 8, Maths teachers, 9, Science teachers, 11, Humanities teachers, 10, modern Languages teachers and 11 teachers were classed as 'other'. Teaching experience ranged from 4 months to 34 years. Over half had been teaching for more than 15 years. Six respondents classed themselves as key-stage co-ordinators, 12 as management and 13 as heads of departments.

7.2.2 The 'advisory' teachers – pilot study

Informal and unstructured interviews were held with four teachers. The researcher presented them with the findings from her previous research, a summary of the teacher based literature and an outline for the current study. Their views and opinions were gauged as to the best way to elicit perceptions of cheating information from teachers. Factors such as teacher time, availability and sensitivity were discussed to ensure that questions were phrased appropriately for the teacher population. The advisory teachers also suggested which schools to approach (where teachers would be more likely to take part) and provided some background details about the schools (for example, affluent area vs. action zone area). The advisory teachers also discussed current 'political' issues in schools which may or may not have an effect on the pressures teachers face with regards to actual cheating by teachers, such as 'performance management'. The draft copy of the questionnaire to be used with the target population was sent to the advisory teachers. They were invited to suggest any changes or amendments that would improve the quality of the questionnaire and also to check that the questions were likely to be answered by most teachers (especially the section regarding sources of pressure associated with cheating by students, staff and parents). No changes were suggested by the teachers.

7.2.3 Materials

Design of the questionnaire

Design issues

The number of areas and the depth of information that might be gathered in order to answer the three research areas presented in 7.1 is potentially vast. However, constraints were placed on the research design by the size of this PhD and the four reasons that were given at the

beginning of this chapter regarding the lack of research into teacher perceptions of cheating. The four reasons are revisited here in the context of the present study:

Reason 1. Accessibility and availability.

The structured or in-depth interview would appear to be the most appropriate method of investigating teacher perceptions of cheating. The lack of availability and accessibility of the number and range of secondary school teachers required to produce a satisfactory response depth precluded this method in terms of research time and teacher co-operation or goodwill. Therefore a method which sampled quickly and widely in combination with a small number of background interviews with advisory teachers was preferred. Response rates for participants in the education sector (e.g., staff and pupils) have also increasingly been affected by the competition between research organisations. The successful organisations have more often than not been able to pay for participant time.

Reason 2. Sensitivity.

This second reason, in part, guided the choice of research areas. Study 1 (Chapter 3), with focus group participants, tentatively concluded that students saw teachers as partly responsible for their cheating *and* that teachers themselves may also cheat on behalf of their students. Some difficulty was experienced in accessing participants for studies 2, 3 and 4. Schools were extremely wary about allowing their students to discuss even third party cheating. This informed the decision *not* to ask teachers directly about influences on cheating that they themselves may have and *not* to request information on actual incidents of cheating.

Linked to this decision was the response obtained during the interviews with two of the advisory teachers. For some discussion topics, there was an extreme reluctance on the behalf of these teachers to expand upon personal opinions. These opinions related to the educational *values* of teachers that may be linked to cheating. Such questions included in any potential research design may lead teachers to draw the conclusion that the researcher felt that they were 'some way to blame, (for whatever reason)'. This conclusion may have validity because there is currently a media insistence that values are declining in secondary schools.

Further, values in education are increasingly being dictated to schools by government. Initiatives such as testing at 7, 11 and 14 years old and the recent introduction of the numeracy hour in secondary education are instances of this top down approach. Whilst none of these

initiatives are compulsory, it would take a special kind of teacher to defy education policy especially when faced with an Ofsted inspection. Nias (1989, as cited by Butroyd, 1997) investigated the self-beliefs of primary school teachers with respect to dealing with changes in education. She argued that teachers had two sets of self-beliefs. Substantial self-beliefs which were resistant to change and situational beliefs which were negotiable. Nias further argued that substantial self-beliefs went in tandem with the occupation of teacher, which traditionally has been practised on an idiosyncratic basis. Education policy is moving towards schools having shared value systems, something which does not align itself naturally with idiosyncratic substantial self-beliefs. Teachers strong in such values may prove resistant to change and indeed teachers in Nias' investigation resisted discussing changing values issues. This resistance to discuss issues may be a direct restriction, through centralisation, on the ability (or space) of teachers to express their true beliefs. League tables are a prime example of a value which is highly prized by schools in England and Wales (although the Welsh National Assembly recently announced that schools would cease to publish league tables). League tables are also the focus of much criticism from teachers, which may or not be tolerated in outright expressions of negative beliefs.

The introduction of SATs, league tables etc., may well have had an impact on ethical behaviour by schools. In discussing what factors schools and teachers contribute to cheating, two of the advisory teachers freely discussed where they saw the problems lay, but once the negative self-beliefs about education systems began to emerge, resistance to further discussion was encountered by the researcher. This was despite the interview being exploratory and confidential.

If teachers find discussing such issues face to face threatening, anonymously responding in writing to attitude statements may be a safer method for the expression of beliefs about education.

Reason 3. Teachers have been under-researched in the study of student cheating

The opportunity to conduct an investigation into the perceptions of teachers with regards to cheating should include research questions that cannot be answered by students. For example, the impact of centrally imposed pressures caused by SATs.

Reason 4. Teachers as a comparative group for student-cheating research.

Nomothetic research, which this thesis is, extensively relies on the comparison of groups (of independent variables) and the construction of general principles. The scope of this study

required comparison between teachers, parents and students in order to close question loops opened in the earlier studies. Unfortunately, other questions will have to wait, and there are plenty of them. To keep the questionnaire within the constraints set by the other three reasons, new areas of research cannot be opened up because, by the researcher's own reasoning, they themselves will require some form of comparison group! However, reason 3, does meet this criticism part way by acknowledging that there are some questions that only teachers can answer.

The chosen research design for this study was therefore a short questionnaire, consisting of a mixture of closed, open and attitude questions. The attitude questions that were asked used a visual analogue scale to minimise any restricted range problems associated with correlational data (as experienced in Study 4, Chapter 6). Questions which requested yes/ no responses also included a brief acknowledgement of the difficulties associated with forced choice responses. This was to limit the number of participants not responding at all or those who preferred to write reasons as to why yes and no could *both* be valid responses (Livovsky and Tauber, 1994). The open ended questions were either restricted in response space or restricted to a request for a list of short answers. This was to prevent teachers perceiving the questionnaire as too time consuming. Finally, financial payment, in the form of vouchers, was offered to teachers to increase rates of participation (the advisory teachers suggested that a lump sum payment to the school would be less preferable than a small payment made directly to the teachers).

The questionnaire

For full details of the questionnaire, see appendix 17. The questionnaire items are discussed in the order in which they appear in the questionnaire. Details of the question items by the three research areas are given at the end of this section.

Items 1 and 2: Respondents were asked to say whether they thought the prevalence of cheating had increased, decreased or stayed the same, whilst they had been a teacher. Cheating has increased over the last 30 years in America (Chapter 2). These two questions may indicate British cheating trends in recent years in the absence of actual data. A visual/analogue scale (10cm) was used to record responses. They were asked to give a brief explanation for their 'increase/decrease/stayed the same' decision. This was because a score around the 'stayed the same' mark could reflect a change in the prevalence of the different types of cheating but not the overall prevalence of cheating.

Item 3: Respondents were asked to list three things that in their *opinion 'prompts, causes or influences students to cheat'* and to list three things that in their opinion *'prompts, causes or influences students not to cheat'*. 'Prompts, causes or influences' were used as capture-all terms to cover factors leading to an increase or decrease in student cheating *and* reasons for and for not cheating. To gather information on these three aspects separately would have increased the questionnaire size and response time.

Item 4: Studies 1 and 2 sought information from secondary school students about what constituted cheating and how serious it was perceived to be. Teacher perceptions of the same factors were assessed. In keeping with the model that was developed in Study 2, questions about what constituted cheating were separated from context in order to identify 'raw' cheating responses and perceptions of seriousness. Ten context-free behaviours taken from those given by students in Study 2, covering non-academic and academic items were used as stimuli. Respondents were asked to say whether they thought the behaviour was cheating, across six different school groups: top and bottom sets in secondary school years 7, 9 and 11. The age groups were included to reflect the difference in educational expectations voiced in Study 1 (Chapter 3) regarding high and low ability students and the age differences found in Study 2 (Chapter 4).

Teachers were asked to give a simple yes/ no response to the statement regarding each type of cheating: *'in a [year 7 bottom set] would this be considered cheating?' The wording of this statement originally included a value label ('always considered cheating?'), but was felt by the advisory teachers to be unnecessary in light of the disclaimer statement that explained the question: "Whilst 'Yes' and 'No' are rather blunt ways of measuring responses to these behaviours, please only use Y or N. However, it is appreciated that responses can be dependent upon other factors."*

The stimulus items were as follows:

1. Copying from another student
2. Asking another student for the answers to questions
3. Looking at the work of others
4. Using material which has come directly from a text book (or other source) and presenting it as the student's own.
5. Marking a piece of work and changing the answers
6. Lying to a teacher

7. Not following the rules of sporting games
8. Getting help from family or friends with work
9. The teacher providing greater help than the student should be given
10. Sitting back and letting others in the group do the work whilst sharing in the final marks

Two categories that were in the model from Study 2 were not included. 'Advance information about the contents of an assessment' and the 'use of unauthorised materials' were both found in Study 2 to be heavily situation dependent, which precluded their inclusion for these particular questions. However, item 4 above referred to plagiarism (a form of copying) which could be construed as overlapping with the 'use of unauthorised materials' in this instance. Item 4 is the only one where duplication of a cheating category (from Study 2) occurs (both items 1 and 4 are from the category of 'active copying'). This was included as the literature suggests that plagiarism is an area where there is poor agreement between teachers and students, (e.g., Evans and Craig, 1990).

Item 5: A separate question required respondents to look back at the 10 stimulus cheating behaviours and rate them for perceived severity. The severity scale used in the parent-child study (Study 4) was a 4-point forced choice scale, ranging from 'very serious' to 'not at all serious'. This scale was used as a basis for the perception of seriousness in this study. The scale range was doubled (to reduce restricted range effects) and the extremity value labels from Study 4, attached at either end.

Items 6, 7 and 8: Respondents were also asked to rate which cheating context (in-class tests, homework, exams, classwork, coursework), they perceived to be the most frequent; in which context they perceived cheating to be the most serious and in which year group they perceived cheating to be the most frequent.

Item 9: The question that was asked in Study 3, 'Is cheating in secondary school wrong?' was also posed to teachers. However, they were asked to give their reason very briefly. Items 9 and 3, together formed a data set that could be related to the findings of Study 3, which investigated how students negotiated the rightness and wrongness of cheating, whilst at the same time presenting reasons for and against the use of cheating in secondary school.

Item 10: In addition to asking about the changes in prevalence of cheating in secondary schools, teachers were asked to respond to the statement '*Students today feel more pressured to achieve and are more likely to cheat as a result*' (Agree/Disagree on a 10cm visual analogue scale). There is evidence that suggest that American high school teachers perceive that an increase in academic pressure may well 'have the unintended side effect of pressuring more students to cheat' (Bushweller, 1999, p28).

Item 11: A series of statements, developed from the background interviews with teachers, that listed potential areas of pressure on students, parents and staff, were included, using the same visual analogue scale as above, but with the response format of '*I think this will affect the likelihood of cheating by students, parents or staff...*' responses were marked on the scale with value anchors of '*increase*' and '*decrease*'. The stimulus items were:

1. Able students being entered for higher exams even if their teacher does not agree
2. An increased amount of student testing for student performance and league table information
3. Performance management that puts pressure on teachers to get the statistics or outcomes they need
4. Telling a student that they are capable of slightly more than their achievements suggest, as a way of increasing performance
5. Parents taking an interest in the work that their children bring home
6. Borderline pass/fail students being targeted to improve pass rates
7. Students who are struggling, being encouraged to get extra tuition before SATs/ GCSEs

The first three items in particular related to policies that are either in place in education or that will shortly be introduced. For example, league tables have been established for several years. Performance management however, has not. Performance management is the setting of targets by which teachers' performance can be monitored. It appears to be a kind of appraisal system where teachers can target areas for improvement in their practice that they and their manager have identified. It is not supposed to be a tool by which managers can dictate student performance. However, it has been suggested (in background interviews) that in some schools, in a minority of cases, this is how performance management may be used. The first three items therefore represent 'worst case' scenarios.

The question items were related to the research areas as given in table 7.2.1 below.

Table 7.2.1. Breakdown of research themes by questionnaire items.

1. Perceptions of the constituents, prevalence and seriousness of cheating in secondary school	2. Perceptions of the determinants and legitimacy of cheating in secondary school	3. Perceptions of the pressures that may effect an increase or decrease in cheating in secondary school
Item 4 Item 5 Item 6 Item 7 Item 8	Item 3 Item 9	Item 1 Item 2 Item 10 Item 11

7.2.4 Ethical considerations

Issues of sensitivity have been discussed in 7.2.2 (1) above. However, issues of confidentiality, anonymity and participant payment are further ethical considerations for discussion. Information regarding the identity of individuals was not requested. However, the name of the school was known to the researcher. Payment was made to all those participants who returned a questionnaire, regardless of the completion profile (i.e., sections incomplete). Anonymity and confidentiality were maintained with the use of code numbers assigned to the questionnaires. These code numbers were kept by participants and used as identifiers for postal delivery of payment. Payment was in the form of a £2 gift voucher (from a choice of several high street stores). This amount was calculated according to the guidelines governing the payment of participants in psychological investigations at the researcher's institution. Not all participants requested payment. One participant was offended by the offer of such a small amount of money and reported feeling undervalued. A general letter was sent out to both schools thanking the teachers for participating. The letter included a reminder section on payment and the reason for the use of the voucher method and amount. Information about contacting the researcher to discuss any issues about the research that might have arisen was included on the front of the questionnaire.

7.2.5 Procedure

The deputy head teachers of the participating schools acted as a distribution point for the questionnaires. The front of the questionnaire included a section thanking the respondents for participating and requesting that the answers they gave be related only to secondary school years 7 to 11. Demographic information about the type of school taught at, participant gender, subject taught, teaching experience (years) and non-teaching roles was requested.

7.3 Results

Analyses are reported for the three research themes given in table 7.2.1. The sample size precluded an investigation into individual differences. However, some trends were identified in the data and are mentioned as they occur.

1. Perceptions of the constituents, prevalence and seriousness of cheating

(a) The constituents of cheating

Ten behaviours were used to assess teacher perceptions of the constituents and seriousness of cheating. The behaviours were those devised from the findings of Study 2. For each behaviour respondents reported whether or not they considered the behaviour to be cheating (yes/no) for six different student groups (top and bottom sets in years 7, 9 and 11).

There was no 100% consensus between respondents regarding the status of any of the 10 behaviours. In table 7.3.1 the percentage of respondents who felt each behaviour was 'not cheating' is given according to the six student groups. Responses have been given in total frequency order and percentages calculated out of 100 for each cell, to indicate the proportion of respondents who viewed each behaviour by each group to be cheating. For example, 3 respondents reported 'marking a piece of work and changing the answers' to be 'not cheating'. This was 5.45% of the total number of respondents (55). The 'total' column figures have been expressed as percentages out of $n=330$ (6 x 55 respondents).

For each behaviour, at least three respondents reported the perception that the behaviour was 'not cheating'. Only three respondents felt that 'marking a piece of work and changing the answers' was 'not cheating'. This was the behaviour for which fewest teachers reported a 'not cheating' perception. This was contrasted with 'getting help from family and friends with work', where between 88 and 94% of respondents felt that the behaviour was 'not cheating' (depending upon the referent age group).

There were three general trends evident in table 7.3.1. Firstly, as age increased, the number of respondents reporting that the behaviours were 'not cheating', decreased. Secondly, the number of respondents reporting that the behaviours were 'not cheating' varied with student ability level. For the bottom ability groups, particularly the year 7 and 9 groups, the number of respondents reporting behaviours to be 'not cheating' increased.

Thirdly, the consensus order with which the number of respondents perceived the behaviours to be 'not cheating' changed slightly with year group, as is evident by comparing the

order of behaviours given in the total column (lowest to highest frequency) with the individual year group data in subsequent columns. For example, in figure 7.3.1 the second column of table 7.3.1 has been plotted. 'Marking a piece of work and changing the answers' was perceived by more respondents to be cheating. Both the 'cheating' and 'not cheating' data have been included in the figure to provide an indication of consensus. The smaller the gap between the two lines, the smaller the degree of consensus.

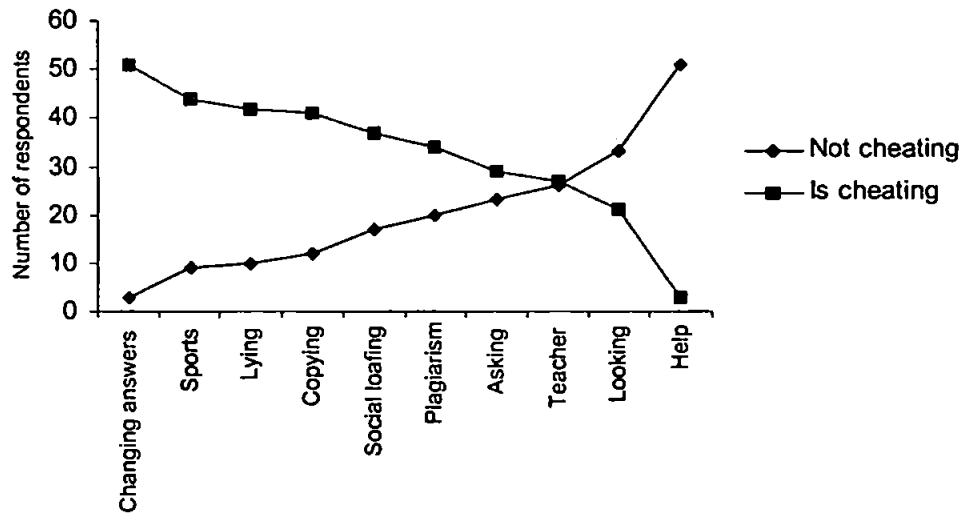
Table 7.3.1. The percentage of respondents reporting the behaviours to be 'not cheating'

Behaviour	Total N (%)	Year 7 bottom	Year 7 top	Year 9 bottom	Year 9 top	Year 11 bottom	Year 11 top	Cochran's Q Sig.
Marking a piece of work and changing the answers	18 (5.45)	5.45	5.45	5.45	5.45	5.45	5.45	1.0
Copying from another student	41 (12.42)	21.81	10.9	14.5	7.27	12.72	7.27	**
Not following the rules of sporting games	46 (13.39)	16.36	14.5	14.5	12.72	12.72	12.72	.28
Lying to a teacher	62 (18.78)	18.18	18.18	18.18	18.18	20	20	1.0
Using material which has come directly from a text book (or other source) and presenting it as the student's own (plagiarism)	77 (23.33)	36.36	29.1	30.9	14.5	20	9.1	***
Sitting back and letting others in the group do the work whilst sharing in the final marks	88 (26.67)	30.9	25.45	29.1	25.45	25.45	23.63	*
Asking another student for the answers to questions	111 (33.63)	41.81	30.9	38.18	27.27	36.36	27.27	***
Looking at the work of others	135 (40.9)	47.27	43.63	47.27	36.36	41.81	29.1	.416
The teacher providing greater help than the student should be given	173 (52.4)	60	56.36	58.18	56.36	56.36	27.27	***
Getting help from friends and family with work	300 (90.9)	92.72	92.72	92.72	92.72	92.72	87.27	.152
Totals number of 'not cheating' responses given for each group		204	179	192	162	176	153	
		Year 7 Total	383	Year 9 Total	354	Year 11 Total	329	

* sig <.05; ** sig <.01; *** sig <.001

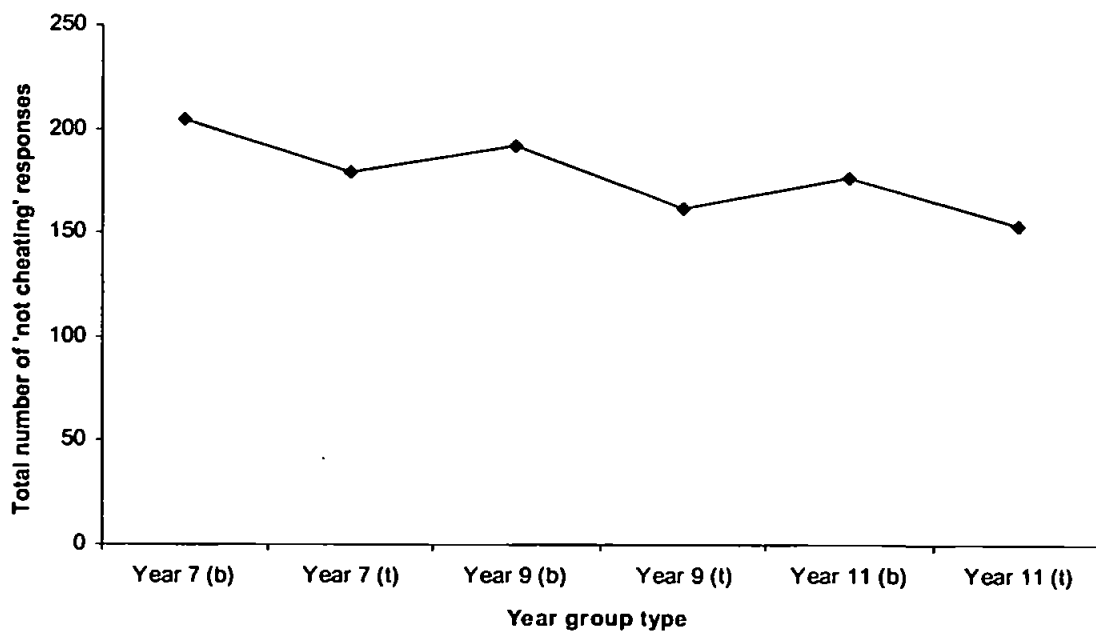
The two lines on the figure, whilst mirror images of one another, are particularly useful in identifying behaviours for which there is greater or lesser consensus. The figures pertaining to the other student ability groups are given in appendix 18. For example, in figure 7.3.1 'the teacher providing greater help than the student should be given' produced an approximate 50:50 split between the number of respondents who perceived the behaviour to be cheating as opposed to 'not cheating'.

Figure 7.3.1. The number of respondents reporting the behaviours to be 'not cheating' for a year 7 bottom group of students



However, it is apparent, that for the higher ability groups, respondents reached a greater level of consensus, (as indicated by the distance between the lines in the figures in appendix 18). The trend indicated in figure 7.3.1 was for the responses for the year 7 bottom ability group. 'Copying from another student' was placed in the fourth 'not cheating' position. This particular behaviour moved 'up the order' as a function of age and ability (to fewer 'not cheating' responses).

Figure 7.3.2. The total number of respondents reporting 'not cheating' as a function of year group



The difference in perceptions regarding ability groups can be seen from figure 7.3.2. Figure 7.3.2 gives the overall number of 'not cheating' responses as a function of year ability group. From these data a more pronounced trend is evident. The bigger the zig-zag, the more pronounced the difference between top and bottom ability groups. The difference in perceptions regarding the ability groups by each behaviour can be seen from the charts given in appendix 19. From these, whilst no great numerical differences were in evidence, the perception that a behaviour was 'not cheating', was more likely to be given regarding the bottom ability groups.

The difference in the perception of the cheating behaviours as a function of year/ability grouping was tested using the Cochran's Q non-parametric test. The right hand column of table 7.3.1 gives the p-values (page 393). For each behaviour, the number of 'not cheating' responses was compared. As can be seen from table 7.3.1 not all behaviours were treated differently by respondents according to year ability group. For example, behaviours 1, 3 and 4 ('marking a piece of work and changing the answers'; 'not following the rules of sporting games' and 'lying to a teacher'), fluctuated the least (in terms of 'not cheating' responses) and were not significantly different across ability groups. The latter two behaviours were given special mention in Chapter 4 (Study 2). Lying, whilst not perceived to be cheating by the focus group participants in Study 1 (Chapter 3) was re-instigated as both an academic and non-academic cheating behaviour in study 2 (Chapter 4). Sporting misdemeanours featured extensively in the non-academic cheating behaviours cited by student respondents in Study 2. Neither of these behaviours has been traditionally classed as cheating in the literature. However, for the teachers, there was more rather than less consensus that these behaviours were cheating. No gender, school or teaching subjects differences were identified in the number of 'no cheating' responses accorded to the behaviours.

(b) Behaviour severity

Respondents rated on an 8 point scale, how serious they perceived each cheating behaviour to be, with 1 indicating high severity and 8 indicating low severity. Means and standard deviations are given in ascending order in table 7.3.2. In addition, the rank order of the behaviours from table 7.3.2 are given for comparison.

Table 7.3.2. Descriptive statistics and rank data for the severity ratings of the cheating behaviours

Behaviour	Mean	SD	Severity rank	'not cheating' rank
Lying to a teacher	1.7	1.1	1	4
Marking a piece of work and changing the answers	2.2	1.5	2	1
Copying from another student	3.1	2.0	3	2
Using material which has come directly from a text book (or other source) and presenting it as the student's own (plagiarism)	3.1	1.9	4	5
Sitting back and letting others in the group do the work whilst sharing in the final marks	3.5	2.0	5	6
Not following the rules of sporting games	3.8	1.9	6	3
The teacher providing greater help than the student should be given	4.1	2.4	7	9
Asking another student for the answers to questions	4.2	2.4	8	7
Looking at the work of others	4.6	2.4	9	8
Getting help from friends and family with work	6.9	1.6	10	10

Table 7.3.3. Spearman rank order correlation co-efficients between severity ratings and perceptions of 'not cheating'

Behaviour	N	rho	Sig. (one-tailed)
Lying to a teacher	50	.26	*
Marking a piece of work and changing the answers	53	.42	**
Copying from another student	52	.6	**
Using material which has come directly from a text book (or other source) and presenting it as the student's own (plagiarism)	53	.7	**
Sitting back and letting others in the group do the work whilst sharing in the final marks	53	.5	**
Not following the rules of sporting games	52	.48	**
The teacher providing greater help than the student should be given	53	.83	**
Asking another student for the answers to questions	53	.76	**
Looking at the work of others	53	.66	**
Getting help from friends and family with work	51	.57	**

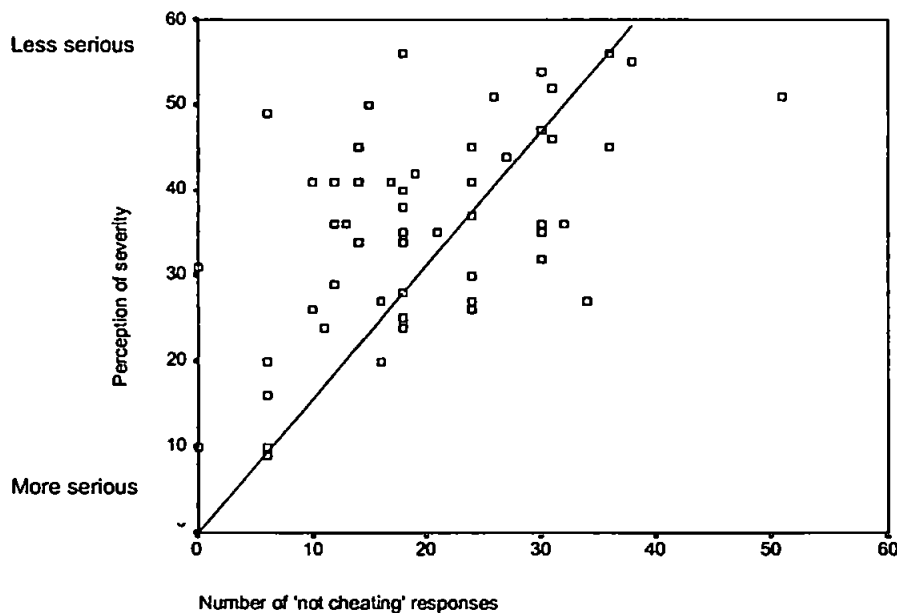
* sig.<.05; ** sig.<.01

The order of severity whilst similar to the order of 'not cheating' was not identical. 'Lying to a teacher' was perceived with the greatest severity, whilst 'not following the rules of sporting games' was perceived in a position of medium severity. At the less serious end of the table, the ranks were more similar to the order of ranks for the 'not cheating' data. The Spearman rank order correlation between the total severity ratings and the total number of 'not cheating' responses was moderately strong and positive ($\rho=.5$, $n=53$, $p<.05$, one-tailed). The more serious a behaviour was perceived to be, the less frequently it was rated as 'not cheating'. For the individual cheating

behaviours and individual behaviour severity ratings, Spearman rank order correlation co-efficients are given in table 7.3.3.

All correlations were positive and significant, however, three were above .7 ('using material which has come(plagiarism)'; 'the teacher providing greater help than the student should be given' and 'asking another student for the answers to questions'. Therefore, for each cheating behaviour, as perceptions of severity increased, reports of 'not cheating' decreased. It should be noted that the correlations for the lower severity behaviours are more robust as there were greater proportions of 'not cheating' data. The more seriously perceived behaviour data included a larger proportion of zeros. To help appreciate the positive correlations, the data for the total number of 'not cheating' responses by the total severity responses have been plotted in figure 7.3.3.

Figure 7.3.3. Scatterplot of total 'not cheating' responses by total perceived severity.



Amount of teaching experience was recorded as a continuous variable (months), however, whilst all correlations between teaching experience and severity were negative (suggesting that perceptions of severity decreased with experience) none were significant. No gender or subject effects were found

The severity ratings were subjected to a repeated measures ANOVA in which a significant interaction between behaviour type and school and a main effect of behaviour type was found ($F_{6,2,268}=28.41, p<.001$). The interaction between school and behaviour was discounted as the differences were attributed to the effect on the mean of the small number of respondents from

school 2. As the data were non-normally distributed (although all skewed in the same direction), Greenhouse-Giesser statistics have been reported.

(c) Frequency and severity of cheating across assessment events

In Studies 2 and 3 (Chapters 4 and 5) the severity of cheating was ordered according to assessment events. Formal assessment events were perceived more severely than informal assessment events. Respondents in the present study were requested to rank order (without ties) the frequency with which they perceived cheating to take place across the assessment events and the severity of cheating associated with the assessment events. The most serious and most frequent information related to a rank position of 1, whilst the least frequent and least serious information related to a rank position of 5. For each assessment event, the modal value has been reported as this is the more appropriate measure of central tendency (categorical data), particularly as there are no extreme values to contend with (table 7.3.4).

Table 7.3.4. Perceived frequency and severity of cheating across assessment events

	Homework	Coursework	Classwork	Tests	Exams
Frequency	1	2	3	4	5
Severity	4	2	5	3	1

School based activities (exams, tests and classwork) were perceived to have less cheating associated with them than home based activities (homework and coursework). However, exams and coursework cheating (associated with public examinations) were perceived to be more serious than test, classwork and homework cheating (formal vs. informal assessments). In the literature negative correlations have typically been found between perceived frequency and severity. For these data, exam frequency and exam severity were revealed by a Spearman rank order correlation to be significantly negatively correlated ($\rho = -.38$ $n=53$, $p < .01$), as were test frequency and test severity ($\rho = -.28$, $n=53$, $p < .05$). The more seriously test and exam cheating was perceived to be, the less frequently the cheating was perceived to occur.

(d) Perception of cheating frequency by year group

Respondents rated the five year groups in order of perceived frequency of cheating. Modal values are given in table 7.3.5.

Table 7.3.5. Perceived cheating frequency across the five year groups (mode)

	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11
Frequency	1	2	3	4	5

Younger students were reported to be perceived to cheat less than older students. This mirrored the adolescent self-report cheating trend given in Study 5 (Chapter 6). In table 7.3.1 (page 393) the proportion of 'not cheating' responses given for the younger age groups was greater than for older age groups. It is not clear from these data whether respondents perceived less cheating to take place in lower years *generally* or whether they were taking into account their lowered expectations of younger students and were reporting perceptions of frequency based on the *definitions of cheating according to each year group*. For example, a respondent may have reasoned *'year 7 students cheat less because I consider fewer behaviours to constitute cheating at this age'*.

(e) Interim summary

Respondents as a group did not wholly agree what constituted cheating. Perceptions of 'not cheating' varied according to the ability level of the students and the age of the students. Behaviours were more likely to be perceived as 'not cheating' for younger and less able student groups. Lying and sporting misdemeanours (the two non-academic behaviours) were more likely to be perceived as cheating than 'not cheating'. 'Marking a piece of work and changing the answers' was the most likely behaviour to be perceived as cheating, whilst 'the teacher providing greater help than the student should be given' and 'getting help from friends and family' were the behaviours least likely to be perceived as cheating. The more serious the cheating behaviours were perceived to be, the less frequently they were reported to be 'not cheating'. Lying was perceived to be the most serious form of cheating, whilst sporting misdemeanours were not accorded the level of severity that the proportion of 'not cheating' responses would have indicated.

Perceptions of the frequency of cheating across assessment events increased from home based to school based assessments (homework and coursework vs. classwork, tests and exams). Perceptions of severity varied across the assessment events according to the formality of the event (exams and coursework vs. tests, homework and classwork). Finally, perceptions of frequency of

cheating increased across the year groups, with year 11 students perceived to cheat more than year 7 students.

2. Perceived determinants and legitimacy of cheating

Respondents answered two open ended questions relating to the determinants and legitimacy of cheating. They firstly suggested a maximum of three reasons as to why students may feel the need to cheat and a maximum of three reasons why students would not cheat. No rank ordering or responses was requested. All items for each question (up to 3 responses) were treated as a single sample. Respondents also briefly (one sentence) answered the Study 3 (Chapter 4) question 'Is cheating in secondary school wrong?'

(a) Factors that prompt, cause and influence students to cheat

One hundred and fifty two items were generated that were considered to be prompts, causes and influences in student cheating (appendix 20). Seven categories were identified into which 149 items were placed. The remainder were classed as miscellaneous.

(i) Pressure and expectations from authority figures (n=16, 10.7%)

This category contained items that referred to parent, teacher and other external pressures and expectations to do well academically, e.g., 'Pressure for targets from parents/teachers and government' (participant 2)

(ii) Peer pressure and the desire to look successful and avoid negative evaluations (n=27, 18.1%)

Peer pressure could have been included in the above category. However, peer pressures appeared to be associated with the need to 'look good' as well as the need to be academically successful, e.g., 'Peer pressure' (participant 3); 'Not to be seen to fail in front of peers' (participant 34).

(iii) Laziness and work avoidance (n=24, 16.1%)

Pure laziness items were most numerous in this category, but there were references to laziness in terms of not doing work or cheating to avoid doing extra work, e.g., 'Laziness – taking the easy route' (participant 52)

(iv) Poor time management, work preparation, understanding and ability (n=28, 18.8%)

This large category referred to the processes involved in completing work. For example, not revising for a test, not understanding the tasks to be completed and panicking because not enough coursework had been completed, e.g., 'Lack of preparation' (participant 22); 'Sudden realisation that they haven't done enough' (participant 40).

(v) Fear of failure, trouble, anxiety and issues of self-confidence (n=29, 19.5%)

Cheating because students were perceived to fear failure or have low self esteem were items in this category. Also included were references to using cheating to avoid getting into trouble, e.g., 'Lack of confidence in their ability' (participant 55); 'Fear of being 'told off'' (participant 36).

(vi) Environment conducive to cheating and rebellion (n=18, 12.1%)

The physical environment and teacher behaviours formed the majority of items in this category. For example, creating opportunities for cheating, not checking work carefully and crowded classrooms, e.g., 'Coursework (opportunity)' (participant 33); 'Arrogance that they will get away with it' (participant 38).

(vii) Pursuit of better grades/settings (n=7, 4.7%)

This small category contained items that referred to wanting to achieve higher grades, do well and pass exams, e.g., 'To achieve at a higher level in examinations' (participant 13).

Table 7.3.6. Breakdown of causes of cheating by gender

Category	Male	Female
1. Pressure and expectations from authority figures (n=16)	12.31	9.76
2. Peer pressure and the desire to look successful and avoid negative evaluations (n=27)	20	17.07
3. Laziness and work avoidance (n=24)	18.46	14.63
4. Poor time management, work preparation, understanding and ability (n=28)	13.85	21.85
5. Fear of failure, trouble, anxiety and issues of self-confidence (n=29)	16.92	21.85
6. Environment conducive to cheating and rebellion (n=18)	13.85	10.98
7. Pursuit of better grades/settings (n=7)	4.62	3.66
Total	100	100

In table 7.3.6 the categories have been divided by gender. Whilst there were no significant differences between the placement of items, inspection of the raw data suggests a trend that more females cited 'poor time management' and 'fear of failure' as reasons for student cheating than males. No other differences were identified for any of the other independent variables.

(b) Factors that prompt, cause and influence student not to cheat

One hundred and forty two items were generated by respondents (appendix 20). Of these, 132 were classified into six categories. Ten items were not classified either because the meaning was not clear or there were no categories to which items applied.

(i) Good preparation, hard work and ability (n=15, 11.4%)

Students who prepared for tests and exams and who worked hard were felt not to need to cheat, especially if they had ability, e.g., 'Ability in the subject – no need to cheat' (participant 20); 'Good organisation and preparedness' (participant 7).

(ii) Self confidence in the students' own abilities and a focus on the learning process rather than achievement outcomes. (n=23, 17.4%)

The types of items in this category referred to having the confidence to do well without cheating and knowing that the learning process was more important than getting good grades, e.g., 'Not caring if they succeed or not' (participant 3); 'Confidence in own abilities' (participant 8)

(iii) Personal pride, integrity and honesty (n=44, 33.3%)

Like the last category, issues to do with personal perceptions of the students' ability to succeed without cheating were included. However, items relating to success were termed as wanting to prove ability without recourse to cheating. In the last category factors were not related to 'proving anything'. Also in this category were references to honesty, respecting the educational system and society's values as means of inhibiting cheating, e.g., 'Willingness to show teachers and peers they are fully capable' (participant 39); 'Pride in own work' (participant 49); 'Morals – recognising right/wrong' (participant 16).

(iv) Fear of being caught and awareness of monitoring (n= 32, 24.2%)

This large category referred to the fears associated with the consequences of cheating from being caught to being punished, e.g., 'knowing they're likely to be found out' (participant 7); 'losing marks if found cheating' (participant 23).

(v) The physical environment and testing procedures (n=11, 8.3)

Items in this category related to prevention methods used such as spacing desks apart and verbal reminders about what constituted cheating and appropriate exam conduct, e.g., 'strict control by teacher' (participant 35); 'Clear guidelines re cheating' (participant 47).

(vi) Teacher factors (n=4, 3.0%)

Teachers recognised that they had a role to play in preventing cheating. This included being supportive, setting fair exams and ensuring that settings were not calculated from one final assessment, e.g., 'Teacher/pupil relationship that it's OK to be wrong' (participant 55); 'Reduction of factors dependent on test results (e.g., general standard of work will also be a factor in set changes)' (participant 48).

Table 7.3.7 gives the category data according to gender. Again, whilst there were no significant differences in item placement, more females appeared to cite 'personal pride' as a cause of 'not cheating' in students and more males cited fear of being caught.

(c) Is cheating in secondary school wrong?

Fifty-two of the 54 respondents said that cheating was wrong. Two respondents reported that cheating was not wrong. Many of the respondents who said that cheating was wrong qualified their initial response to indicate when cheating was acceptable, when a behaviour was 'not cheating' and indeed when cheating may be beneficial. Sixteen respondents simply responded 'Yes' or 'No' to the question. Therefore, analyses are presented for 38 respondents. Content analysis was used to analyse the data. Content analysis suggested three groups of response types. The responses to this question are given in appendix 21.

Table 7.3.7. Breakdown of causes of 'not cheating' by gender

Category	Male	Female
1. Good preparation, hard work and ability (n=15)	9.09	13.33
2. Self confidence in the students' own abilities and a focus on the learning process rather than achievement outcomes. (n=23)	18.18	17.33
3. Personal pride, integrity and honesty (n=44)	29.09	37.33
4. Fear of being caught and awareness of monitoring (n= 32)	34.55	21.33
5. The physical environment and testing procedures (11)	9.09	5.33
6. Teacher factors (4)	0	5.33
Total	100	100

Some respondents viewed cheating to be wrong without any qualifiers. Reasons which were given, referred to being a moral member of society and cheating becoming an adult trait if it was not prevented in childhood, e.g., 'cheating, at all levels, has got to be discouraged and students made to realise that cheating never pays' (participant 36).

The second group of respondents viewed cheating to be wrong if it took place in formal/public assessment event situations or if the cheater was deliberately avoiding work and prevented him or herself from learning/understanding, e.g., 'yes, if we define 'cheating' as presenting some work as if you understand it when you do not' (participant 52).

The remaining group of respondents were similar in their outlook. They admitted that cheating went on and that for some respondents, depending upon the factors and circumstances surrounding the cheating, it could be acceptable. This group of respondents included the respondent who gave a reason as to why cheating in school was not wrong. This particular participant referred to the collaborative nature of education and suggested that in such an environment, cheating was not an issue. Several other respondents echoed this view but did not go as far as to suggest cheating was not wrong. Some respondents in this group also felt that cheating was an issue because it was important to understand the reasons and motivations behind the cheating with the aim of prevention, e.g., 'your definition of cheating is different from mine. Sharing classwork/discussing how to do things is OK' (participant 55); 'yes, but we need to consider why students cheat and try to address this' (participant 28).

The data were separated according to the responses given for this question. Four groups ('cheating wrong', 'yes', 'cheating sometimes wrong', 'cheating sometimes right') were then *separately* used in *individual* correlation analyses of 'is cheating wrong?' by severity. For the 'yes' and 'cheating wrong' groups there was a significant correlation between 'not cheating' responses

and severity. The more a behaviour was perceived to be cheating, the more seriously the behaviour was perceived to be (table 7.3.8). It was assumed by the researcher that those respondents who had simply responded 'yes' were indicating that they viewed cheating in school to be wrong. Respondents who reported that cheating could be acceptable or that it was wrong (when conditions applied) were not found to have an association between severity and number of 'not cheating' responses. Thus it appeared that there were two types of teacher respondents, those who perceived cheating severity to systematically vary as a function of the behaviour and those who held no such associations.

Table 7.3.8. Spearman rank order correlation co-efficient reports for perception of severity by number of 'not cheating' responses for the groups of 'Is cheating wrong?'

Category	Rho	Sig.
Cheating wrong	.65	<.05
'Yes'	.78	<.01
Cheating sometimes wrong	.03	.93
Cheating sometimes right	.35	.18

(d) Interim summary

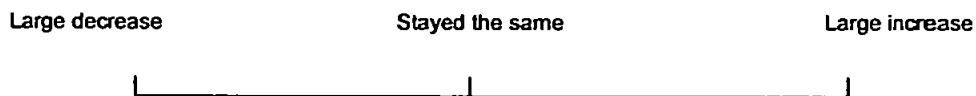
Seven categories relating to prompts, causes and influences of student cheating and six categories relating to prompts, causes and influences inhibiting student cheating were identified. Respondents most frequently cited the perception that 'fear of failure' (29), 'poor time management' (28) and 'peer pressure' (27) were reasons for student cheating, whilst 'personal pride' (44) and 'fear of being caught' (32) were the most frequently cited perceived reasons for students 'not cheating'. No gender, subject or teaching experience differences were found in the placement of items.

Perceptions of whether or not student cheating was wrong were grouped into four categories. Some respondents felt that all types of cheating were wrong, but most perceived the definition of cheating to depend on the circumstances of the task in hand. Cheating could be detrimental to learning as well as beneficial to learning. In the latter case, the cheating was not perceived to be serious or was perceived to be 'not cheating' at all.

3. Pressures that may increase and decrease cheating

Nine questions were asked that reflected opinions relating to increases and decreases in student, staff and parent cheating. The response scale for each question was a 10cm visual analogue scale (see figure 7.3.4).

Figure 7.3.4. The response scale used to indicate perceived change in the amount of student cheating

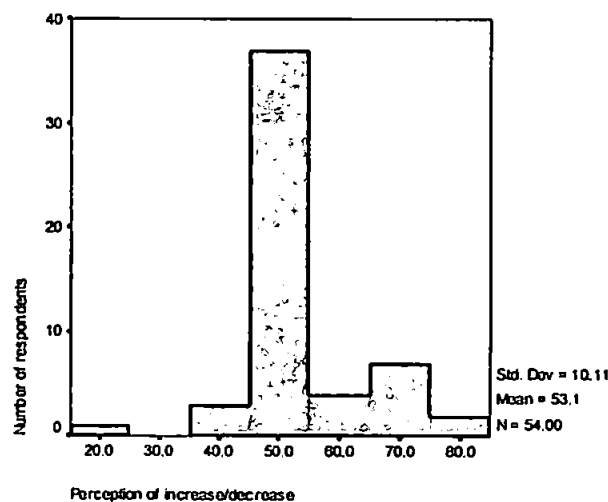


(a) The change in prevalence of cheating

Respondents reported whether they thought that cheating had increased, decreased or stayed the same since they had started teaching. The mean response position was 53. This was close to the mid range value label of 'stayed the same'

In figure 7.3.5 the distribution of responses is given. Most respondents reported that in their opinion levels of cheating had stayed the same. More rather than fewer respondents reported the perception of an increase rather than a decrease in cheating. However, the number of respondents either side of the mean was small.

Figure 7.3.5. The distribution of responses indicating a perceived increase or decrease in cheating



The reasons given for the response to this question were categorised into three groups. Table 7.3.9 is the list of reasons for respondents who perceived there to have been an increase in cheating since they had begun teaching (n=14, including two respondents who did not give a reason). The item score refers to the 10 cm (0-100) line which participants marked.

Thirty-six respondents reported reasons that indicated no change. Their reasons are given in appendix 22. Typical reasons given by this group reflected a lack of observed cheating in their practice or a lack of observed change in cheating incidents in their time as practitioners.

Four respondents gave reasons that were classed as reflecting a decrease in cheating. These have been given in table 7.3.10. The reasons for a perceived decrease in cheating related to the changes in educational policies.

With the split of respondents across subject areas resulting in small sample sizes, conclusions about discipline influences are limited. Languages teachers were more prevalent in the increase cheating group. Science teachers were either in the no change group or (n=2) suggested that cheating had dramatically increased. Maths teachers were either in the 'decrease in cheating' or 'no change' group. No gender or teaching experience differences were identified.

Table 7.3.9. Reasons given for a perceived increase in the prevalence of cheating

Reason given for a perceived increase in cheating	Item score	Subject
Not a huge amount going on in class time but more pairwork + group work now – 'cheating' is called 'helping'!	53	Languages
Lack of consensus over ethical values.	61	Languages
Could be that I am wise to their tricks.	61	Languages
I have witnessed firsthand and increase in cheating particularly at <u>KS3</u> .	61	Languages
Feel it has increased due to pressure being put on pupils.	62	Other
Evidence? A few more students cheat on internal tests.	66	Humanities
Word processing & internet Pressure on students (coursework etc) Joint projects to be encouraged!	66	Other
More opportunities to cheat – easier access to things like the internet – it doesn't seem like cheating – more evidence of copying.	67	English
Course work.	70	Science
Increased evidence of copying particularly in coursework. Availability of "cheat " material on Internet.	70	Other
The increase of word processing of coursework makes plagiarism easier	74	Humanities
More pressure 'to achieve', to meet targets	82	Languages

Table 7.3.10. Reasons given for the perception of a decrease in cheating

Reasons given for the perception of a decrease in cheating	Response score	Subject
Possible more value put on actual achievement – National Curriculum tests NC tests implemented early in KS2.	20	Humanities
With increased pressure on students and teachers to achieve high results, there is more awareness of cheating and therefore work is more carefully monitored.	35	English
Increase in the level of coursework as opposed to examination.	42	Maths
Checking of work now seems to be more thorough. Exam invigilation more stricter.	42	Other

(b) The change in academic pressures and cheating

Question 10 referred to the pressures on today's students effecting an increase in cheating ('Students today feel more pressured to achieve and are more likely to cheat as a result'). The mean response level for this question was 31.2, indicating a position of agree rather than disagree. Whilst this finding contradicts the responses given to the first question in this section regarding increases and decreases in student cheating (i.e., no change in cheating), these two items were negatively, but not significantly correlated.

Question 11 was comprised of seven items relating to specific pressures or events that may increase or decrease the likelihood of cheating by students, parents and staff (see table 7.3.11). Items 1, 2 and 3 were perceived to increase cheating, whilst items 4 to 7 were perceived to decrease cheating. Items 1, 2 and 3 referred to factors which may be perceived to be outside of the teachers' control and related to recent and proposed changes in educational policy. Items 4 to 7 referred to methods employed to increase pass rates amongst students. Means and standard deviations are given in table 7.3.11. Figures above 50 represent a perceived increase in cheating and figures below 50 represent a perceived decrease in cheating.

Table 7.3.11. Descriptive statistics for the items comprising question 11

Item	Mean	SD
1. Able students being entered for higher exams even if their teacher does not agree	60.8	17.8
2. An increased amount of student testing for student performance and league table information	67.5	19.9
3. Performance management that puts pressure on teachers to get the statistics or outcomes they need	68.4	20.3
4. Telling a student that they are capable of slightly more than their achievements suggest, as away of increasing performance	43.3	18.6
5. Parents taking an interest in the work that their children bring home	33.6	22.0
6. Borderline pass/fail students being targeted to improve pass rates	48.3	21.7
7. Students who are struggling, being encouraged to get extra tuition before SATs/GCSEs	31.6	28.7

Item 2 referred to pressures induced by testing. This item was revealed by a Person product moment correlation to be significantly correlated with question 10 (the perception that pressures in general on students have effected an increase in cheating), $r=.28$, $n=53$, $p<.05$. Greater agreement that pressures affected cheating was associated with the perception that more student testing would increase cheating. Other correlations with question 10 were found not to be significant.

Items 1 and 3 were also significantly correlated. If a respondent reported that they felt performance management targeted at improving student outcomes would lead to an increase in cheating, they were more likely to report that students being entered for exams without the teachers' consent would lead to an increase in cheating ($r=.41$, $n=52$, $p<.01$).

Within-subjects contrasts (difference) were used to determine where the differences lay between the items. Difference contrasts identify whether the mean of one item deviates from the mean of the previous item and so on. Item 1 was not found to be significantly different from item 2. Item 2 was not found to be significantly different from item 3. Items 4 to 7 differed significantly from one another (see table 7.3.12). These data suggest that respondents treated items 1 to 3 differently to items 4 to 7.

This difference in the item groupings is clearer when the total scores for each cluster of items are compared. Items 1, 2 and 3 were collapsed and compared to the grouped items 4 to 7, using a related samples t-test. A significant difference was revealed $t_{51} = 3.4$, $p<.01$ (one-tailed). This suggests that there were two clusters of items, one cluster referring to pressures placed on teachers which are outside of their control and one referring to learning initiatives already in place that support students' progress.

Finally, a significant relationship between perceived change in cheating frequency and collapsed items 1 to 3 was revealed by a Pearson product moment correlation ($r=.3$, $n=52$, $p<.05$). The perception that pressures would lead to an increase in cheating was associated with a perception of an increase in cheating whilst the respondent had been a teacher.

Table 7.3.12. Within-subjects difference contrasts for items perceived to increase or decrease cheating

	df	F	Sig.
Item 2 vs. Item 1	1,51	2.66	.11
Item 3 vs. Previous	1,51	1.78	.19
Item 4 vs. Previous	1,51	57.62	<.001
Item 5 vs. Previous	1,51	73.23	<.001
Item 6 vs. Previous	1,51	7.38	<.01
Item 7 vs. Previous	1,51	16.37	<.001

(c) Interim summary

Teachers perceived that 'today's students' felt more pressured to achieve and would be more likely to cheat as a result. They also reported that pressures external to teachers (in the form of policies) would increase cheating, whilst academic support and tutoring by teachers and particularly parents and others would decrease cheating. Once again, no individual differences (gender, subject, teaching experience) were identified.

7.4 Discussion

Teachers viewed cheating to vary in severity according to the individual cheating behaviour. Active behaviours, such as copying and changing answers were perceived to be more serious than passive behaviours such as receiving help with work from friends or teachers. Cheating behaviours also ceased to be classed as cheating by some respondents according to a) the behaviour, b) the year group (younger rather than older) and c) the ability of the student group (less rather than more able). There was not, as has been reported in the literature, 100% consensus for *any* of the ten behaviours (e.g., Graham et al 1994). In particular, the behaviour relating to plagiarism was not at the least seriously perceived end of the continuum, as has been found in the literature. It was more likely to be perceived as 'cheating' rather than 'not cheating'. Plagiarism is a behaviour that has been extensively reported as a grey area regarding consensus of opinion between both students and staff (e.g., Barnett and Dalton, 1981) and was more likely to be perceived as less serious and not cheating. It may well be however, that the behaviour was

synonymous with copying (a more seriously rated behaviour) for respondents because of the way it was termed in the questionnaire.

In general the more seriously respondents perceived a cheating behaviour to be, the less frequently they reported the behaviour to be 'not cheating'. This finding reflected those of, for example, Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995), who found that British university lecturers perceived more serious cheating behaviours to occur less frequently. However, the magnitude of the severity-consensus relationship reported here was not as strong as those reported in the literature (which has tended to focus on tertiary education).

It was interesting however, that a form of 'teacher-cheating' was perceived to be less serious and more frequent than most of the other cheating behaviours in the study. 'The teacher providing greater help than the student should have been given' was a situation and assessment free behaviour (as were all the others), which makes it difficult to conclude that this is an example of teachers admitting that cheating (for/with students) was acceptable. For example, providing more help than should be given in a first year maths class is very different from providing more help than should be given to a year 11 piece of GCSE geography coursework. However, it may indicate a willingness to step over a professional boundary in some instances. Focus group participants took a dim view of teachers who helped certain students 'advance'. However, it was more likely that the participants treated teacher cheating as unlikely to occur.

Other indicators that teachers may feel pressures to cheat came from responses to the questions pertaining to perceived pressures that may lead to an increase or decrease in cheating (by the student, parents or staff). Teachers reported that under conditions where students were entered for exams that the teachers did not feel they were capable of passing, an increased amount of government testing and performance management targets that focused on good 'statistics', then cheating would increase. What form the increase in cheating would take was not recorded. However, Gay (1990) reported that teachers changed SAT score sheets, helped students practice the questions before the exams and even sat the tests for the pupils. Recent newspaper reports have also highlighted similar practices in this country ('Thousands take maths A-level sold for £400 on black market', *The Daily Telegraph*, 2001). In reality the cheating may be more subtle. Reasons for student cheating given by respondents included poor supervision, teachers not checking student work and environments conducive to cheating. These factors cited as causing student cheating, whilst not the most prevalent, were causes perceived to originate from the teacher. Indeed, one respondent cited the reason, 'knowledge that they can put pressure on

the teachers not to fail them'. Students have in the past reported that teacher factors were important in influencing cheating. However, the focus has tended to be on teacher characteristics (friendly, boring etc) and teaching style (Evans and Craig, 1990).

The frequency of cheating across year groups was perceived by the teachers to increase steadily with age. Year 11 students were reported to cheat the most. This finding echoes those of the 'Like me' scenarios in Study 4 (Chapter 6) and the findings of researchers such as Murdock, Hale and Weber (2001). This finding was contrasted with the perception that fewer behaviours for year 11 students were considered to be 'not cheating' by respondents. If teachers tolerated students using 'short cuts' less as they got older, they did so according to ability. Teachers may hold lower expectations for less able students. This suggests that teachers have not been successful in communicating their definition of acceptable behaviour because older students are perceived to cheat more. Students may not have picked up on this communication of standards. In Chapter 3 (Study 1) it was hypothesised that students were having to hold profiles of acceptable behaviour for each subject that they were taught. Depending on the class ability level, the focus group participants reported that the teachers had higher or lower expectations of academic behaviour standards and that juggling the various teacher requirements was difficult. The data from the current study supports the students' perceptions that teachers viewed (acceptable) behaviours differentially according to ability and age. Researchers such as Cooper and McIntyre (1998) have reported that students are not blind to these teacher treatment differences.

The finding that older students were perceived to cheat more, may also have been a reflection of the nature and number of assessment situations. Year 11 is associated with public examinations. It is hoped that teachers were not referring to more cheating occurring in this arena, but that perhaps 'short-cuts' to learning were taken through assessments such as homework and revision tests. However, as data pertaining to these questions were not gathered, the reason for the perceived incidence of cheating in this age group is speculative. It is equally likely that year 11 students have learned a wider range of cheating behaviours as their experience of being students has grown.

The perception of the frequency of cheating across assessment events was that there was more cheating on homework, coursework and classwork than tests and exams. Homework and coursework are less strictly monitored by teachers (by definition) and are thus more open to cheating. Classwork cheating was ranked third most frequent. This may support an hypothesis of Study 2 (Chapter 4), that classwork cheating was referred to more frequently by respondents than

was eventually reported. A large proportion of the data in Study 2, particularly those items referring to copying, were described in general, non-specific terms. It was not possible to definitively conclude whether or not students were referring to any assessment event rather than classwork in particular.

Perceptions of severity were not reversals of the frequency data as may have been expected in light of the correlation between perceptions of cheating and severity of cheating. Formal examinations (exams, tests and coursework) were perceived to be more serious than informal assessments (homework and classwork). In Study 2, exams and tests were perceived to be associated with more seriously perceived forms of cheating. However, as there were relatively few data, the trend of cheating severity with coursework, classwork and homework being perceived as less serious was not as robust as the trend for exams and tests. However, it should be noted that perceptions of severity may differ between staff and students. Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) reported that for some behaviours staff perceptions were more severe than student perceptions.

The findings of the current study lend support to the four dimensional model given in Study 2, particularly the severity of assessments (a similar severity pattern) and the status of the cheating behaviour 'looking'. This behaviour was mentioned frequently by respondents in Study 2 and whilst it was classed by more teachers as 'not cheating' than 'cheating', it was tolerated less in older students. This lends support to the hypothesis put forward in Study 1 (focus groups) that there were communication issues between staff and students regarding the language of cheating. Indeed Curtis (1996) suggested that teachers give students mixed signals about what constitutes cheating.

A suggestion that the frequency of cheating has altered whilst the respondents had been practising teachers was not upheld. Cheating, by the majority of respondents, was reported not to have increased or decreased. Some respondents referred to the amount of cheating that went on when they were at school as a benchmark, others referred to the number of cheating incidents they observed each year. This finding is in contrast to those variously reported in the American cheating literature by authors such as Bowers (1983), where an increase in cheating, particularly in cheating by females, has been identified over the last 30 years. Gay (1990) reported that American teachers perceived student cheating to be on the increase and that cheating by teachers was also felt by some teachers to be on the increase. Indeed, this may well be the case in Britain

too. Media reports of teachers cheating on SATs have been reported with increasing frequency ('Head suspended over SATs fixing', Times Educational Supplement, 2001).

What was not clear from the respondents' reasons for their perceived increase or decrease in cheating was whether or not the frequency of cheating had changed according to the type of cheating. A few respondents reported an increase in cheating associated with changes in assessment practices (coursework). Evidence that the teachers gave regarding the perceived frequency of cheating across assessment types suggests that cheating must have increased since the introduction of GCSEs (with an emphasis on coursework) because coursework was rated as the second most frequently occurring cheating arena. However, as there are fewer final examinations associated with GCSEs (cf. O-levels) the rates of examination cheating may have decreased to effect a perception of no change in cheating.

Another factor suggesting that cheating may well have increased related to the perception that increased pressures on today's students was associated in the minds of the respondents with an increase in cheating. However, the relationship between perceptions of changes in cheating frequency and the increased pressures on students leading to cheating was negative and not significant. This suggested that the item measuring change in cheating was not sophisticated enough or that teachers were responding using impression management. The item layout as given in figure 7.3.4 shows a 10cm line. The descriptors at the end of each line appeared to be quite close to the mid point and the descriptors were 'extreme', i.e., the words 'large increase' and 'large decrease' were used. Perhaps removing the word 'large' may have increased the range of responses. With regards to impression management, it may not make the teachers look good if they report that cheating has increased whilst *they* have been a teacher. On the other hand, it may do the cause of teachers good if they report that pressures facing students may be causing them to cheat, particularly if interpreted in light of the perceptions of pressure that teachers perceived to increase and decrease cheating. Whatever is the case, this finding may be similar to those of Evans and Craig (1990) in which cheating in schools in *general* was viewed to be a problem by teachers, but that it was not a problem in their own school.

As mentioned above, teachers felt that target pressures produced by external sources (government, headteachers and line managers) would lead to an increase in cheating. Whilst these pressures *should not* currently exist they may appear in the near future with increasing frequency. Indeed, the front page of the Times Educational Supplement ran a story indicating that new teachers were leaving the profession due aggressive managers 'obsessed with targets'

('Young staff flee factory schools', Times Educational Supplement, 2001). Perhaps teachers were trying to ward off such a policy proposal by suggesting that it would effect an increase in cheating by parents, students and or staff. However, the additional pressures on teachers produced by the publishing of student performance in the form of league tables may soon be coming to an end. Wales has ceased to publish performance tables anywhere other than individual school prospectii. Unions in Wales have urged English schools to follow suit (and some teaching unions held votes over the Summer 2001 vacation on the scrapping of English league tables). This ease in pressure may be short lived however, as OFSTED inspectors are increasingly looking to schools for evidence that there is internal monitoring of value added to students by education ('The test with potential', Times Educational Supplement, 2001). Psychometric-style intelligence tests are increasingly being used by schools as an indication of student potential and thus ability settings.

Perceptions of an increase in cheating were contrasted with perceptions of decreases in cheating perceived to be brought about by methods which the teachers probably perceived to be acceptable ways of increasing academic achievement. Telling students that they can achieve more than they are capable of, parents taking an interest in work, targeting of borderline students for extra help and encouraging students to get extra tuition for SATs and GCSEs are all methods which are currently used by schools. They are also all methods that can be used to increase pressures on students. However, the teachers may have interpreted these as methods for providing academic support to students and thus perceived them as reducing the need to cheat. However, as pointed out in the introduction, individual learning environments (ILEs) only work if the students have been given the skills with which to process the incoming information (study skills). Targeting works on the same principles as the ILE (Study 5 advisory teacher, personal communication, 2001). It was hoped that a greater number of teachers would have responded from school 2, as this was the school that received government funding to target borderline students. Targeting would not have been an issue for the other two schools.

Attitudes towards cheating therefore are not as straightforward as one might assume. Teachers admitted that behaviours *students* called cheating (taken from Study 2), were not always cheating and that they as teachers had a role to play in both increasing and decreasing cheating. Peer pressure, laziness and work avoidance and fear of failure were the most prevalent perceived causes of cheating reported by teachers. Respondents in Study 3 (Chapter 5) also reported these factors as causes of cheating. However, Newstead et al (1996) reported that British university students said that they cheated to because they had extenuating circumstances, wanted to

increase the mark and that everybody does it. Extenuating circumstances were not reported by teacher respondents – unless 'poor time management' is considered equivalent! However, increasing the mark did have resonance with some of the 'peer pressure' comments and all of the small category of 'pursuit of better grades'. An 'environment conducive to cheating' may be equated with everybody does it. Factors that were perceived by teachers to prevent cheating included personal pride, fear of being caught and confidence in own abilities. Newstead et al's (1996) reasons for not cheating centred around the cheating situation not arising and it being immoral/dishonest. Fear of being caught featured highly in teacher reports, but not with the British university students in Newstead et al's study. Fear of being caught, however, did feature in Graham et al's (1994) university teachers' reports of cheating prevention. It would be an interesting investigation to use the teachers' reasons for and for not cheating into a questionnaire similar to that of Newstead et al and ascertain whether students used the teachers' reasons or their own to explain their decisions to cheat or not to cheat.

As already mentioned, some respondents reported that they realised the role they as teachers had in increasing or decreasing cheating. For example, reasons for cheating included poor teacher control, whilst reasons for decreasing cheating included stricter teacher control with regards to assessments. Within these teacher factors, the need to help students understand work and not fear reprisals for non-understanding was a small if defiant voice. These sentiments were echoed by some respondents' views of whether cheating in school was wrong.

There were many respondents who reported that cheating under no circumstances was acceptable. However, there were also many who reported that in today's learning environment, cheating was inevitably bound up with collaboration where the line between right and wrong could become very indistinct. The understanding that teachers held of the right or wrongness of cheating may also have fed into their perceptions of for whom a behaviour could be considered cheating. Reports of behaviours classed as cheating fluctuated with year group. A reason for this fluctuation may have been related to the purpose of learning. However, for all year groups and abilities, the collaborative behaviours, where the student received help, were less likely to be perceived as cheating.

For respondents who perceived the status of cheating to be dependent on the purpose of learning, there was no association between reports of behaviours being classed as 'not cheating' and reported severity of the cheating behaviours. However, for the respondents who condemned cheating outright or who simply said that 'yes' cheating in school is wrong, there was a strong

association between severity and the perception of whether they classed a behaviour as 'not cheating'. It may be that these two groups of teachers (collaborators vs. condemners?) have a different teaching style and ethos. These style differences may impact on student perceptions of the acceptability of cheating. Alternatively they may impact on the teachers' perceived frequency of cheating.

It is interesting to note that there were two broad groups of respondents. One group perceived cheating to be wrong, no matter what (these included those who simply answered 'yes'). The other group viewed cheating as right or wrong depending on the circumstances. These two groups are broadly in line with the 'wrong' and 'ambivalent' respondents identified in Chapter 5 (Study 3). Additional support has been provided for the decision model, particularly with reference to the goodness of fit test of 'generality'. This suggests that teachers and students may share some perceptual ground with regards to cheating. Indeed, it may be that students pick up their views about cheating from the teachers or vice versa.

Whilst there were two broad groups of respondents, no individual differences, other than those reported above were found. Whilst the small sample size precluded such investigations to a large extent, it was particularly disappointing. Those respondents in the group of teachers who reported cheating to be wrong, may have had a different teaching style to those in the other groups. The group of teachers for whom cheating was wrong also contained respondents who felt that cheating does not occur. Teachers denying the presence of cheating may be communicating different messages to their students than those who fully appreciate what students are capable of! In the introduction mention was made of the heuristics by which teachers judge student behaviours (Blease, 1995). The heuristics were personality, academic ability and maturity to work. Such 'denying' teachers may use an heuristic relating to honest student academic performance to guide their classroom management tactics.

7.4.1 Summary

The aims of this study were to examine the perceptions of cheating that teachers held and issues raised in studies 2 and 3. There were no explicit hypotheses, rather there were research question areas related to the previous studies. No significant gender, subject or teaching experience differences were identified.

1. Perceptions of the constituents, prevalence and seriousness of cheating in secondary school.

There was not 100% consensus regarding any of the 10 cheating behaviours. The status of a behaviour varied according to the year and ability of students. Behaviours where teachers and family members were perceived to be the agents of cheating were less likely to be perceived as cheating. A general trend between cheating and severity was identified, with the more serious behaviours being those that were perceived by a greater number of teachers to be cheating. This linear severity relationship was found to vary as a function of the perception of whether or not cheating was wrong. Cheating behaviours associated with parental help (passive copying) were perceived to be less serious by the respondents in Study 2, as was also the case in the present study. Teachers perceived cheating to be most frequent in informal rather than formal assessment settings and perceived cheating in formal assessments to be more serious than cheating in informal assessments. Cheating in informal assessment settings were also perceived by respondents in Study 2 to be less serious. Older students were perceived to cheat more than younger students as was the case with the 'Like me' data in Study 4 (Chapter 6).

2. Perceptions of the determinants and legitimacy of cheating in secondary school.

Teachers' perceptions of what may cause students to cheat largely centred on pressures from peers, the desire to look good and pressures from authority figures. Laziness and fear of failure were also seen as prime motivators for cheating. The factors influencing students not to cheat were a students' pride in his or her own achievement, good academic ability and fear of being caught.

Whether or not teachers felt cheating to be wrong was largely in line with the findings of Study 3. Teachers were categorised as perceiving cheating to be totally wrong or right under certain conditions. Those who felt that cheating could sometimes be right tended to locate their opinion within the context of the purpose of learning and today's collaborative learning environments. Cheating was wrong if it crossed the boundary between learning and work avoidance.

3. Perceptions of the pressures that may effect an increase or decrease in cheating in secondary school.

Teachers did not feel that cheating had increased during their time as practitioners. However, they did report that the pressures on the students had increased which may lead to an increase in cheating. Teachers reported that if pressures were placed on them to obtain assessment targets from their students, an increase in cheating by students, staff and or parents was a probable result. Pressures placed on students that were perceived to enhance the learning environment were seen as methods of reducing cheating. This particular aspect of cheating has not, to the knowledge of the researcher been investigated before.

7.4.2 Evaluation of the study.

The summary of findings in the preceding section suggests that there has been a shift from a position of knowing nothing (or making intuitive guesses) about British secondary school teachers' perceptions of cheating, to knowing a great deal, some findings of which matched those in the literature and some of which had no equivalent research base in the literature.

The questions asked of teachers were very simple and often required categorical responses or were transformed into categorical responses (reasons for cheating). This limited the range of statistical tests of difference and association that could be performed on the data. However, as the study was largely exploratory, it was necessary to investigate the basic elements of cheating perceptions.

The perception of the severity of cheating clearly demonstrated a ranking in the perceived severity of the different behaviours. This is contrasted with the lack of difference between the severity of behaviours as perceived by the parents in Study 4 (Chapter 6). This suggests that extending the response scale enables differences between behaviours to be identified. However, it may have been that teachers were more familiar with cheating and evaluated it in the context of learning, whereas parents may have evaluated cheating in the context of moral transgressions.

It was originally intended that contrasts between school types be explored. However, extreme difficulty was encountered when trying to recruit teachers from one of the target schools. Despite concerted efforts, teachers were simply unwilling to participate. The headteacher was sympathetic to the research but reported that of all the things the teachers had to cope with in a school full of 'interesting students', cheating was an issue at the bottom of the pile and rightly so. Therefore two schools that were similar in academic output were compared. No differences were

found on any of the measures, which was not surprising. The lack of surprise related to the composition of the sample which was mostly respondents with senior/heavy non-teaching posts in addition to their teaching role. Like Study 4, another homogenous sample! What was surprising was the willingness of respondents to admit to problems surrounding student cheating and the role that teachers had in influencing cheating. However this may have been a function of the sample characteristics. Headteachers were requested to spread the questionnaires over the range of teaching subjects. For both schools 1 and 3, headteachers reported that they had targeted staff and as all questionnaires were returned very promptly, it may be assumed that few targeted teachers passed their questionnaire on to another teacher to complete. This 'selected' sample may have perceived the learning environment differently to a random sample of teachers or a sample of teachers from a wider range of schools. This may have also have been why individual differences in perceptions were not identified. Individual teacher differences have not been identified within the literature and it should not be concluded from this study that there are none to be found. However, overall as a first study in teacher perceptions of cheating a wide range of teaching and professional issues have been highlighted which have until now not been investigated with British secondary school teachers. Support for both the four-dimensional model presented in Study 2 and the decision model in Study 3 has been forthcoming.

In the next chapter, the decision model of cheating is revisited. The study presented in this chapter has provided some support for the validity of the decision model. For example, the causes of cheating identified by students were similar to those identified by teachers. Laziness as a motive for cheating and fear of failure were also mentioned in both studies. However, less frequently mentioned by teachers was the pure pursuit of better marks. Positive consequences of cheating were much more frequently termed as the desire to look good and succeed. Teachers' perceptions of reasons for cheating ranked positive consequences as highly as the fear of failure. It was the positive consequences of cheating, that were limited in evidence in Study 3 (Chapter 5). As will be seen, students in the next study envisaged cheating as having many positive consequences and also perceived teacher induced pressures to be a legitimate cause of cheating.

8

Study 6



Matching realities:

a preliminary test of the decision model for 'understanding'

8.1 Introduction

In Chapter 5 (Study 3) a model was developed to account for student perceptions of whether or not cheating in school was wrong. The model was referred to as the decision model. The model was comprised of a series of related categories through which pathways of perceptions were traced. The pathways represented students' understanding of whether or not they perceived cheating to be wrong. Two broad types of respondents were identified. Just over half of the respondents in Study 3 perceived cheating to be totally wrong and the remainder believed cheating to be acceptable or acceptable under certain conditions. The students for whom cheating could be right under certain conditions were referred to as 'ambivalent'.

In order for the model to progress to the status of a grounded theory, several tests of reliability and validity needed to be met. These were proposed by Strauss and Corbin (1990) as 'fit', 'understanding', 'generality' and 'control'.

There are many ways in which the decision model could be tested and some of these were included in Study 3 (Chapter 5). However, within the bounds of this thesis, 'understanding' was chosen as the most appropriate testing with a *new* sample, particularly as the decision model contained two categories which were hypothetical ('positive consequences of cheating' and 'personality characteristics of cheaters'). Testing the decision model in this way was also a triangulation process in which the research process was brought full circle in order to begin system closure on the theory emerging from the model.

8.1.1 Aim of the study

The test of 'understanding' was chosen as a first follow-up point for further developing the decision model. If the population from which the model was developed could make sense of the *categories* contained within the model (the structure), then the assumption that realities matched could be made.

Developing and evaluating a grounded theory requires that the population be re-sampled. Within the bounds of this PhD a large scale study could not be undertaken. Rather a brief re-sampling was conducted to clarify the overall structure of the decision model. A small group of participants were recruited to ascertain whether the categories identified in the decision model (Study 3) were recognised by a new sample of participants as holding true to their perceptions of cheating.

In Chapters 1 and 2, how important it was to assess perceptions of cheating from more than one perspective using a bottom up approach was discussed. For example, in this thesis, severity of cheating has been examined from the perspective of the student, parent and teacher. However, the initial starting point for all of the research in this thesis was the series of focus groups with the Guides and Scouts. From the discussions with these adolescents, the direction that the studies would take was identified. To produce a piece of research that is 'complete', the target population (adolescents) should be used as critical determinants of 'understanding'. In particular, the original population from which the studies stemmed should be used. Therefore, as with the first study, the last study was conducted with Guides and Scouts.

8.2 Method

8.2.1 Participants and method of recruitment

One Guide leader (known to the researcher) and one Scout master (contacted via a Guiding colleague), from a suburb of Plymouth were approached to help recruit participants for this final study. As the study was to be designed to guide future research into the decision model of cheating, only 10 female and 10 male participants were recruited. Four participants (2 females, 2 males) were from each of the secondary school years 7 to 11. The total number of participants was 20. Participants were paid for taking part.

The participants may or may not have taken part in the pilot phases of the parent-adolescent study (Chapter 6) because the same district was used for the present study. However,

as the researcher was not aware of who took part in the present study, the degree of overlap was not possible to ascertain.

8.2.2 Ethical considerations

The Guide or Scout leader acted in loco parentis for the participants. They were briefed regarding the right to withdraw, anonymity, confidentiality and about the purpose and aims of the study. This was explained to each participant. Details pertaining to the study were also given on the front page of the survey.

8.2.3 Survey instrument

A question from each of the stages of the decision model was included in a survey. For some questions respondents were asked to imagine that they were going to cheat or had cheated. For other questions they were asked to imagine that someone else had cheated or that they were evaluating the characteristics of someone who was a typical cheater.

The questions took the form of statements which were *based on the responses given by participants in Study 3 (Chapter 5)*. In some cases, the actual wording that participants used was included in the survey items. The full survey is given in appendix 23. Brief details are given below.

In most cases respondents either had to tick boxes to indicate their choice of options or to simply agree or disagree with the statements. Attitude scales were not used as the purpose of the study was to test whether the respondents would or would not use the categories identified from the Study 3 respondents' answers to the question 'Is cheating in school wrong?'. As a briefing for the study, the survey cover sheet included an explanation of where the questions came from (previous research participants) and an explanation of the new participants' role in working out 'how to use the comments that I [the researcher] obtained from those people'.

(a) Causes of cheating

Students were asked to tick which of a series of reasons they felt *should* be called legitimate causes of cheating. The word 'should' was used to indicate that respondents should feel free to indicate their personal beliefs and not the received wisdom of their peer group or teachers. Examples of causes of cheating were 'stress and worry' and 'laziness'.

(b) Pre-decisional factors

Pre-decision factors were divided into the assessment, the characteristics of the assessment and the motivation for cheating.

In order to test the hypothesis that cheating was more acceptable on informal rather than formal assessments, respondents were asked to choose from eight assessments, which three they would cheat on and which three they would not cheat on. The assessment choices were (in the order presented for the 'would cheat on' section) homework, GCSEs, classwork, exams, coursework, tests, A-levels and games. Whilst technically 'games' were not assessed activities, it was included because respondents in Study 3 had reported that it was an area for which cheating was more rather than less acceptable in comparison to academic based activities. In addition, teachers also perceived cheating to occur during games.

After choosing which assessments to cheat and not cheat on, respondents were asked again to choose three assessments that they would cheat on. This time the assessments were phrased using the language that respondents in Study 3 used to describe the *characteristics of the assessment*. For example, respondents could choose 'a small test' and 'major homework'.

Motivations for cheating were investigated by asking respondents to choose two reasons (from a list) that they would give if they had cheated and the two reasons (from the same list) that they would not accept if someone else used them as reasons for cheating (i.e., least acceptable reasons). Examples were 'I made an effort to understand the work before I cheated' and 'my friends said if I helped them to cheat, then they would help me'.

(c) Pre-decisional reminders

Before the decision to cheat was taken (in the model) a reminder phase about the pros and cons of cheating was encountered. Here angel and devil arguments were used to encourage or dissuade the potential cheater. Eight statements reflecting the angel and devil arguments were included. Respondents were requested to 'agree' or 'disagree' with the statements. Examples were, 'tests in school are for your benefit so you can see where you need to improve' (angel) and 'other people cheat in my school' (devil).

(d) Positive consequences of cheating

This was one of the categories in the model that was the least robust. Inferences were made about the positive consequences of cheating by inverting the statements indicating negative

consequences of cheating. Respondents were asked, for a range of positive consequences whether 'yes, cheating usually does have this benefit' or 'no, cheating usually does not have this benefit'. Examples were 'you can get better marks' and 'cheating can stop you worrying about failing a test'.

(e) Victim impact statements

Victim impact statements were separated into injury to others and injury to the self. Injury to the self included negative academic consequences. Respondents were asked to say whether they felt cheating had a variety of negative academic consequences such as 'cheating can get you into a set that is too high and you can end up with work you can't do'. In response to items reflecting injury to others, respondents were asked to imagine someone had cheated from them and state whether they would 'feel' any of the listed outcomes. Examples were 'the cheater had taken away your sense of effort' and 'the cheater had helped you to learn'.

(f) Profile of the typical cheater

This was another category that was less robust in the model. A profile of a typical cheater appeared as a by-product of the perceptions of cheating held by the respondents in Study 3. Twenty adjectives were listed for respondents to match to their perception of a person who had never cheated, had cheated frequently and who had cheated occasionally. In the decision model, characteristics were grouped as affect, behavioural and cognitive. No distinction was made in the survey. Respondents could choose as many or as few as they wished for each type of person. It was hypothesised that the frequent cheater would be perceived more negatively than the non-cheater. This was because the characteristics associated with cheaters in the minds of the respondents' in Study 3 were negative. The full list of adjectives, taken from Study 3 is given in appendix 23 with the survey. Using the technique of inversion, it was hypothesised in Study 3, but not followed up, that respondents, whilst perceiving the cheater as having negative traits, would perceive the non-cheater as having positive traits.

(g) Prevention points

At two places in the model, there were potential prevention points (between the start and pre-decisional factors and after the negative consequences of cheating). Nine statements were written that reflected the types of prevention statements given by respondents in Study 3. These

reflected externally imposed preventions in the form of punishments (e.g., 'having your paper ripped up if you were caught cheating') and restricted cheating opportunities (e.g., 'teachers keeping an eye out for cheaters') as well as positive learning actions such as 'being given tips on how to revise for tests'. Respondents could state that the prevention option would prevent cheating (yes), not prevent cheating (no) or possibly prevent cheating (possibly). Respondents were asked to respond for their own behaviour (as opposed to preventing other peoples' cheating).

(h) Type of respondents

Finally respondents were asked to classify their overall perception of cheating according to the four groups of cheating respondents identified in Study 3. One category referred to ambivalent respondents, who viewed cheating to be both right and wrong. The remaining three groups of respondents were all variations of the group of respondents who felt cheating to be wrong. Some respondents felt that cheating was wrong because it caused negative academic consequences, others felt that cheating was wrong and should be advised against because it went against the purpose and function of education. The third group reported a mixture of the two perceptions towards cheating and were described as holists. They reported that cheating should not be entertained because it defeated the purpose of education and had negative consequences. One statement was written to reflect each of the four groups.

8.3 Results

The data were mostly scored using codes and counts. Therefore the analysis of the data was at the level of descriptive statistics for the majority of questions. Raw counts have been used in place of percentages because the sample size was small. Individual differences are reported at the end of the main analyses. One respondent missed out two pages (through over-zealous page turning) and there were a few other missing data points originating from other respondents. Therefore, whilst most results are reported as 'n respondents out of 20', some reports are out of 19. Actual Ns for each item are given in appendix 24

(a) Causes of cheating

Fifteen respondents said that parents wanting you to do well should be called a cause of cheating, closely followed by stress and worry (13) and not being very clever at a subject. Being lazy (8), teachers wanting you to do well (6) and not being very well organised (5) were the

remaining causes offered to respondents. Laziness was perceived to be a cause of cheating by a few respondents in Study 3 but was more likely to be condemned as a cause of cheating at the motivational stage of the pre-decisional factors. As with Study 3 (Chapter 5), laziness was not given as one of the primary legitimate cause of cheating (8), but it was also not classed as the least legitimate causes for cheating.

(b) Pre-decisional factors

(i) Assessment type

Respondents chose three assessments they would cheat on and three that they would not cheat on. Homework (18), classwork (17) and games (15) were the top three assessments that respondents reported they would cheat on. Other assessment options were chosen by one to two respondents each (GCSEs, exams, tests, A-Levels, coursework). The consensus of opinion was not as high for the choice of assessments for which respondents reported they would not cheat. Unsurprisingly GCSEs (17) and A-levels (16) were the most frequently chosen assessments on which the respondents reported they would not cheat. However only 8 said they would not cheat on an exam and 6 reported they would not cheat on tests or coursework. It appeared that deciding on which assessments respondents would not cheat was a little less straightforward than deciding on those that were 'cheatable'.

The types of assessments on which respondents reported that they would cheat largely mirrored the findings of the decision model given in Study 3. They also mirrored the responses given by the teachers in Study 5 (Chapter 7), with informal assessments being cheated on more frequently than formal assessments.

(ii) Characteristics of the assessment

In Study 3 it was suggested that respondents' understanding of the severity and acceptability of cheating was linked to the language that they used to describe cheating. For example, words such as 'small' and 'unimportant' denoted an assessment for which cheating was probably acceptable. For respondents in the current study, an equal number (16) said that they would choose to cheat on 'a small test' and 'a little test that was not recorded'. 'Unimportant coursework' was in third position (9). All of the remaining items scored 3, except 'a minor exam' which scored 7. All of the items that received a score of three were either prefixed by words suggesting importance ('major', 'big', 'important') or indicated that the results of the test were

important ('a test that had the marks recorded'). What these data suggest is that the type of assessment was over-ruled by the description of the assessment. In question (i) above (assessment type), homework and classwork were categorised as being assessments on which respondents *would* choose to cheat. However, for this question, these two assessments were chosen for the non-cheating response, *because* of the language which was used.

(iii) Motivation for cheating

Respondents were asked to select two reasons that they would give for cheating and two reasons that they would not accept from someone who had cheated. Twelve respondents said that the reason for cheating that they would give was 'I didn't understand the work', whilst 11 reported that they would say 'I made an effort to understand the work before I cheated'. Other reasons for cheating scored fewer than 5 responses. Reasons that would not be accepted for cheating were a little less clear cut. Thirteen respondents chose 'I couldn't be bothered to do the work', whilst 9 chose 'my friends cheated too' and 8 chose 'I don't cheat very often, so it's OK this time'. Unsurprisingly, no respondents chose 'I didn't understand the work'. Only one respondent chose 'I made an effort to understand the work before I cheated' as an unacceptable reason for cheating.

(c) Pre-decisional reminder statements

Respondents (n=19) agreed or disagreed with a series of statements regarding reasons why students should not cheat. Of the nine statements seven were *agreed* with by the majority of respondents. Respondents agreed that an education was more important than cheating (19) and that tests are used to indicate student areas for improvement (17). They also agreed that there is a risk that cheaters will be caught (19), that cheating is not a good idea because it may go wrong (18). These four statements constituted angel arguments. For the devil arguments respondents reported that cheaters would be more likely cheat again if they got away with it (16) and seventeen respondents reported that 'other people cheat in my school'. Of the two statements for which there was less agreement, 'at school, everybody cheats sometimes' there was an 'even' split agree/disagree response (10 vs. 9). However, more respondents disagreed (13) than agreed (6) that people who had friends who cheated were more likely to cheat themselves. These responses suggest that the devil arguments (enticements to cheat) were agreed with less than the angel arguments.

(d) Positive consequences of cheating

An equal number of respondents felt that cheating could or could not 'stop you worrying about failing a test' (10). Respondents were clearer however, for the remaining options, in their opinions of what they considered to be benefits of cheating. Getting better marks (18) and work avoidance (16) were perceived to be the primary benefits of cheating, followed by obtaining a higher setting position (13). Respondents felt that cheating as a method of learning (18) and cheating as a method of obtaining a chosen career (17) were not benefits.

(e) Victim impact statements**(i) Self injury and negative academic consequences**

For the previous item, three options were reported to be benefits of cheating, two were reported not to be benefits and one option was reported to be both. For the negative consequences of cheating, *all* options were considered by respondents to befall the potential cheater. All of the respondents reported that cheating could lead to the prevention of learning. Eighteen reported that it could lead to work that was too hard, 16 felt that, in particular, cheating would prevent success in public exams, 14 reported that the cheater would get a bad name with friends and 13 reported that cheating can give the cheater a false impression of his or her ability. In last place, with 12, was the option indicating that cheating was an addictive behaviour. This emphatic response that cheating injures the cheater and had negative academic consequences echoed the clear perceptions held by respondents in Study 3.

(ii) Harming others

Respondents were asked to report what they perceived to be the impact of cheating on the cheater's victim (in this study, the respondent). Not surprisingly nineteen reported that they would not feel that the cheater had helped them learn as a result of cheating from them. However, this statement was reported in Study 3 by a few respondents both as a way of demonstrating the self-harm done to the cheater and the potential benefits gained by the victim (by helping the cheater, the victim enhanced their own learning). Seventeen respondents felt that their sense of achievement would be lost and that a sense of effort would have also been lost (15). An equal number of respondents (15) felt that the cheater might get them into trouble and that the cheater was being unfair. Fourteen reported that they felt the cheater would have taken their place in a higher set. The option for which there was least consensus referred to whether or not cheating had

a victim. Nine respondents reported that they would feel that the cheater had done no wrong to them personally (11 felt the reverse). This may indicate that whilst cheating is reported to affect respondents' sense of academic self worth, cheating itself is not directed at individuals and that any negative fall-out on those around the cheater is a secondary un-intended effect. These findings, once again, largely reflect the findings in Study 3.

(f) Profile of a typical cheater.

Respondents were given 20 adjectives which described personality characteristics. For a frequent, infrequent and non-cheater, respondents were requested to indicate which words applied to which type of person. In table 9.2.1 adjectives that received over 10 responses have been indicated.

The non-cheater was perceived with a greater amount of consensus by respondents. Whilst 17 words were used by respondents, eight were used by most respondents and the remainder by one or two. These eight (given in table 8.3.1) are all positive traits describing a hard working (19) and confident (16) individual. The occasional and the frequent cheater however have not been described using any positive words.

Table 8.3.1. The personality characteristics associated with a non-cheating, occasional and frequent cheater where adjectives were chosen by n>10 respondents.

	Non-cheater	Occasional	Frequent
Worried		✓	✓
Stressed		✓	✓
Unstressed	✓		
Loyal	✓		
Untrustworthy			✓
Hardworking	✓		
Lazy			✓
Clever	✓		
Not very clever			✓
Happy	✓		
Confident	✓		
Unconfident		✓	✓
Bright	✓		
Nice	✓		

The frequent cheater was almost opposite in character to the non-cheater. The frequent cheater was described as lazy (18), but stressed (15) and whilst not in the table above, 8 respondents also classed the frequent cheater as 'nasty'. The infrequent cheater fell between the non-cheater and frequent cheater. However, the infrequent cheater was far more like the frequent cheater in description. As can be seen from table 9.2.1 only three descriptive words were used by more than 10 respondents to describe the infrequent cheater. The infrequent cheater was most likely to be described as stressed (14) unconfident (13) and worried (10). In contrast to the frequent cheater only nine respondents perceived the infrequent cheater to be lazy and some respondents used positive words such as nice, clever and bright to describe the infrequent cheater. In Study 3, the cheater was described using negative words ranging from nasty to un-confident. However, it was more likely, as it was in the present study, that cheaters were described in terms of cognitive (ability related) and affective statements (confidence, stress). The non-cheater was described mainly with behavioural characteristics (hard working)

(g) Prevention of cheating

Nine actions that were considered by respondents in Study 3, to prevent cheating were put to the respondents in the present study. The actions most likely to be perceived as successfully preventing the respondents from cheating were extrinsic motivators. These were the punishments of gaining a zero mark (18) and having the paper ripped up if caught cheating (18). Being told what topics to revise for the exam was the third action that was felt to prevent cheating (16), followed by the assessment being very important (15). Twelve respondents reported that talking to a sympathetic person about assessment stress may *possibly* prevent them from cheating. The action least perceived to prevent cheating was having parents help with revision (10).

(h) Overall respondent type.

In Study 3, two main respondent types were identified. There were those respondents who perceived cheating to be wrong and those who were ambivalent about the status of cheating. In this study nineteen respondents were classed as wrong respondents and one as an ambivalent respondent.

The wrong respondents were classified according to the three groups identified in Study 3. Eight respondents were classed as perceiving cheating according to its negative consequences, 6 according to the holist perspective and 5 were classed as the anti-cheating advisors. The anti-

cheating advisors took a philosophical and moral standpoint, whilst the holists used both negative consequences and philosophical arguments to define their position relative to cheating. The high number of respondents reporting cheating to be wrong may be a reflection of the prevention of cheating methods which were most frequently chosen in the previous item (punishments).

It is hard to draw conclusions about the classification of the respondents because of the small sample size. More respondents in Study 3 were classified as perceiving cheating to be wrong (as they were here). In Study 3 whilst most respondents were classified as perceiving cheating according to the negative consequences, fewer respondents were reported to be anti-cheating advisors than holists. This trend was matched in the present data.

8.3.1 Individual differences

With so few respondents, cell sizes were often too small and precluded the use of meaningful non-parametric tests. Inspection of the raw data did not indicate any gender differences. For example, 'other people cheat in my school' was reported to be true for nine males, but only 8 females, with two females suggesting that other people in their school did not cheat (total $N = 19$). In the literature it has been suggested that females perceived males to cheat more and that they perceived cheating to occur less frequently (e.g., Schab, 1991). These data are too small to be able to support or refute this literature based finding.

Age differences were also investigated by inspecting the raw data. There was an indication (and it must be re-iterated, that these data can only provide an indication) of age differences for the prevention point items regarding the number of 'possibly' responses given ('which of the following things do you think would stop you cheating'). Respondents from years 9 and 10 provided the 'possibly' responses for 'being told what topics were going to come up in the test or exam', whilst years 9, 10 and 11 provided the 'possibly' responses for 'being given tips on how to revise'. Years 9 and 11 felt that having parents help with revision would possibly prevent cheating. On each of these items, the prevention strategies were learning based and these data suggest that the older more exam-experienced respondents were less convinced that positive interventions were enough to prevent resorting to cheating. Year 8 and 9 students gave the possible reasons for 'having separate desks during tests and exams (whilst the majority of students felt that this would prevent cheating), which may reflect the types of tests sat by respondents of these ages.

8.4 Discussion

The results of this study suggested that the Guide and Scout respondents did indeed share perceptions of cheating with the respondents of Study 3. For each category of the decision model, respondents in the present study showed evidence of matched realities. Therefore, whilst the study was simple in both design and analysis, evidence has been presented that supports the structure of the decision model of cheating.

For the causes of cheating, parental pressures to do well and stress and worry were identified as legitimate as they were in Study 3. Laziness was included as a legitimate cause of cheating, but in lesser proportions, as was the case with Study 3.

The pre-decisional factors identified by the present participants also mirrored those in Study 3. Formal assessment events were least likely to be chosen by respondents for cheating. The language the respondents chose to identify in greater detail the assessments in which it would be acceptable to cheat also matched those of Study 3. Key words reflecting the importance and size of assessments acted as mediators of acceptability. In fact, the key words indicated that the higher degree of severity attached to formal assessments (such as exams), may be moderated by language. Formal exams may be perceived as less important when described using words relating to size, for example, 'small'. Descriptions using size may *increase* the likelihood of cheating in such formal assessment than would otherwise 'normally' be the case. This suggests that the language used to describe cheating may be important. Indeed, teachers may be able to reduce cheating on coursework and homework by referring to such assessments using prefixes such as 'important' and 'major'.

Motivations were also present in proportions that were similar to Study 3. Understanding and effort were the major reasons for when cheating was acceptable. However, the use of friends in mediating the acceptability of cheating, a less frequently identified set in Study 3, was also less frequently accepted as a reason for cheating in the present study.

For the present group of respondents, it appeared that the pre-decisional reminders were of greater influence if they were angel arguments. Educational and philosophical statements relating to the purpose of education were agreed with by most participants as reasons for not cheating, as were the fear inducing statements. Of lesser impact were the devil arguments which were inducements to cheat. Whilst it was agreed that other people cheated in the respondents' school, they were not as likely to agree that if a person's friends cheated that the person would also cheat. In Study 4 (Chapter 6), it was identified that perceiving friends to cheat was a strong

predictor of self-reported cheating. It may be the case in the present study that the question was too broad. Had the question referred to specific instances of cheating in the same manner as Study 4, similar responses about friends would have been gained.

The pre-decisional reminder statements above indicated opinion positions which may or may not be acted upon when faced with a real life decision regarding cheating. The statements referred to cheating in the abstract. However, on the basis of the findings from other questions in the survey, there was a strong suggestion that the respondents themselves had cheated despite holding beliefs (as demonstrated by the anti-cheating perception promoted for these statements) about the importance of education and the risks involved in cheating.

The devil arguments were 'put in place' by the ambivalent respondents of Study 3. It is interesting to note therefore that the one ambivalent respondent in the current study, did not agree with the devil statements, preferring to align herself with the angel arguments.

The positive consequences of cheating, such as getting better marks, were strongly in evidence. The positive consequences of cheating was an outcome that was in evidence from the *inverted* statements of Study 5, but was held as a weaker component of the model for this reason. However, what was surprising was the extent to which work avoidance was listed as a benefit of cheating. In contrast, a greater proportion (but not a large proportion of the total) of respondents in Study 3 (Chapter 5) reported that cheating could help with learning. For the present respondents, this was perceived to be the least likely benefit. However, all the benefit options provided were used by respondents, suggesting that the positive consequences of cheating could be wide ranging. Perceptions across studies matched well for this category.

The negative consequences of cheating as evidenced by self injury and harming others replicated Study 3 well. The 'loudness' (or vehemence) of the voice that came across in Study 3 was echoed with these respondents. Findings such as cheating leading to the prevention of learning were unsurprisingly replicated. Of greater interest was the large proportion of respondents who described cheating as creating a false impression of self-ability and the perception that cheating could be addictive. The harm cheating was perceived to cause to others was less clear in comparison. Two statements referred to the cheater not causing harm to the victim. There was less agreement that cheating was a personal injury or that the cheater was being unfair to the victim when they cheated. Whilst these statements may have been harder to parse (because combined with the response format, they appeared as double negatives), it may be the case the respondents felt that cheating was an action directed at 'something general' rather than an activity

specifically designed to cause harm to individuals, even if, as clearly demonstrated by the other statements in this section, the effects of cheating did impact of other people.

The personality characteristics (profile) of the cheater as defined by the respondents formed a neat pattern from non-cheater, through occasional cheating to the frequent cheater. The non-cheater was perceived to be hard working and confident. The move from non-cheater to frequent cheating saw the introduction of increasingly negative and condemnatory adjectives. The frequent cheater was lazy, untrustworthy and not very clever. It is probable that the picture identified by respondents is an heuristic. If respondents were asked to describe their own personality characteristics and have those matched against their own cheating behaviour, it is highly likely that the relationship would be negative. However, how the cheater is seen by others is an important aspect of the perceptions of cheating as was discussed at some length in the introduction to Study 3. If the cheater is perceived in such a negative light, then the lengths to which they will go to excuse and rationalise their cheating to make themselves look better is more understandable.

Methods of preventing cheating were rarely mentioned in Study 3. They were divided into preventions 'implemented by important others', learning helps and punishments. In keeping with the strongly held perceptions about the negative consequences of cheating, punishments were perceived to be the best prevention methods. Ahead of externally imposed preventions was a learning aid such as knowing what would come up in the test and the status of the test (very important). However, it is arguable that knowing what would come up in the test is a method of work avoidance or a method of guaranteed pass rates! Respondents were less sure that being able to talk to someone about exam stress would prevent cheating. This was interesting because some respondents in Study 3 reported that cheating was unnecessary in 'schools today' because such stress outlets were readily available. Perhaps these respondents' schools did not have them or the respondents were unaware of them. Alternatively the respondents may have appreciated that talking about stresses cannot make up for the hard work required for revision. It was the older respondents in particular who were more wary of this form of cheating prevention.

There appeared to be an age related trend towards older respondents perceiving fewer cheating interventions to be effective. If this trend can be identified in future studies it may provide support for the age differences reported in respondent types in Study 3. Respondents in Study 3 relied less frequently on arguments relating to the moral and educational benefits of not cheating as they got older. These older students were perhaps more cynical in their perceptions of

cheating. In the present study, cynicism may also have been demonstrated by older students who were more doubtful about the efficacy of positive interventions to prevent cheating.

Finally, the type of respondent as classified by the grouping set out in the decision model was assessed for 'understanding'. With 20 respondents it is hard to match proportions across four groups. However, the trend found in Study 3 was evident in the present study. There were more respondents who felt cheating to be wrong than were ambivalent towards cheating. Of those respondents describing cheating as wrong, most felt cheating was wrong because of the negative consequences associated with it. Fewer felt it was wrong because of a mixture of educational damage caused and negative consequences and fewer still felt it was wrong because of the educational damage it caused alone. It is possible that the wording of the statement reflecting ambivalence towards cheating was not as socially acceptable as the other statements: 'cheating is wrong, but it can also be right depending on the reason for the cheating'. Perhaps using the words 'can become acceptable' in place of 'can also be right' would have produced different groupings of respondents.

It was not possible to conclude from these data whether participants responded according to the pathways set out in the decision model because there was no option included in the survey for respondents to choose to which items they responded (as was the case in the decision model). Perhaps if there had been a series of overall questions with statements such as 'do you believe that cheating is caused by factors outside of the cheater's control?' or 'do you think cheating can have positive consequences', then the pathways may have been created. However, this would have been at the expense of the detail in the model. For example, it is likely that few respondents would have agreed to a general statement about positive consequences of cheating, but when contextualised in the real situations, as was the case in the present study, positive consequences emerged in force. In the decision model respondents 'typically' went through a series of stages (usually sequentially) pre-determined by their group status. With a greater number of respondents, it may be possible to conclude that the respondent types have preferences for the different aspects of the model. However, as emphasised in Chapter 5 (Study 3), typical respondents were modelled who reflected the majority voice, indicating that even if a respondent held, for example, the view that cheating was *wrong*, they could at the same time use arguments held by the *ambivalent* respondents to make their case.

8.4.1 Using Study 6 to guide future research

The basic *structures* (the categories) of the decision model have been found to have understanding for the present group of respondents. However, the relationships between the individual categories have not been established. This is not to suggest that there were no relationships evident from these data. For example, respondents were asked to imagine that they were going to cheat on an assessment and to excuse the cheating behaviour and indicate positive and negative consequences of cheating. As each respondent was capable of imagining these events, the reality of such activities (pathways and relationships) needs to be assessed. The literature suggests that there are differences in perceptions towards cheating between intentions to cheat and actual cheating. Person and situational variables were called upon depending upon whether actual or intended (imagined) cheating was studied (e.g., Wang and Anderson, 1994; Whitley and Kost, 1999).

This study has demonstrated that respondents recognised the different types of respondent groups (ambivalent and wrong). These need to be tapped more accurately using finer measures. From these groupings, actual cheating behaviour data needs to be used to assess understanding of whether cheating is right or wrong. In the same way that Newstead et al (1996) were able to assess whether or not students had cheated and *why*, future research into the decision model needs to assess whether students have cheated and whether or not they felt that cheating to be *wrong*. Because the nature of cheating is so complicated, a method of assessing cheating behaviour with regard to right and wrong needs to allow respondents the freedom to choose a series of explanations. The series of explanations given by respondents in Study 3 were woven into the decision model, something which was far more complicated and grounded than a series of reasons for or for not cheating.

8.4.2 Summary

Study 6 was an attempt to assess the quality of the decision model using triangulation techniques. The structure of the model was found to have resonance with a new sample of adolescents. It was a preliminary test of the model designed to guide future research and as such the study had limitations. For example, the sample size was insufficient to enable anything but tentative conclusions to be drawn and the depth of the study was superficial, assessing only the structure which held the model together. The substance of the model has yet to be tested.

Nevertheless the study does contain important strengths. Firstly and foremostly, support was given for the two categories described in Study 3 as hypothetical or *in potentia*. Respondents in the present study clearly indicated that cheating had positive consequences and that they held in their mind a set of personality characteristics associated with cheaters. A profile of a non-cheater also clearly emerged. This was not forthcoming from the Study 3 data, but was hypothesised to exist if re-sampling occurred.

In addition, all of the categories were recognised by respondents in approximately similar proportions to those given in Study 3. This is an important indication of the reliability of the model. Whilst the methodology employed precludes claims relating to fit, generality and control (the three other goodness of fit tests set out by Strauss and Corbin, 1990), the indications of 'understanding' are clearly evident. Realities, it would appear, have been matched.

In light of these criticisms *and* encouraging findings, this study could be treated as a pilot study for future research into the decision model of cheating.

9

...or it could be
that you didn't
cheat....



TES 25/5/01

What factors affect cheating in secondary school and why?

9.1 Introduction

The aim of this thesis was to use four general questions to produce an answer to the question 'what factors affect cheating in secondary school and why?'. In order to answer this question, it was first necessary to peel back the layers of cheating and ascertain what it was that secondary school students perceived cheating to be. In Chapter 1, cheating research pertaining to the constituents of cheating was examined and found wanting. Studies which investigated cheating were based on assumptions regarding cheating that on closer inspection were found to be biased, unreliable or invalid. In addition the studies were largely North American and based in the tertiary education sector. No research was identified that related to the British secondary school population.

Methodological weaknesses were identified such as using staff perceptions of cheating to develop measures of student cheating. The problem of studying cheating from a single behaviour, single issue perspective was also highlighted. The course of action that was therefore taken to remedy the knowledge gap regarding British secondary schools was to 'start again'. To examine cheating from the building blocks upwards. The research described in this thesis was based on a bottom up approach that used multiple perspectives and methodologies to investigate cheating in a previously un-investigated population. In all 992 adolescents, parents and teachers played a part

in the investigation of the questions set out in this thesis. The number of participants exceeded well over 1000, when advisors, pilot study participants and 'discarded data' were taken into account.

9.1.1 The four questions

From the outset of this thesis, assumptions regarding secondary school cheating were not made. There were no previous British studies to indicate what factors influenced secondary school student cheating. Therefore the target population, adolescents, were invited to discuss what they felt cheating to be and how they perceived cheating to be influenced by the educational environment. These discussions were presented in Chapter 3 (Study 1). At the close of Chapter 3, four questions had been identified that were sub-components of the main question 'what factors influence cheating in secondary school and why?'.

To begin with it was felt important to gain a fuller understanding of the question 'what is cheating?'. Following on from this was the second question, 'when is it wrong to cheat?'. Thirdly, the role of the parents was perceived to be an important and much overlooked influence of student cheating; 'what role do parents play?'. Fourthly and finally, it was evidenced from the focus group participants that they viewed teachers as partly responsible for student cheating. It was therefore felt important to ask the question 'how do teachers perceive cheating compared with students?'.

These questions investigated cheating from four very different perspectives. However, there were also obvious regions of overlap. These regions of overlap served as cross-reference points between the questions to ensure that findings from one study were supported by the findings of another. Triangulation within and between methods was used in order that firm foundations regarding student cheating in British secondary schools could be claimed. In particular, Studies 2 and 3 served as reference points for much of the triangulation.

Each question is discussed in turn, with a brief re-cap of what (if anything) was known about the aspect of cheating preceding the summary of findings. The findings are summarised initially according to the focal study of each question and then according to the supporting evidence obtained from the other studies for that question.

9.1.2 What is cheating?

The answer to the question 'what is cheating?' was generally measured by researchers using consensus gathering techniques. For example, McLaughlin and Ross (1989) asked

respondents to say on a scale of 'not cheating' to 'very severe cheating', where a series of pre-written behaviours lay. Very few researchers asked students to generate their own list of cheating behaviours (Davis et al 1992) and those that did clustered the data using simple content analysis techniques. The participants of the focus groups in Study 1 recognised many (but not all) of the behaviours in a list deemed to be cheating by British undergraduates. Cheating behaviours were observed to vary in the extent to which they were perceived to 'be cheating'. Behaviours were found to vary in the degree of 'cheatingness' along the continua of wrongness and severity. These differences were possibly due to the situation.

In Study 2, secondary school students were therefore asked to list the items that they perceived to be cheating in school and to rank those items according to severity. From these data, a four-dimensional model of cheating was developed. The model extended the understanding of 'what is cheating?' beyond the parameters of the researcher-based understanding of cheating and perceptions of severity. The four dimensions of the model referred to the cheating behaviours, the temporal relationship of the behaviours to the assessment event in which the cheating took place, the particular assessment situation associated with the behaviour and the severity of the behaviours in relation to the assessment event. Three of the four dimensions were situation-dependent, the situation being the assessment event. The model was referred to as dimensional because the four aspects of the model were interrelated and the model was only fully interpretable when the factors were considered together.

Perhaps the most useful way in which the model could be used would be to begin with an assessment event and identify what behaviours students considered to constitute cheating in such a situation. It would then be a simple matter to identify the severity of the isolated behaviours and the time period around the assessment event in which the behaviour was most likely to be perpetrated. Identifying when the behaviours would be perpetrated would enable preventative action to be taken. It would also be possible (in conjunction with evidence from the literature and the subsequent studies of the thesis) to determine the serious from less serious behaviours which in turn may indicate those behaviours that would be most frequently and least frequently perpetrated by students.

To begin with the behaviours, nine groups were identified as comprising academic forms of cheating. These were comparable to those given in the literature (e.g., Evans and Craig, 1990).

The second, temporal component of the model was a departure from the received wisdom regarding 'what is cheating?'. Researchers have not identified the *when* of cheating or seen it as

important. However, in order to fully understand the situation in which the cheating behaviour is placed, *when* it takes place is important. For example, much cheating on homework occurs *after* the assessment event (the deadline being 'by the time the student returns to school'). This suggests that parental involvement in monitoring learning (and thus cheating) is important. The temporal component of the model alone indicates very strongly that to date cheating has been studied in isolation from the educational environment. What is the point of knowing which behaviours constitute cheating if that knowledge cannot be applied to improving the learning environment of students? The data must be allowed to provide a fuller story, as was the case in Study 2.

Thirdly, the model of cheating that was developed, firmly grounded the *situation* as an important component in the answer to the question 'what is cheating?'. Comparisons between studies where consensus data have been employed have been problematic because different situations were used to portray the same behaviours. What students regarded as cheating in one study was not necessarily equivalent with what students referred to as cheating in another. Researchers tended to avoid referring to the situation as a component of cheating because it complicated otherwise clear cut results. At best, researchers such as Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995) reported that exam related behaviours were perceived as more serious forms of cheating than coursework related behaviours. Indeed it was the severity component of the data in Study 2 which came to the fore in subsequent studies. Five assessment situations were identified by respondents as situations in which they perceived cheating to take place. These were exams, tests, classwork and homework (incorporating coursework). The fifth assessment event was a general capture-all category, used to place the behaviours that were described without reference to a situation. Very little cheating information regarding the assessment events of homework and classwork was found in the literature. Indeed more information was forthcoming about the impact of homework on learning (e.g., Cooper et al 1998) and how students learned best in the classroom environment (Harris et al 1995) with regard to work avoidance tactics (Sierfert and O'Keefe, 2001). Perhaps because homework and class-based activities are not perceived as important assessment events, they have been largely overlooked in both the British and American cheating literature. However, here is clear evidence that students appreciated that cheating does occur in these situations (and as the next question demonstrates, cheating in such situations was perceived by some respondents to be very wrong). Further, the size of the capture-all category (the largest) suggested that a far wider range of behaviours referred to the everyday work environment in

particular. Behaviours placed in the capture-all category mostly referred to 'work'. 'Work' usually referred to classwork. In exams and tests, 'work' takes on a special status and was usually described using language reserved for such situations.

An indication of the frequency with which the different assessment-event-cheating was perpetrated was given by adolescent respondents in Study 4. Homework cheating behaviours were perceived to occur significantly more frequently than other types of situationally dependent cheating behaviours. Exams and tests were perceived to be the most serious situations in which cheating took place. Homework and the capture-all situations followed in equal third place. Classwork was perceived to be the least serious form of cheating. Research by Newstead and Franklyn-Stokes (1995) suggested that the least seriously perceived behaviours were those that were perpetrated most frequently. The capture-all category assessment event may well have extensively referred to class based cheating as it was second after classwork itself in terms of the least seriously perceived assessment event.

However, this severity-frequency relationship was not demonstrated by the respondents in Study 2. The most frequently reported behaviour group (active copying) was sixth in severity, whilst the second most frequently reported behaviour group (unauthorised materials) was first in severity. This suggests that the study of 'what is cheating?' needs to take into account the differences between what students know to be cheating and what they actually do when faced with a real cheating situation. Researcher generated lists of behaviours have perhaps tested to a greater extent what students *know* about cheating in comparison to the respondents in Study 2, who generated their own lists and severity responses.

Indeed, researcher generated lists of cheating behaviours were demonstrated by the respondents in Study 2 not to be ecologically valid. It is clear that a description of student cheating needs to include references to the wider educational environment. Whilst nine academic cheating behaviour groups were generated by students, over 15% of the total number of items related to non-academic forms of cheating in school, constituting a further three behaviour groups.

The parental perspective on the severity and acceptability of cheating behaviours was also investigated. This is the first study known to the researcher to have investigated parental perceptions of cheating. Parents were asked to rate how serious and acceptable they perceived 30 behaviours to be. The behaviours had been generated from the focus groups of Study 1 and those given in Study 2. Parents rated most of the behaviours as more serious and less acceptable than less serious and more acceptable. Measures of acceptability have not been gathered by

researchers and it was surprising to find that parents viewed 22 of the 30 behaviours as more unacceptable than they were severe. Unacceptability in this instance was an indirect measure of whether or not the parent respondents perceived the behaviour to constitute cheating. All of the behaviours were considered to be unacceptable and of those behaviours where acceptability was slightly higher than severity (8), they related to homework behaviours and those where the parents acted as an accomplice in the cheating with or for the child.

Parents may communicate to their children information regarding how to decide when a behaviour is or is not cheating. Parental perceptions of severity were found to be a predictor of a measure of self-reported cheating (how like the adolescent respondent was to the characters in the scenarios). The lower the parent severity score was reported to be the greater the level of child-scenario concordance (the child reported that they were 'like' the character in the scenario). This trend was evident across many of the behaviours. Where parental reports of severity were very high, adolescents' self-reports were very low.

In Study 5 teachers were asked to consider the behaviour groups generated by the respondents in Study 2. All of the behaviours listed for the teachers were considered by at least some teachers to constitute cheating, including two behaviours which were classed as non-academic forms of cheating. This finding adds validity to the notion that perceptions of cheating in secondary school need to incorporate the wider educational environment.

The teachers who participated in Study 5 also provided support for other aspects of the four-dimensional model of cheating. For example, the teachers indicated that they perceived formal assessment events (exams and coursework) to be associated with more serious forms of cheating than informal assessment events such as homework and classwork. They also indicated that they perceived homework and classwork cheating to be perpetrated more frequently than cheating associated with tests and exams. The relationship between perception of cheating and severity reported by teachers was found to be more linear than the relationship reported by student respondents. The greater severity with which teachers perceived a behaviour to be, the more likely they were to perceive it to be cheating. However, this relationship was not as strong as those reported in the literature, and as will be discussed under the subsequent question heading, the strength of the relationship may have been weaker for the teachers in Study 5 because the wider educational environment was a factor in the calculation of severity and consensus.

Further, whilst the relationship between severity and consensus demonstrated linearity, the behaviours which were perceived to be the most serious by teachers were not those that were

perceived to be the most serious by students. Teachers perceived the post-assessment tactic of changing answers to be the most serious behaviour type, whilst students perceived the use of unauthorised materials to be the most serious form of behaviour. This suggests that perceptions of cheating between teachers and students, whilst demonstrating a degree of between-group consensus also demonstrates perceptual differences. It is possible that the findings relating to teachers' perceptions of severity and consensus have greater similarity with those given in the literature (Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead, 1995), because teachers are adults with the same (or similar) levels of cognitive development as undergraduates.

These investigations into 'what is cheating?', have made the answer at least become a little clearer. Cheating is comprised of a range of behaviours that are perpetrated in association with a range of assessment events or in some cases in association with particular assessment events. What cheating is must also take into account perceptions of severity and the age of the students. Younger students of secondary school age referred extensively to non-academic behaviours in their descriptions of cheating behaviours. A temporal component regarding cheating behaviours also needs to be factored into an understanding of cheating in order that the information regarding the constituents of cheating can be applied to the wider educational environment. Finally, the application of students' understanding of cheating should be discussed in the light of how authority figures such as parents and teachers perceive cheating.

The answer to question 1, 'what is cheating?' appears to have been quite straightforward, however, individual differences have yet to be taken into account. It is probable, as will be discussed in more depth later, that definitions of cheating can be manufactured to account for the 'average student', but that more individualised explanations of the composition of cheating are preferable. Whilst no gender differences in the perception of what constitutes cheating were found, there were considerable differences relating to the ages of students. For example, younger students were more likely to generate cheating behaviours that referred to looking at other people's work than older students. This suggested that the language which students used to describe cheating and perhaps understand cheating was age dependent. Teachers were found to ascribe differing levels of consensus of what were cheating behaviours depending upon the age and ability of the students. Behaviours were more likely to be considered cheating by teachers when considering older students and more able students. This may indicate that teachers were aware of the difference in comprehension of students of different ages or that they expected less conservative academic conduct of younger and less able students.

Comprehension of what constitutes cheating may also be dependent upon experience. Older students reported that they were more like characters in a range of cheating scenarios over a wider range of behaviours, than younger students. The pivotal year appeared to be year 9. It was in year 9 where the change in the generation of the behaviour types occurred, with some behaviours being generated in numbers similar to those of years 7 and 8 and some behaviours generated in numbers similar to those in years 10 and 11. Regarding the range of cheating behaviours, years 9, 10 and 11 were reported to behave like cheaters significantly more than years 7 and 8. Further teachers were less likely to rate behaviours as cheating for year 7 students than year 9 students and more likely to rate the behaviours as cheating for year 11 students than year 9 students. Teachers also perceived cheating to progressively increase in frequency from year 7 to 11, with year 11 perceived to cheat the most.

Therefore in conclusion, what cheating is depends on individual differences in perceptions (by students and teachers), particularly those related to age. However, whether or not cheating is perceived to be wrong also impacts on perceptions of cheating.

9.1.3 When is it wrong to cheat?

'When is it wrong to cheat?' was a question posed at the end of Chapter 3 because some focus group respondents indicated that cheating was not necessarily wrong. Wrongness and severity were the two continua that were used by focus group respondents to indicate whether or not a behaviour was perceived to be cheating. It was not clear how a behaviour moved from being not cheating to being cheating with varying degrees of severity or 'wrongness' attached. Therefore instead of assuming that there were right and wrong occasions for cheating, students were asked a more fundamental question, 'is cheating in school wrong?'. The answer to this question has implications for the answer to the question 'what is cheating?'

Clarity on the issue of cheating as 'wrong' was not forthcoming from the literature. No research has been conducted that highlights how students deal with whether cheating is perceived to be right or wrong. Researchers have investigated the acceptability of cheating that has been committed by others (Whitley and Kost, 1998) and whether or not different reasons are used to excuse cheating by different groups of people (Wang and Anderson, 1994). Reasons for cheating (Newstead et al 1996) and frameworks for exploring reasons given for cheating have also been investigated (Haines, Diekhoff, Labeff and Clarke, 1986).

Students in Study 3 reported perceiving cheating to be either totally wrong or partially acceptable. Using grounded theory, a model was developed as a framework for containing how students decided whether or not cheating was wrong. This model was called the 'decision model'. Students who referred to cheating as totally wrong tended to employ negative consequences when explaining why they felt cheating was wrong. These negative consequences were mostly person-centred, referring to the cheater as victim and others as victims. Those students who were ambivalent towards cheating used situationally based reasons for explaining why cheating could be acceptable.

As with the previous question, the research findings have stretched the boundaries of understanding regarding student cheating. Students used a wide range of statements and arguments to explain why (if) they felt cheating to be wrong. Of prime importance were the pre-decisional factors that respondents took into account when making their decision and the post-decisional factors, called 'victim impact statements'.

Victim impact statements (and indeed, most of the statements used by the respondents who perceived cheating to be wrong) were very negative. Cheating was seen as having no benefits emotionally or educationally. Cheaters were perceived to harm others by taking away, amongst other things, a sense of effort and achievement. Cheaters were also perceived to harm themselves by preventing themselves from learning and getting into all sorts of trouble, which included, for example, being set work that was too hard. The cheater was perceived in very negative and often derogatory terms. The cheater as a victim has very rarely been identified in the literature (McCabe, 1992), yet in the decision model it was a very clear perception of cheating that was precisely formulated by respondents. Support for the validity of the victim impact statements came from two quarters. The focus group participants strongly echoed negative consequences such as work that was too hard and in the follow-up study (Study 6), the negative consequences of cheating were an aspect of cheating about which respondents were almost totally united. Further, in Study 6, perceptions of the personality characteristics of the cheater and the non-cheater were dramatically different. The cheater was perceived using the negative descriptions such as lazy and unconfident, whilst the non-cheater was perceived with almost angelic qualities using the descriptors such as hard working and confident.

As mentioned earlier, students who were ambivalent towards cheating tended to refer to pre-decisional factors when explaining why cheating could sometimes be right. Pre-decisional factors included aspects of cheating such as the assessment event and the motivation for cheating.

Measures of wrongness and severity were found to overlap between studies. Students reported similar situational influences to those students who were asked to rank the severity of self-generated cheating behaviours (Study 2). Cheating was reported to be 'less wrong' if it was committed in assessment events that involved homework and classwork compared to the public exam arena. This was in keeping with the four-dimensional model of cheating. However, a further layer was added to this situational component when the assessment event was investigated more closely. There were several characteristics of the assessment that respondents referred to in order to indicate what it was about the assessment event that made the cheating right or wrong (and thus moved the assessment event along the severity/wrongness continua). Key words such as 'small' and 'important' indicated when cheating could be more or less acceptable. In Study 6, respondents reported that if they had to choose when to cheat, they would do so on assessment events that were described using words such as 'small', 'minor' and 'unrecorded' above assessment events described using words such as 'important' and 'big'. Thus, a 'minor exam' was more likely to involve cheating than an 'important homework'. Once again, the importance of the wider educational environment was demonstrated. Students' comprehension of their learning environment may be very important for indicating when cheating is likely to occur. Siefert and O'Keefe (2001) reported that work avoidance goals were pursued when students did not understand or could not see the meaning behind their studies. Words such as 'big' and 'important' may also be indicators for when work avoidance may or may not be appropriate.

However, understanding and effort were reported by respondents in Study 3 to be important in their decision regarding whether or not cheating was wrong. Cheating was perceived to be far more acceptable if the cheater had made an attempt to understand the work or better still understood the work and was just avoiding effort. Laziness on the other hand (which was different to avoiding effort when understanding was demonstrated) was far less acceptable.

Some respondents who were ambivalent towards cheating also reported that cheating had positive consequences. Whilst this finding makes intuitive sense (much research has reported that undergraduates cheat to get better grades, e.g., Stevens and Stevens, 1987), support for this was limited in the data from Study 3. Study 6 however, indicated that the perception that cheating was beneficial was far more prevalent than reported in Study 3 (Chapter 5). Study 6 respondents reported that cheating could indeed increase the mark and obtain the cheater a higher ability setting. However, cheating was not perceived to be an effective learning strategy, even if it was an effective work avoidance strategy.

A slightly different method of measuring whether or not cheating was perceived to be wrong was used in Study 4. Students were asked to report how like themselves, their friends and the people in their class, characters in a series of cheating scenarios were perceived to be. The scenarios described a cheating behaviour and a reason for the cheating. When the reason for the cheating in the scenarios was studied, respondents in Study 4 reported that they would be most like the characters in the scenario if the reasons were that the cheating was opportunistic, that cheating had occurred through laziness (work avoidance) or there was a perception that 'everybody does it'. These reasons appear to contradict the findings of the decision model in Study 3 (where such reasons were less likely to be given as causes for cheating). It may well be therefore that students in Study 3 presented a sanitised version of cheating that underplayed laziness and work avoidance.

However, it should be remembered that no information was gathered regarding whether or not the respondents in Study 4 felt the cheating in the scenarios to be wrong, only that they would cheat more when the above reasons were given. Understanding and effort were not explicitly sampled as reasons for cheating and comparisons may be unwise.

In addition, for opportunity, laziness and everybody does it as reasons, no distinction was made between the perceived cheating intentions of the self, friends and classmates. The literature is clear about one thing, the perceptions of other cheaters are different to those regarding the self (Stevens, 1984). The self is perceived as far more ethical than the peer group.

Parental perceptions of whether or not cheating was wrong have largely been covered under the umbrella of the previous question. However, the previous question and the present question are related. Parents were asked to report how acceptable and serious they perceived cheating behaviours to be. The reason for requesting information about acceptability *and* severity was so that the reason for cheating could be examined as well as the cheating behaviour itself. Whereas students reported the greatest amount of cheating to probably occur when the reason was opportunistic cheating, parents were significantly more likely to report this reason being more unacceptable than severe, perhaps morally reprehensible (e.g., finding an essay on a computer, printing it off and handing it in as the student's own work). The same pattern applied to reasons for cheating that were excused as revision tactics (e.g., choosing where to sit in exams in order to be able to spy on the clever students). Whilst severity was reported earlier to be a predictor of probable student cheating, acceptability was not found to be a predictor of cheating. This suggested that whilst adolescents shared some of their perceptions of severity with parents,

notions of acceptable behaviour may not have been so closely governed by the parents and a shared understanding may not exist regarding such matters of conduct. Evidence for this suggestion was found in the measures of parental style obtained for parents and their children. The parental version of the parental scale contained a factor in which respondents reported wanting to maintain control over their child at school. The adolescent version of the parental scale contained a factor more heavily used by respondents which identified autonomy from parents whilst at school.

As with the previous research question, both teachers and parents had something to offer the debate. Teachers were asked whether or not they thought cheating in school was wrong. Like the student respondents, some teachers perceived cheating to be totally unacceptable, some perceived cheating to be wrong if there were negative consequences associated with it and some reported cheating to be acceptable if the right learning conditions were present. The similarity between teacher and student perceptions on a macro level were surprising. Teachers perceiving cheating to be wrong was an expected outcome. However, teachers suggesting the cheating could be acceptable was a departure from the literature (apart from the lone voice of Davis, 1992, who perceived cheating to be a good way to encourage collaboration in readiness for the work place). This was probably because teachers had not been requested by researchers to do anything other than tick which behaviours they perceived to be cheating. Perceptions about whether they viewed cheating to be wrong have not been investigated.

In summary therefore, whether or not students perceived cheating to be wrong included situational and person based factors. Students who perceived cheating to be wrong suggested that it was wrong because of 'after the fact' consequences (mainly impacting on people). Students who perceived that cheating could be right relied extensively on exploring the cheating situation and motivations or reasons for cheating.

Once again, however, individual differences contributed another layer of complexity to the study of student cheating. Gender and age differences were apparent with regard to the decision model of cheating. Older female students were more likely to report ambivalence towards cheating. Of those students who reported cheating to be wrong, older students were less likely to rely on an anti-cheating philosophy, preferring to 'cut to the chase' and discuss cheating from the perspective of it causing negative consequences. Again, the change in perception for the respondents who perceived cheating to be wrong was around year 9. It may be that students younger than those in year 9 adhered to the received wisdom of authority figures in reporting that

cheating is wrong (because, amongst other things, it denies the cheater of an education). Older students have gained a wider experience of 'cheating opportunities' (assessment events) and may have dropped philosophical explanations of cheating in place of explanations that have resonance with their world view (you are either caught or you are not).

9.1.4 What role do parents play?

The role of parents in student cheating has received little or no direct coverage in the literature. Evidence for the *potential* for parents to influence cheating abounds. Students have repeatedly cited parents as a source of academic pressure leading to cheating (Schab, 1991) as have teachers (Gay, 1990), but these instances referred to only one question involving perceptions of the role of parents. It was to this end that a measure of parental academic pressures in the form of a parental styles scale was developed, because there were none in existence in the literature. Researchers such as Amato (1990) have suggested that parental styles can be reduced to measures of support and control. Parent-child dyads were respondents in the construction of the parental styles scale with the result that two scales each with four corresponding factors were developed. The strongest factor of both scales related to academic achievement. However, no measures of parental style were found to impact on levels of self-reported probable cheating or on measures of exam anxiety.

However, whilst this result was disappointing, further evidence was available to indicate other possible sources of influence by parents regarding cheating. The parents in Study 4 (Chapter 6) were found to be in tune with their child's educational progress. The home-school link was found to be important for these parents and parents reported a high degree of involvement in their child's schooling. Further, cheating for the same parents was found (as reported above) to be more acceptable if the behaviours related to homework and to the parent acting as an accomplice. For the respondents in this study, academic pressures may have been tempered or alleviated by parental acceptance of help with homework as 'not cheating'. Indeed, teachers perceived that parents taking an interest in their child's homework would be a factor that would decrease student cheating.

However, parental pressures as a legitimate cause of cheating were cited by respondents in the follow-up study (Study 6) to the decision model and parental pressures were cited by teachers as reasons for an increase in cheating.

It may therefore appear that the role of parents in understanding cheating has not added much to existing knowledge. On the contrary. Evidence relating to perceptions of severity and acceptability outlined earlier is an un-explored area of the cheating literature, and is the (possibly first) systematic study of the academic pressures placed on adolescents by their parents. Whilst the findings relating to parental styles may be non-significant, academic achievement, the home-school link, methods of coping, independence and a sense of family were factors that emerged from the scale construction. It is probable that such factors have an important input into the understanding of cheating in the wider education environment.

9.1.5 How do teachers perceive cheating compared with students?

The role of teacher perceptions in student cheating has been extensively explored under the first two questions. However, there are some remaining questions regarding student cheating that can be better answered by teachers. For example, questions relating to long term increases and decreases in cheating cannot be answered effectively by students.

As with the previous questions, there was little research that related directly to the specific area under investigation. Teachers have rarely been the primary focus for cheating research. In general, teachers have been found to perceive cheating more severely than students (Evans and Craig, 1990) and to view cheating as occurring less frequently than students. More recently however, teachers have increasingly become the focus of the perpetration of cheating themselves (Gay, 1990).

Teachers in Study 5 reported that overall they did not perceive there to have been an increase or decrease in cheating whilst they had been practitioners. The length of experience accrued by many teachers in the sample was well over 10 years. Reasons for a lack of perceived change in the levels of cheating reflected the teachers' perception that they had not observed any changes during their practice.

However, teachers did report that they felt the pressures placed on students to achieve had increased student cheating. Further, other factors that were reported to possibly effect an increase in cheating by students, parents or teachers, were pressures directly imposed on the teachers from external sources such as managers and government policies (for example, over zealous performance management). On the other hand, teachers perceived that cheating would be decreased if help and support were provided to students in preparing for and taking assessments.

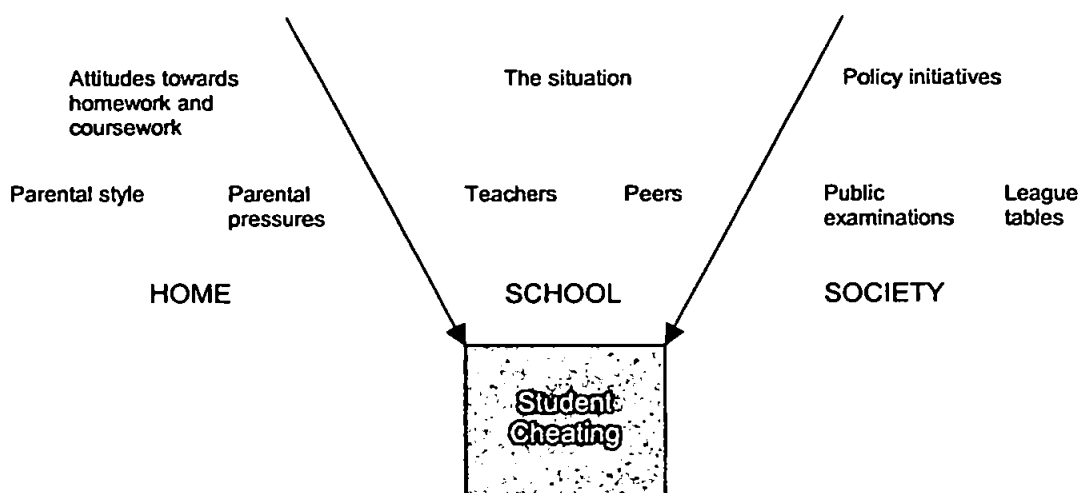
Whilst the other findings relating to the perceptions of teachers and cheating have been reported elsewhere in this chapter, it is worth re-emphasising some of the findings. Unlike previous research, there was not 100% consensus regarding any of the behaviours teachers were asked to rate. In addition, the behaviour where the teacher was depicted as providing more help than was necessary (teacher cheating) was broadly decreed not cheating. A linear relationship between consensus regarding cheating and perceived severity was reported under question 1 above. However, this relationship only held for teacher respondents who perceived cheating to be *wrong*. For those respondents who were ambivalent towards cheating, severity was not found to increase with greater consensus that a behaviour was cheating.

A substantial minority of teachers were also aware of the role that the teaching profession played in increasing and decreasing cheating. For example, lax assessment invigilation and unfair assessments were cited as factors likely to increase cheating, whilst strict monitoring of assessments was perceived to decrease cheating.

In summary, the role that teachers have to play in cheating is potentially an important one. Whilst students and teachers share perceptual similarities regarding the severity of assessment events, individual behaviours may be perceived differently, especially for younger and less able students. Teachers perceived the relationship between the severity of a behaviour and whether or not the behaviour constituted cheating according to whether or not they believed cheating to be wrong.

9.1.6 Factors that influence cheating

The four questions that arose from the focus groups have now been answered. Each question has gone some way to answering the title question of this thesis, 'what factors influence cheating and why?'. However, in order to fully appreciate the answers to the four questions, the wider educational environment needs to be examined. Three sources of data were sampled in order to answer the questions (students, parents and teachers) and in turn, three sources of factors have been identified that draw the answers together; the home, the school and society (see figure 9.1.1).

Figure 9.1.1. Factors influencing student cheating**(a) The home**

The home environment has not received a great deal of attention regarding cheating. This may not be surprising as much of the cheating literature is focused upon undergraduates who live away from home and beyond the care of the parents. However, the role of parents has taken on greater importance with each change in secondary educational policy.

Whilst parental *styles* were not found to be related to cheating through academic pressures, the presence of parental *pressures* and cheating were indicated by both students and teachers as being important causes of cheating.

From where may these pressures originate? One clear source of pressure that parents may feel begins in primary school. Pressures are on parents to get their child into the best secondary schools which may involve the child sitting the 11+. Children may feel immensely pressured to do their best. Pressures from parents need not be overt. Special tuition for the assessments may be encouraged, a signal to the child that the assessment is important. If the child fails, the local education authority can opt (and frequently does) to send the child to a school outside of the home catchment area that may well have a less favourable academic reputation.

Pressure for grades, whilst it may not solely come from the home, may originate in school and transfer to the home in the guise of cheating. The evidence gathered from parents in this thesis suggests that they are more than prepared to help with homework, be it formal (coursework) or not, and may even help their child through exams by providing an alibi to get them extra time to

revise for a test or exam. Phoning the school to say a child is sick when in fact they have exam anxiety was reported by parents to be an acceptable act in the circumstances.

Homework related cheating behaviours were reported to have resonance for students above other assessment events. Teachers sanctioned help from friends and family as an acceptable method of completing assigned work. They perceived that coursework (project work completed independently and often at home) was one of the assessment events most likely to be associated with cheating. However, teachers also perceived that parental involvement in school work would reduce cheating. The evidence suggests not. On the one hand, parental help with coursework is probably more prevalent than teachers would like. On the other hand, home-school links have been the goal of some educational reformers in recent years. Involving parents in their children's schooling may improve discipline and academic performance. But, whether or not students welcome this move or see it as an added pressure is unknown. The independence factor of the adolescent parental scale developed in Study 4 suggested that students wanted nothing more than to distance themselves from their parents whilst at school.

Fear of failure was the primary reason given by teachers as a cause of student cheating along with poor time management and pressures from peers, more so than parental pressures. Fear of failure can be linked to many things, including parental pressures and the number and type of assessments that students are expected to sit. However, poor time management may also have origins at home and at school. The parent-child dyads in Study 4 reported that homework was something that was quite strictly controlled and monitored by the parents (in a supportive way), suggesting that time management may not have been an issue for these adolescents. However, as teachers gave poor time management such a high priority, home and school factors were probably perceived to be an influence in the origins of time management skills for the students for whom the teachers in the study were responsible.

(b) The school

The school is a source of a great many factors influencing student cheating. This is of course primarily because school is the place where most cheating takes place. The teachers in Study 5 broadly accepted the role that practitioners can play in increasing and decreasing cheating through, for example, invigilation of assessments. However, some teachers recognised that they have a far more subtle role in influencing cheating. For some teachers, factors such as the contents of the assessment or the outcome of the assessment for ability streaming can be an

important factor. For example, as Evans and Craig (1990) identified, teachers who were perceived by students as unfair, were also perceived to have more cheating in their lessons. Students in this thesis who reported ambivalence towards cheating suggested that not understanding the material was a legitimate cause of cheating. This, according to Seifert and O'Keefe (2001) led to work avoidance which Anderman et al (1998) linked to cheating.

The situation that students find themselves in is potentially important. In Chapter 3 (Study 1) the role of the teacher in communicating acceptable and unacceptable behaviours to students was discussed. Harris et al (1995) reported that students learned most effectively if they had a 'map' of their learning environment demonstrating how the topics linked together to form a scaffold on which to hang the newly acquired information. Focus group participants reported using a different behavioural repertoire for each teacher that depended upon the teacher, the ability group and the age of the student. In Study 5, support was found for the different expectations that teachers have of students. Older students were treated more conservatively regarding acceptable cheating behaviours than younger students, similarly higher ability students were treated more conservatively than lower ability students.

This behavioural profile that students may need to carry with them from lesson to lesson extends to the language of cheating. For younger students, behaviours that incorporate some form of 'looking' were more likely to be generated as a form of cheating behaviour. Looking at the work of others was the fourth most frequently generated academic cheating behaviour and was the second most seriously perceived. Teachers did not dismiss this behaviour as not cheating, but consensus regarding this behaviour and its severity was not total. This suggests that if students are unsure in their minds as to what constitutes cheating and encounter some teachers perceiving the behaviour to be cheating whilst encountering others who do not, communication issues are bound to arise. Students, as suggested in Chapter 3, may be on a variable interval schedule where reinforcement for work avoidance in the form of looking at the work of others, may be sanctioned just enough to prevent extinction and just enough to encourage generalisation. In addition to all of these signals, teachers reported that poor time management was a key factor perceived to effect an increase in cheating. Harris et al (1995) reported that for year 10 students at least, juggling GCSE subject revision with an increased coursework load led to serious demands requiring very skilled time management.

Other factors influencing cheating are the peer group. A very clear finding from the respondents in Study 4 was the role that friends and classmates had regarding cheating. The most

important predictor of a student's self-reported likeness to characters in a series of cheating scenarios was whether or not the respondents' friends were perceived to cheat. Unsurprisingly, respondents viewed themselves as being more ethical than their friends, who in turn were viewed as being more ethical than classmates. In Study 6, the belief was reported that 'other people', rather than the respondent cheated. It appears therefore that either the respondents in the present studies were all incredibly honest or there was a genuine mismatch between beliefs and actions. Whatever the case, normative beliefs, such as beliefs about the actions of peers have been found by several authors (e.g., Devries and Azjen, 1971) to be predictors of cheating.

(c) Society

Society has a role to play in influencing cheating. The role that society plays in influencing cheating most clearly manifests itself in the form of government policies, such as league tables and the importance placed by society on public examinations (including the SATs that comprise league table information).

This year (2001), the 17 year old students sitting their AS-levels will have been the first to be tested at 7, 11 and 14 and the first to fall victim of the post-16 reforms. The stresses and pressures placed on students in the increasingly assessment driven (and led) curriculum have been repeatedly covered in the Times Educational Supplement. For example:

'The test at 14, however is ingrained in his memory. "I was more worried about those than the AS-level exams. The results decided whether you went up or down and I was in the top group so I could only go down".' ('How it feels to be a human guinea-pig', Times Educational Supplement, 2001).

Year 9, when students are 14, may be a pivotal year with regards to cheating. Year 9 is the build up year to streaming for GCSEs. The stakes are obviously high. The research in this thesis has indicated that at this age, developmental changes may be taking place with regards to both the comprehension of cheating and the performance of cheating. Students were less inclined to view cheating as wrong because of moral or philosophical arguments. They were more likely to be concerned about being caught. As reported earlier, students in year 9 and above reported cheating more frequently and on a wider range of behaviours.

Other media articles of a similar nature have suggested that some students would rather get pregnant than face the pressures of exams ('Talkback', Times Educational Supplement, 'Friday', 2001) and that primary school children as young as six years old are losing sleep over prospective

SATs to be taken when they are seven ('Some children are losing sleep', Times Educational Supplement, 2001).

Despite knowing the importance of such formal examinations students reported that they were like characters in the cheating scenarios. Not one adolescent reported that they would not have behaved like at least one of the students in the scenarios. Further, peers were reported to cheat more than the self. Exams and tests were perceived by respondents in more than one study in this thesis to be more severely perceived than informal assessments such as homework and classwork. However, the language respondents used indicated that if the conditions were right (the exam was small, or unrecorded, for example), then they would still cheat. Indeed, coursework, an important component of formal examinations, was reported by teachers to be the second most frequently cheated upon assessment event.

Teachers too felt pressures on them existed that may have effected an increase in cheating. They acknowledged that modern schooling was likely to cause additional pressures on students which may lead to cheating. They also acknowledged that pressures placed on themselves in specific ways would lead to an increase in cheating (by either students, parents, or teachers themselves). Teachers felt that if more pressures were placed on them in the form of performance targets published in league tables, then cheating would increase. The Welsh National Assembly ceased to publish league tables in July, 2001. It was argued that parents rarely relied on league table performance when choosing their child's school. However, league tables are not being outlawed in Wales. League table information will continue to be published in school prospectii. Further, from this coming academic year, information about the value added by schools to student performance will be included. Methods of 'divining' value added are derived from aptitude tests similar in style to SATs. This means that in effect there has been an increase in student testing. What lengths teachers will go to gain the targets they need is unknown. Again, the media and researchers such as Gay (1990) have provided useful examples of teacher cheating. Performance management, a relatively new government initiative was perceived by teachers, if used to improve pass rates, to increase the likelihood of cheating. Further one teacher reported that some students were wise to teachers' weaknesses and suggested that a factor influencing cheating was the students' knowledge that they could apply pressure on the teachers not to fail them. Indeed, when the researcher was a teacher in a secondary school, more than once the opinion that student failures were down to poor teaching, was heard to come from the students themselves.

The research in this thesis had produced a wealth of rich data from sources previously untapped and like any good piece of research has raised even more questions than it has answered. Before addressing these, the limitations of the studies will be discussed.

9.2 Limitations of the thesis

The findings resulting from the research presented in this thesis have expanded current knowledge on student cheating to include many new issues relating to the secondary school age group. However, as with all research, time must be taken to step back and evaluate those findings from a critical and objective standpoint.

The evaluation of this thesis is separated into three parts. Firstly there is an evaluation of methodological factors. Secondly there is an evaluation of the conceptual arguments formulated from the research findings and finally a discussion of the attempts to define cheating.

(a) Methodological factors

(i) Sampling

Sampling issues revolve around *how many* people were sampled *who* it was that was sampled and *what* it was that was sampled.

Nearly 1000 participants is impressive. However, the methodologies employed for *each* study all required (for maximum reliability and validity), that the populations be re-sampled. For example, the focus groups were small to begin with and whilst the findings were used as a springboard for the remaining studies in the thesis, re-sampling would have enabled a greater number of probing questions to be asked. Such questions may have provided greater details relating to the wider education issues that have emerged as being so important in interpreting the findings of this thesis.

In the focus group study (Study 1), Study 2 *and* the study in which perceptions of cheating were gathered essay-style (Study 3), the male voice was under-represented.

Males were not particularly forthcoming in their views regarding cheating and although there were exceptions (for example, the two chatty year 7 Scouts), none of these three designs captured adequately the male perspective. Male respondent numbers were equal to those of their female peers regarding the questionnaire (Study 4) and survey study (Study 6). Whilst not surprising because of the nature of the tasks (tick boxes), it was still very encouraging to find.

Gathering male responses was therefore easier with survey instruments. However, these instruments serve a purpose that is different from those of the initial information gathering tools which relied on qualitative data.

The lack of male 'voices' was compounded by the lack of older respondents. The male year 11 student in this thesis was a rare breed as indeed was the female year 11 student. The structure of years 10 and 11 has made students' timetables full of very important work, leaving little time for researchers to conduct in-depth investigations.

The paucity of respondents in some sections of the data indicates the nature of a serious issue regarding much research in education today. Access to schools is becoming increasingly difficult, with payment in advance often a pre-requisite. Added to these difficulties are those associated with timetabling, as mentioned in studies 2 and 3, and the recalcitrance of headteachers to allow research about cheating to be conducted in their schools.

Designing a psychometric scale, (Study 4) requires that populations be sampled many times in order to gather data to test the findings of each stage of the scale construction. It would have been far more methodologically robust to have sampled 200 parent-child dyads and used a larger data set to reduce the item pool. This, combined with a far larger (100+) item pool for the final choice of scale items would have been sensible. In retrospect, whilst there was a need to maintain the balance between respondent fatigue and gathering a wide range of data relating to parental and home influences, the impact of the sampling methods (of both items and respondents) has meant that the findings of the parental style scale need to be interpreted with much caution. Generalisation to other populations is not recommended.

It could be argued that the sample size was adequate and that the real issue lay with the scale design itself. With over 100 respondent pairs, 100 parental style items could have been generated without compromising reliability. This is accepted as a fair criticism, especially as the respondent break characteristics were suitable (apart from parental gender) for determining item bias (year in school and gender) based on the sample size. Therefore, for the parent-child dyad study of home influences on cheating (Study 4), the sample size was less important than the survey instrument. Having said this, it should be remembered that fewer than 10 fathers took part in the study. This was perhaps a blessing in disguise, for it has been indicated in the literature that gathering data from both parents and the children leads to analysis nightmares! This, of course, is not a reason for not actively seeking ways to increase the number of father-child dyads.

And so to teachers. It was far easier to enlist the help of teachers at schools with 'good reputations' than those where this was not the case. It was made clear to me by the school from which the fewest teacher-respondents originated, that cheating was not considered an important enough issue to spend time being questioned about in comparison to other day-to-day issues that were faced. This was not a derogatory comment directed at the researcher, rather an indication of the wider educational environment within which the research was placed. This, in the researcher's opinion, made the need to obtain respondent views from such teachers doubly important.

It was apparent from the teachers' data that there were differences in the way in which teachers perceived cheating. Whilst statistical tests are not the only method of ascertaining differences, they are the accepted standard by which researchers acknowledge and judge findings. It was not possible to draw firm conclusions regarding some of the groupings identified, because the sample sizes of the groups were not large enough on which to perform statistical tests.

The conclusions to be drawn regarding sampling are simple. In order to gather the required number of respondents to enable adequate analyses of independent variables, attempts at using stratified sampling techniques are required. Sampling also needs to be conducted against a background of the research tools themselves, which is the subject of the next section.

(ii) The research tools

An indication of the limitations of the research tools was given in the preceding section. To hope to develop a psychometric scale to assess academic parental pressures in one round of data gathering was rather ambitious. Such pursuits are the realms of an entire PhD and not a single study. In a future study factors such as construct validity could be fully explored and one would hope, a form of predictive validity. As previously indicated, the items in the parental scale were flawed. The 'ideal' item to include in a psychometric scale is one that has a flat distribution indicating that there are a range of responses across the item response options. The reason that the data were skewed may be three-fold. Firstly, there were not enough items from which to choose the 'ideal' final scale. Secondly, if a greater number of items had been generated, then it is likely that some of those items would have been worded in such a way as to obtain a range of responses. Thirdly, if the response format (strongly agree, agree, etc) had been less restrictive, the fuller range of responses may have been greater.

Some of these criticisms can also be levelled at the remaining scales in the parental influences study (Study 4). It is possible to develop psychometric scales measuring attitudes

towards cheating that are robust. Admittedly, there are few examples of good scales in the literature (e.g., Rost and Wild, 1994). However, the restricted range of responses for the parental measures of severity and acceptability exacerbated the skew that is known to occur for data such as these. This factor was taken into account when designing the teacher perception study (Study 5). Ten centimetre visual analogue scales were used in order to reduce restricted range effects.

Using parent-child dyads was an important feature of the design in Study 4. Few researchers measuring parental styles have sampled both parents and children (Paulson, 1994). It was felt important to obtain perceptions from both groups. However, it is suspected that it was luck and not judgement (in the form of factor analysis) that resulted into two approximately equivalent parental scales. The ideal situation would have been to analyse the parent and adolescent data sets as one whole data set. This was not possible because the items, whilst phrased very similarly, were aimed at the respective respondent groups. Thus direct comparison was not possible. A way to have made such comparisons would have been to word the items using abstract phrasing removing all references to the self (parent, adolescent) and using general statements such as 'I believe that children should...' rather than 'I believe that my children should...'.

In the same study, measures of cheating were taken. The same scenarios were used with both parents and adolescents. Scenarios were written that sampled a wide range of behaviours and reasons for cheating. Separating the reason for cheating from the behaviour for analysis purposes was impossible. A major criticism of the literature in Chapters 1 and 2 was that researchers had restricted themselves to studying single issues and single behaviours. The data gathered regarding cheating scenarios in this thesis demonstrated that gathering multiple perspectives may be even less informative.

Therefore, it is evident that factors such as the *questions* asked are very important and relates back to an issue discussed earlier, the re-sampling of respondents. Had the parent-child dyads been re-sampled using the final item pool for the parental scale, internal validity as measured by the questions may have been more robust. Internal validity affects all research designs and should be 'built-in' at the design stage. Internal validity can be achieved through a variety of methods, including re-sampling, piloting and inter-rater reliability checks.

Inter-rater reliability checks were not conducted for studies 2 and 3 in which perceptions of what cheating was and whether or not it was wrong were investigated. Whilst the researcher conducted a series of 'self-checks' by fitting sub-samples of the data to the models, these checks could not have been totally free from bias.

Therefore whilst internal validity was assessed using various sampling techniques throughout the thesis, more could have been done. Nevertheless, as discussed in the first section of this chapter, the majority of findings were supported by research from the other studies, using within and between method triangulation.

(iii) Social desirability and impression management

As if the researcher-initiated problems outlined above were not enough to contend with, the respondents themselves had a role to play in limiting the robustness of the findings.

Two main topics were covered in this thesis. Cheating and parental style. Both topics can be considered 'sensitive'. This means that responses gathered pertaining to cheating and parental style will almost certainly be subject to over/under-reporting and impression management.

To begin with, cheating. No data were gathered that asked for *actual* reports of cheating. This does not mean that responses were not affected by social desirability. In the focus group study, participants were faced with an authority figure as 'questioner'. It is highly unlikely that cheating was described by participants in terms that were completely in-line with private beliefs. There was probably a great deal of conservatism towards the topic, yet in a few instances, there may have been liberalism. For example, on behaviours which were not perceived to be 'a good thing' to admit to, views that were condemnatory probably came to the fore. However, if the 'mood' of the focus group changed to one of acceptability regarding an aspect of cheating, then the 'me too' syndrome may have inflated reports of acceptability.

Likewise in the constituents of cheating study (Study 2). If respondents did not want to appear knowledgeable about cheating, they may have restricted their responses in number (which may explain why males generated fewer items, because males are generally reported to cheat more). For this study, under-reporting was more of an issue than over-reporting. What respondents considered cheating was the focus of the research and restricting responses (under-reporting) to one or two items may have biased the data set.

Impression management was far more in evidence regarding perceptions of whether cheating was wrong (Study 3). There appeared to be a great deal of statement inoculation (as discussed in Chapter 5) and a desire to present opinions that condemned cheating out-right. If comparisons are made between the reports of probable cheating (scenarios, Study 4), the reports of the causes and positive benefits of cheating in Study 3, the follow-up investigation (Study 6) and the condemnatory attitudes towards cheating, it would appear that over half the Study 3 sample

were an 'honest bunch' who would not dream of cheating! However, all of the respondents in Study 4 reported that they would behave like the characters in the scenarios at least once. Coupled with this was the knowledge that more able students cheat *less* (e.g. Ellenburg, 1971) and that the students in Study 4 reported themselves to be more able, and, in Study 6, many causes for cheating were perceived to be legitimate and cheating had some very positive benefits. Therefore, it is highly likely that students in Study 3 were reporting public compliance opinions (or received wisdom) rather than private beliefs.

Finally teachers' reports of perceptions of cheating were remarkably frank. It was anticipated that under-reporting and conservative opinions would be expressed. It was certainly not expected that, for example, pressures on teachers would be reported to effect an increase in cheating (as common sense would suggest). This does not mean that impression management was not present in teachers. It may have been the perception that in admitting to pressures resulting in cheating, the cause of teachers fighting government policies with which they do not agree with may have been furthered. This may have also manifested itself in comments such as coursework increases cheating or that access to the internet increases cheating.

However, there were still a number of teachers who denied that cheating was a problem or that it took place in their classrooms. As an 'ex-professional secondary school cheater' I regret to inform such teachers that no matter what the class or who the teacher, for someone, the stakes are always high enough to create a need to cheat.

It is apparent therefore, that the studies in this thesis were subject to over and under reporting. What can be done about to minimise these? In this thesis direct reports of actual cheating were not gathered. This may have reduced the need to over and under report perceptions of cheating. Ensuring anonymity and confidentiality may also have helped, along with asking teachers to leave the room when gathering data in schools and requesting that parents and children complete and return the questionnaire batteries independently. Choosing different methods of data collection from those used may have further helped, but this is unlikely. The randomised response technique mentioned in Chapter 2 is associated with large scale under-reporting and conducting interviews may have increased the likelihood of conservative opinions being gathered (in the case of males, the opinions would have probably been conservative and monosyllabic!).

(b) The validity of the conceptual arguments of the research findings

The methodological limitations that were discussed in the previous sections have impacted on the conclusions that have been drawn regarding the findings from each of the studies. These limitations are discussed for each of the research questions that were set out at the end of Chapter 3.

(i) What is cheating?

The four-dimensional model was at the centre of the answer to this question. No consensus data were gathered in the sense of the word that 'consensus' has been used in the literature. Adolescent respondents were not asked to say whether they felt that a series of behaviours were or were not cheating. The data were reports of what respondents considered to be the possible range of cheating behaviours in their social world. There was no evidence given by respondents in Study 2 to demonstrate that comprehension was related to performance. The only evidence that was forthcoming was that teachers perceived the students' behaviour list in terms of severity to be broadly in line with their own perceptions. For example, homework related cheating was perceived to be less serious than exam related cheating for both teachers and students. The respondents of the scenario study (Study 4) also reported that homework cheating would be more frequently perpetrated by students.

What was particularly worrying about these data was that there was no relationship between reported severity and frequency of item generation. This strongly suggested that the reports in the literature (e.g., Newstead et al, 1996) that severity and frequency of self-reported cheating were negatively correlated were only obtainable using self-report data (the more serious cheating behaviours occurred less frequently). So whilst there were indications that the model had validity based on the reports of other studies in the thesis, the fact still remained that performance did not match competence.

However, it may well be that the lack of relation between severity and frequency/consensus is a trend specific to secondary schools. It was commented upon in Chapter 7 that the correlation between teacher perceived severity and consensus regarding the student generated behaviours was lower than such relationships reported in the literature. Further, for some categories of teachers (those who were ambivalent towards cheating), no relationship was found at all.

Therefore the model may be a useful guide for educational purposes in some instances. What is required is that new student samples be given the opportunity to rate their own behaviours

(from a list generated in Study 2) in terms of severity and actual reports of cheating. It would also be advisable to sample parents on the same behaviours so that three perspectives (teachers, students and parents) would be gained using within-method triangulation.

(ii) When is it wrong to cheat?

When is it wrong to cheat was answered using the question 'is cheating in secondary school wrong?'. Whilst there is a large body of evidence that now informs secondary school student perceptions of cheating, only part of that knowledge directly relates to when it is wrong to cheat. Here the need to confirm the foundations of cheating knowledge ('is cheating in school wrong?') was blurred with the need to assess under what conditions cheating is considered to be wrong ('when is it wrong to cheat?'). This latter question dovetails more neatly into the first question 'what is cheating'. As discussed in Chapter 1, the *when* of cheating is very important in producing definitions and determining understanding.

Having said this, the decision model of cheating was found to be central to determining when cheating is wrong. Cheating was described as wrong by students with reference to 'when' it could be wrong. For some it was always wrong and for others it could sometimes be wrong. Of greater importance for this section however, is the validity of those findings. The aim of the analysis technique employed (epistemological constructionism) was to build a picture of cheating that reflected the world view of respondents. This was not achieved. 'A' world view was constructed. The world view that was constructed, as with the previous model (in Study 2) was based on intentions and beliefs that were removed from perceptions that arise as a result of actual cheating. In addition, the model was probably a model biased towards the female perspective, even though gender differences were not identified in the written text. The bias probably originates from what was *not* written – by males.

The world view was not tested for goodness of fit (control, generality, fit and understanding) with a new sample in any form other than a brief excursion into assessing the understanding of the categories with 20 Guides and Scouts. Therefore the usefulness of the model is at present limited. However, the role that the focus group data and the re-sampling of the Study 5 data played in assessing the internal validity of the decision model should not be underestimated.

The most important aspect of the model has yet to be tested with a new sample, i.e., the relationships between the categories in the model. Whilst assessing the understanding of the categories is an essential pre-requisite (Study 6), it is the relationships between those categories

that indicate the status of theory. Study 6, which was a follow-up for the decision model, did not investigate the validity of the pathways taken through the decision model by the various respondent types ('ambivalent' vs. 'wrong'). These pathways are an essential component in understanding student cheating and require additional study.

(iii) What role do parents play in influencing cheating?

The impact of the parental style data has more than once in this chapter been explored in terms of what might have been. Undoubtedly the design of the study contributed to the disappointing findings. Design flaws encompassed the sample characteristics through to the item contents. What can be said regarding the role of parents in placing pressures on their children, is that efforts should be made to refine the instrument, start again or seek another tool with which to measure such influences.

It was claimed earlier in the chapter that this thesis was the first to present information regarding parental perceptions of severity and acceptability of cheating behaviours. This may well be the case. However, the validity of those findings is questionable. The difficulty with which the cheating behaviour was separated from the reason for cheating (in the scenarios) has already been explored. It cannot be concluded that these data provide a bench mark against which future studies of acceptability and severity can be gauged, just because the study is the first of its kind. For each scenario, which was more salient, the behaviour or the reason for the behaviour? Parents were explicitly asked to separate the two but may not have been able to isolate one from the other when making their decisions regarding severity and acceptability. However, despite these flaws, efforts were made to learn from the mistakes made in Study 4 in the design of Study 5.

(iv) How do teachers perceive cheating compared with students?

Compared with students, teachers were asked slightly different questions about their perception of cheating. Therefore the comparisons that have been made, are once again, subject to cautious interpretation. One cheating behaviour from each division of cheating behaviours from Study 2 was used for comparison purposes in Study 5. This restricted the degree to which generalisations between the two respondent types could be made. Further, what teachers *themselves* considered to be the constituents of cheating was not assessed in the same way as it was for students. Of interest was what students perceived to be cheating, but as has been shown, the teacher-student communication process is fundamental to understanding cheating. Therefore

teacher perceptions concerning their own definitions of cheating are required and should be investigated.

Another factor that restricted the ecological validity of the findings of Study 5 was the response format of the 'cheating/not cheating' questions. Livosky and Tauber (1994) reported that teachers were reluctant to answer yes/no questions relating to the constituents of cheating preferring to give a reasoned explanation for their answers. In the teacher study (Study 5) explicit requests were made not to give reasons and that it was understood that yes/no responses were restrictive. Teachers complied with this request and by design some richness in the data was lost. Therefore as well as assessing what teachers perceive cheating to be, information pertaining to when a behaviour is deemed cheating is required.

The findings of the research presented in this thesis were based on methodologies that were far from perfect. However, as mentioned at the beginning of this critique, more questions were identified than answered. It was difficult at times to resist the temptation to investigate off-shoot questions as they arose instead of resolutely studying the parameters set in Chapter 3. However, now that the whole thesis has been drawn together, there is one area in particular, that has received input from all of the studies, which has perhaps demonstrated that the 'set questions' maybe far from satisfactorily answered.

(c) Defining cheating

A fundamental issue regarding 'what is cheating?' relates to all of the information gathered pertaining to this question. This includes findings from all of the studies, as all were designed to investigate factors that influenced cheating.

The obvious finding that requires reporting is a new definition of cheating in secondary school. From these studies a definition that includes a range of behaviours, reference to person-based factors; 'situational factors' (such as assessment events and temporal components) and perceptions of severity by the cheater and significant others (such as peers, parents and teachers) is required.

For example, a definition may mention that cheating is a series of behaviours that can be either academic or non-academic and that relate to short term positive consequences for the cheater but more likely long term negative consequences. Cheating is something which others see as unfair and is more likely to occur in relation to homework, classwork and coursework. For assessments where the consensus is that it is important and cheating on those assessments would

be seen as a serious matter, a greater rather than smaller range of behaviours are likely to be considered cheating. Behaviours are less likely to be considered cheating when students feel that they need to cheat in order to understand the material or that they have invested a degree of effort before 'additional help' is sought. Parental, teacher and particularly peer perceptions of cheating are also likely to feature in student assessments of when a behaviour is and is not cheating.

It would appear that this 'definition' has captured the most salient factors affecting when a behaviour is considered cheating. However, what is not captured is the sense of work avoidance that motivates cheating or the role that laziness has to play in reducing the number of behaviours that are considered cheating. These played only a small part in the main body of the thesis (despite teachers reporting that they were important). Social desirability in responding may have been an important factor in demoting such issues.

What the definition does not include or rather does not make explicit is the role of cheating perpetrated by others (parent and teachers) and the individual differences in perceptions of cheating. Admittedly definitions (and technically the above is *not* a definition) are nomothetic. What cannot be overlooked are the differences in perceptions of cheating on an individual level. There were some respondents who felt that for example, teachers *would not and could not* cheat. However, teachers do, according to the definition set out by the *respondent-generated* list from Study 2 (Chapter 4) and presented in Study 5 (Chapter 7). In essence, any definition of cheating needs to be able to capture the world-view of the individual respondent and take into account developmental differences. In this way, maximum understanding of individual learning environments can be gained.

A factor that was not subject to a great deal of attention in this thesis was gender differences. This was primarily because very few were found. However, the reason for the lack of gender differences as hinted at earlier, may have been because of sampling techniques or that the wrong questions had been asked. It is not possible to conclude from the data presented in this thesis, that there are broadly no gender differences in the perception of cheating.

Individual differences are increasingly coming to include differences in study pathways. This was not included in the investigation of what is cheating and as such may not necessarily be a limitation of the research 'today'. However, a proposed change in education, that of the introduction of GCSEs at 14 and vocational qualifications from the age of 13 may greatly affect student perceptions of cheating. As a starting point, it would mean that information regarding the assessment event would need re-classifying to capture vocational qualifications because

coursework and classwork do not sufficiently capture the nature of vocational qualifications. The validity of the findings of the four dimensional model (such as they are) therefore would be subject (as is all research) to a sell-by date.

Drawing together the criticisms relating to the definition of cheating, it would appear therefore that what is needed is a definition that that can be extended to encompass home, school and societal influences.

9.3 Drawing the criticisms together

The general criticisms of this thesis have been combined in this section with recommendations for future research because the two are necessarily linked.

To begin with, cheating was described by respondents in Study 2 as including traditionally non-academic behaviours (e.g., breaking the rules). These behaviours cannot be dismissed as mis-readings of the research question as so many respondents generated such behaviours *and* references to these non-academic behaviours were made in the decision-model of cheating (Study 3). Teachers also thought that the behaviours were cheating.

An academic cheating behaviour which has rarely received attention in the literature is 'looking at the work of others'. Again, clearly, as all year groups referred to this behaviour in the four-dimensional model (Study 2), it was referred to in the decision-model (Study 3) and was recognised by teachers, it is a cheating behaviour which has validity.

In effect, what these two issues suggest is that cheating in English secondary schools is different to cheating in higher education. 'English' has been used here in preference to 'British'. The word 'British' has been used extensively throughout this thesis to draw attention to the paucity of research into cheating in the UK compared with, for example, North America. Now that the research has been conducted, Scotland should not be included as the secondary education system is different and the Welsh education system, whilst not different to the English system (yet!) was not sampled in any way other than obtaining two Welsh parent-child dyads for Study 4. Similarly, there were no data originating from Northern Ireland.

However, this is a side-issue. The language of cheating and the communication of that language appears to be very important. Teachers were found to react to cheating according to year group and ability group. Adolescents reported picking up on these subtle differences. Language may be



an important moderator or mediator variable in the study of cheating. For example, it was hypothesised that students would have different levels of anxiety depending upon whether the assessment was an exam or a test. However, no such differences were identified. This suggested that the different way in which students talked about exams and tests was a function of the situation and not necessarily a reflection of the approaches they took toward preparing for exams. However, this language difference may have been responsible for masking perceptual differences in anxiety. The wording that was used to investigate exam and test anxiety was identical (apart from the key words, 'exams' and 'tests'). This suggests that had items been written that reflected the perceived *situational* differences between exams and tests, differences in levels of anxiety may have emerged. As it was, Watson's (1984) exam anxiety scale was used.

Paraphrasing is also a poorly understood behaviour that has been mentioned in the literature but was not found to be particularly salient in the minds of the adolescent respondents in Studies 1, 2 or 3. Teacher perceptions of paraphrasing were mixed suggesting that here too language has a role to play in communicating what is and is not acceptable academic conduct.

Other aspects of the thesis that indicated that the language of cheating requires further study included the size of the capture-all category in Study 2. It was earlier hypothesised that many of the situation-independent behaviours generated by respondents referred to the classwork assessment event. Behaviours in this category may have been so commonplace as to regard the situation as not worth mentioning. In addition, the language that the respondents in Study 3 used to describe the various kinds of assessment event indicated that students may use specific language for discussing cheating. Further, language can be used to promote an assessment from 'not serious' cheating to 'serious cheating'. For example, the word 'important' when combined with 'homework' makes the homework cheating more serious than cheating on a 'small test'.

Language is part of student culture and this in turn is part of the wider educational environment. A frequency count on the number of times the 'wider educational environment' has been mentioned would indicate just how important this is to the study of cheating.

The wider educational environment, as has been demonstrated, includes peers, parents and teachers. However, it also includes family backgrounds, learning styles, ability, teacher styles, anxiety, revision methods and school ethos (teacher-cheating) to name just a few aspects (i.e., home, school and society). A factor that further complicates this are the changes that have been and are currently occurring in education. For example, the proposed introduction of GCSEs for 14 year old students. Another example is the increased number of A/AS level exams. In combination

with various examining board faux-pas (setting the wrong number of questions) the stress levels on A/S level students have probably doubled, which in turn may have affected levels of cheating. A/S levels however are post-16 qualifications. Nevertheless, media reports of similar stresses on students and errors by exam boards regarding SATs and GCSEs are rife in the Spring and Summer months.

Therefore whatever the cause of cheating, be it to stay at the top of the class or avoid looking stupid because study strategies are absent, cheating needs to be studied from a whole school-perspective and a home-school perspective. The lack of teachers from non-affluent school areas in Study 5 and the homogenous sample of parents in Study 4, indicate that a wide section of society has been omitted from investigation in this thesis. What impact a part-time PhD may have had on the findings has also not been explored. The findings have not taken into account, other than in broad terms, the effect of initiating data collection in 1994 and concluding data collection in 2001. Whilst studies 2 and 3 were gathered from the same cohort of students, they were essentially a different population from the students sampled in studies 4 and 6.

9.4 Implications of the findings

The implications of the findings presented in this thesis are immense. However, for brevity, five examples of how the findings can be used to inform education practice are given.

- (i) Methods of preventing cheating need to be tailored to year groups and/or ability levels of students. Schools should aim to provide students with access to a wide range of learning skills, but that as a method of cheating prevention, these should not be relied upon. Fear of being caught may be a primary motivator and perhaps letting students know that software is being used to monitor their work may be more effective. In addition, using language more effectively may prevent cheating. For example, describing homework using adjectives that heighten the importance of each assessment may prove effective in reducing cheating in such instances.
- (ii) High risk situations need to be acknowledged and indeed, teachers appeared to have a good working knowledge of when cheating was most likely to occur. However, as the communication of acceptable academic behaviour depends on the age and ability of the students and the individual teacher, confusion can arise. Therefore, it is suggested that a whole-school approach to cheating is taken. Teachers need to be clear amongst

themselves what they perceive cheating to be. This should include perceptions of what inhibits and promotes learning (e.g., collaboration).

- (iii) Parents need to be included in the communication of acceptable academic behaviour. If schools wish to promote the home-school link then parents will also need to be given guidelines tailored to their specific educational role. Perhaps penalties for parental cheating can be made clear in such a way as to limit any extra pressures that parents may place on children as a result of not being allowed to complete the child's homework for them.
- (iv) Honour codes are present in many American universities. Honour codes are a set of guidelines by which good academic conduct is regulated by the students themselves, through for example, acceptable behaviour guidelines. However, their efficacy at preventing cheating has yet to be established. It may seem appropriate in the current 'inclusive' climate to include students in the monitoring of cheating behaviour in British secondary schools. However, it is apparent that students publicly acknowledge that it is wrong to cheat whilst at the same time admitting to the positive consequences associated with cheating. They also privately admit to cheating for work avoidance and through laziness. Therefore, British honour codes may only hold face validity.
- (v) Recommendations for the Government regarding the testing policies of students in primary and secondary school can be made. The All Party Select Committee on education is meeting in the new academic year to discuss ways of preventing teachers from interfering with the results of national tests. Perhaps a decrease in high-stakes testing and a move to a society less obsessed with results may be warranted. Some pressures on students to achieve may have their origins in educational policies.

9.5 Recommendations for future research

If the reader has still yet to be convinced of the need to take a wider, more grounded approach to the study of cheating then consider two further factors. To what extent are media reports of the stresses, woes and pressures on students and teachers valid? There is only limited research to support them, none of which investigates cheating. Secondly, if the purpose of school is to 'educate' then it is obvious that cheating impacts on learning. Work-avoidance appears to be just as important as fear of failure in explaining cheating. Work avoidance may be more salient for students who lack study skills or who are learning in schools where the main educational ethos is to

keep the students in the classroom and off the streets. These types of students are those at whom pre-16 vocational qualifications are aimed. These qualifications have a different learning ethos and a different reputation in terms of standards.

Schools need to be made to realise the importance of accepting that cheating is part of education and that research is crucial if methods are to be found that promote learning and reduce the need for students to rely on cheating. This applies to teachers as



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well.

Such 'learning audits' are well overdue. It is a damning indictment of British education that this thesis is the first piece of systematic research of cheating in the secondary education system.

The most pressing piece of research that is therefore needed ahead of other research investigating the wider educational environment, is *how much* cheating actually takes place?

- Students need to be given the opportunity to report their consensus regarding the behaviours generated in Study 2 and whether or not they have cheated.
- Parental perspectives on those behaviours also need to be gained.
- Teachers need to be given the opportunity to generate their own list of cheating behaviours.
- Gender differences in rates of student cheating need to be investigated to test whether the literature indication that female cheating is on the increase is valid. Reports of female exam excellence have been put down to an increase in female friendly assessments (coursework), but this may not be the whole picture.

Without this 'yard stick' beliefs that cheating does not occur will continue to be perpetuated in schools and reported as rife in the media. One thing is clear. The above average ability respondents in Study 4 all reported that they would be prepared to cheat. How many students of all abilities actually do cheat really does need to be investigated

However, other research relating to the studies presented in this thesis must also be conducted. The decision model requires further analysis. A possible way that students can be given the opportunity to provide information regarding the relationships between the decision model categories (and the temporal component of the four dimensional model) is to conduct research on the Internet.

Students use the Internet to cheat and there are many web sites devoted to helping them (e.g., 'Evil house of cheat'). Students can be invited to log on to a site (perhaps linked to a cheat-site) and report the antecedents, behaviours and consequences of their day-to-day cheating behaviour. In this way, intentions regarding cheating, actual frequency data, cheating 'now' (as opposed to recall data), and longitudinal data (indicating recidivism) can be gathered. This kind of study would enable the four aspects of Strauss and Corbin's goodness of fit test to be applied to the decision model of Study 3.

The teachers' lists of factors that may increase or decrease cheating also need to be examined for validity. In the same way that Newstead et al (1996) investigated frequency of cheating and reasons for cheating, the teachers' reasons for and for not cheating can be included in a similar style questionnaire and evaluated by students. At the same time self-report data can be gathered.

As education is changing, unique opportunities are being presented to examine how changes in student learning are affecting students 'not learning' (work avoidance and cheating). Education is hooked on using quick pencil and paper style assessments to monitor everything from academic progress to attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. It is probable that pencil and paper tests will be the way forward, particularly as males seem to prefer this method. However, the need for qualitative research has not gone away. If anything the need is greater for there is so much that is still to be understood about cheating in secondary schools. Teachers in particular, whilst pressed for time, are more than capable of discussing cheating in an interview even if their charges are not. However, methods for gathering qualitative data from students can be refined and attempts at gathering richer data from them should be made. Even if only a few in-depth interviews are conducted, these may well shed light on a heavily shadowed field.

Finally, it should not be forgotten that psychological research is contained within a code of conduct. Any future studies which hope to examine actual incidents of cheating (especially the internet suggestion) need to ensure that students are not encouraged to cheat as a result of participating or that studies are designed in which entrapment occurs. Studies which examine cheating using, for example, the duplication technique (changing answers after a test has finished) should be conducted in a way that does not introduce variables other than those which the students encounter in the normal course of their studies. Such studies have been conducted which were grounded in education with the remit of investigating student learning (e.g., Hoff, 1940).

Despite these ethical constraints, it would be nice to devise a an *experiment* to investigate cheating just to see what it is like to use the methods preferred over 50 years ago!

So, what to do first? Perhaps it would be most sensible to investigate cheating in accordance with the bulleted list above. This is because basic information regarding cheating in secondary schools is still required. Whilst at the end of this thesis it can be concluded that there is now a wealth of information compared with what existed before 1994, any research at all would be welcomed as the field is still very much virgin territory.

9.6 Conclusion; What factors *do* affect cheating in secondary school and why?

How long is a piece of string? Many factors affect student cheating, a few of which were investigated in this thesis. 'Influential' factors included, peers, parents and teachers, which, when written another way reads, home, school and society. 'Why' factors included the perception of the purpose of learning, severity of the assessments and cheating behaviours and the age of the students. What is needed is now is a broader analysis of the wider educational environment of cheating, in fact a *ball* of string!

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APPENDIX 1

Study 1

The focus group topic guide

APPENDIX 1**The focus group topic guide**

1. What kinds of things do you think could be called cheating in school?
2. What kinds of assessments do you have in the year that you are in?
3. Are there some things which are only cheating in certain circumstances
4. Do different schools (pupils) agree on the kinds of behaviours which are or are not cheating?
5. Are there some subjects which have specific kinds of cheating associated with them?
6. Do teachers think that the behaviours are cheating too?

APPENDIX 2

Study 1

The stories about cheating that the participants wrote

APPENDIX 2

The stories about cheating that the participants wrote

- Dan A major maths homework was due in and a boy forgot his work. He asked me to show him my homework and I did.
- Fred My friend in a maths exam turned round and tapped me on the should and asked me what was the question 6b. I therefore told him.
- Tom My friend before an exam wrote most of the answers on his exam or on a piece of paper. He was lucky not to be caught.
- Joe One day in the afternoon I was in the library doing some study when some of my friends asked to copy my English and Maths and I did.
- Robbie Someone bought an exam paper in with the questions, with answers on. What happened, he got caught after the exam because he got 90% but the teacher though he would get less. They asked him he did it and he confessed.
- Steve There was a girl called Jo and we were taking our SATs test and she kept learning over and suddenly scribbling down something after. The next day I said 'why were you copying me' and she just walked off in a huff. After break the teacher asked to see me and told me off for copying Jo's work. I denied it but she didn't believe me and I think that was well suss.
- Egg There was once a girl called Danny and she was really brainy, but one day her boyfriend die and she started to take drugs so she fell behind in her school work. Then we had a test and she was copying off everyone and was caught by the teacher. She got in more trouble than she would have if she had only got a few marks on her test. She also got into a lot of trouble by her parents.
- Jo There was a girl and she went to the staff room and stole the papers with the answers for the test. She got top marks in the test.
- Raz Linda and Sam were worried about their SATs coming up and everybody was being reminded to revise. The time came finally, Sam hadn't revised at all. She sat down, she was sat near Linda and copied her work. When she was called to the head's office she was really worried.
- Kelly I was in a humanities test and we had to learn the information on the back of our books. The people at the back of the classroom had their books on their laps with the information on so they could just look down and write the answers
- Worm There was a girl in the exam and she is doing her work. Another girls looked over her should and copied her work. At first she ignored it but the girl did it again. So she said 'stop copying my work' and she covered it up with a stupid story.
- X There was a new person called 'Q' and '007' who were in the first year primary. A new boy came to their class, he was called 'Me'. One day 007 and Q played a trick on Me and said if you copy the boffin of the class you will get a merit. So he copied her and got sent to the head.
- Q One day a class went into a Spanish lesson knowing they had a test. One of the boys at school did not know a lot of Spanish and he got all the answers off the girls sitting next to him. The next Spanish lesson they had got their results. The boy got found out and he was suspended for one day.
- Hi My friend and her friend decided to cheat on their GCSE maths. I didn't know what to do as they were my friends but I knew I had to tell someone.
- Marie Sarah hadn't revised for a French test o she copied Sam as it was an important test. The mark counted towards her GCSEs. She felt really bad and knew it was wrong, but needed a good mark. Sam hadn't realised what Sarah had done.
- Beavis Mary was in a lesson and did not know the answer to a question in her exam. She looked at Gemma's paper to find out what the answer was to this question. She didn't think it was very bad.
- Fred A girl cheated at school in a test. She copied all of her friends answers and she kept on cheating, by copying her classwork. She didn't learn anything. One day her friend was away from school and there was a test and she had no one to copy off. She didn't know any of the answers and she 0 out of 10 and had a detention.
- Kan There was a boring German lesson late on Monday morning and it was a speaking test. My friend Tara was next up and she was really nervous. Her name was called out and she went up to the desk. Time passed and then she came back to the table and told me what she had got. I was in shock, she had got full marks. I asked her how she did it. It was quite good considering she hadn't revised. Then she showed my her hand which was covered in scribbled down German. She had cheated..

APPENDIX 3

Study 1

The instructions given to the focus group participants

APPENDIX 3

The instructions given to the focus group participants

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this discussion group on cheating. This message is to explain to you how the discussion is going to work. Penny has asked each of you to write a short story about a situation involving cheating. The discussion will begin with you reading these out. This is just to break the ice and get things started.

During the discussion Penny will ask some questions for you to talk about. We want to hear as many ideas, views, opinions and stories as possible on each question.

You should all be wearing name stickers. The names should not be your own. If you want to ask somebody a question or make a comment about what someone said, try to remember to call them by the name that is on their sticker.

Even if you think your experience is just like everyone else's, don't just say 'I agree'. We want you to tell us your view, because there's always something unique about each person's own experiences.

Hopefully once you get started, you will ask each other questions and add comments to other people's ideas and views. If you tend to go off the track, Penny will pull the group back to 'cheating' – but usually one of you takes care of that.

If on the other hand the group runs out of things to say, just remember that what we're interested in is cheating and we want to hear a many different points of view about this as possible. So what usually happens is that someone will think of something that hasn't come up yet and then that story will restart the discussion.

If your experience is a little different, then that is exactly what we want to hear. Often someone says 'I suppose my experience is different from everyone else's...' and then they find that the same things have happened to other people too, but no one else would have mentioned it if someone didn't start the ball rolling.

Penny needs to hear as many different things from as many of you as time allows. There really aren't any right or wrong answers in this area – if there were, we'd go to the experts and they'd tell us the answers. Instead we're here to learn from your experiences.

Thank you for listening.

APPENDIX 4**Study 1****Transcripts of the focus groups conducted in study 1**

- (i) Transcripts for focus group 1 ... page 497**
- (ii) Transcripts for focus group 2 ... page 508**
- (iii) Transcripts for focus group 3 ... page 520**
- (iv) Transcripts for focus group 4 ... page 530**
- (v) Transcripts for focus group 5 ... page 539**

APPENDIX 4 (i)

Transcript for focus group one

- Researcher: OK, We'll start with Dan and go right round to Robbie.
- Dan: A major maths homework was due in and a boy forgot his work. He asked me to show him my homework and I did.
- Researcher: OK thanks.
- Robbie: Well, you're a nutter.
- Researcher: OK Fred, your go.
- Fred: My friend in a maths exam turned around and tapped me on the shoulder and asked me what was the question 6b. ...I therefore told him.
- Researcher: OK, brilliant thanks.
- Tom: My friend before an exam wrote most of the answers on his arm or on a piece of paper. He was lucky he was not caught.
- Researcher: OK thanks Tom, and now Joe
- Joe: One day in the afternoon I was in the library doing some study when some of my friends asked to copy my English and maths and I did.
- Researcher: OK thanks Joe.
- Joe: And I shouldn't of really.
- Researcher: And now Robbie.
- Robbie: Someone bought an exam paper in with the question, with the answer on, what happened, he got caught after the exam because he got 90%, but the teacher thought he would get less. They asked him how he did it ... he confessed.
- Researcher: OK lovely thanks ... [break] ... right, now you've all described something to me, which you think, is cheating. What I want to know is exactly what you lot think is cheating, so if you've got any ideas, examples, situation that to you is cheating, Joe.
- Joe: I think cheating is when someone copies someone else's work 'cos they couldn't be bothered to or forgot to do it.
- Researcher: Does everybody agree?
- Dan: I do yeah.
- Fred: Not all of it ... if it's something affecting the GCSE grades, yeah ... but if it's just a minor homework for a revision ... nah, it's not cheating ... it's just catching up ... because you mightn't have been able to do it.
- Researcher: OK, so you're putting a reason on there, yeah Fred?
- Fred: But the revision may be for a GCSE thing ...
- Dan: But it won't be affecting the actual grade will it? Unless it worked?
- J: Yeah
- Researcher: Joe what do you think?
- J: ... I dunno really. I just said what I think
- Dan: Unless the homework was actually for a mark, for a grade ...
- Researcher: So you think ... it's only wrong to copy if um ... it's a graded piece of work that goes towards your final mark
- All: Yes
- J: No ... I think the only thing it ain't cheating is when you've been away and you've copied up someone's work ...
- All: That's allowed, yeah
- Researcher: OK. Anybody else think anything else ... that you do at school that could be considered cheating?
- Robbie: When you're in an exam, like you look over someone's should, see what the answers are like ... and you get ...
- Researcher: So what do you mean by that, can you give me an example?

- Robbie: Say like you're in a maths test and you're sitting next to someone ... you can just look over to their paper and see what they ... what they got ... so you right it down
- Researcher: So does everybody agree that that's cheating?
- All: Yeah
- Tom: Or somebody round an exam just comes and asks you what that answer was, you know ... maybe they'll sit next to you
- Researcher: So that's somebody actually speaking to you ... so you've got like Robbie saying someone's like looking over and seeing what you're doing and you're saying like out loud in front of the teacher ...
- Tom: Not in front .. like ... whispering over the back or something so the teacher doesn't hear it
- All: Yeah
- Joe: Yeah in school um I've forgotten what I was going to say now ... oh carry on
- Researcher: We'll come back to you Joe ... Anybody else got anything else they think is cheating?
- Fred: Something that breaks the rules of the exams ...
- Researcher: For example?
- Dan: Carrying the answers
- Fred: Carrying the answers, looking over somebody's shoulder ... asking people for the answers ... other questions or something ...
- Tom: In school there's these two boys um ... and one had learnt his homework for this test and the other one hadn't ... and he'd ... the boy told him and he said, 'Oh I'll sit next to you in the exam then' so he could copy.. and he got a good mark.
- Dan: Yeah, I know someone who was gutted ... [unclear] um ... he allowed someone to copy his homework ... um and the person who copied his homework got and A minus ... and he got a B..
- Researcher: So it paid off to cheat?
- Dan: Yes
- Fred: Yeah in my GCSE's I've just done there's was someone who's copying up in um.. in a follow up paper for Home Ec. ...
- Researcher: What do you mean? I don't understand
- Fred: There's like, we have to do a follow-up paper's and practical papers and all things like that
- Researcher: Right, yeah
- Fred: And they were found copying them
- Researcher: What off each other? ... Did that go forward for any mark? Or was it ...
- Fred: Yeah, yeah ... just an end grade for a GCSE Home Ec
- Researcher: Right now, all the things that you are saying to me, like looking over and copying homework ... is there anything that you think teachers think is cheating but you don't think's cheating ... in an exam or something?
- Dan: Trying to talk to someone ... I ask for a rubber or something
- Researcher: What like trying to talk to someone in an exam and ask a question?
- Joe: Disturbing or moving your chair or something
- Researcher: Right, teachers' think that's cheating?
- All: Well ... no
- Robbie: You can take a Walkman and that's got all the questions on ... just play that though
- Researcher: You're not allowed to take Walkman's in anyway are you?
- Robbie: Yeah but if you could ... hide it ... you'd get the answers to ...
- Dan: Shut up Joe
- Tom: A teacher walks past and sees something coming from your trousers (laughter)
- Researcher: Taking a Walkman in ... does that happen?
- All: No
- Researcher: I mean ... I presume you're coming up with ideas of cheating because you've seen these ... or ... in practice or something ... but anything you've heard of ... that might be quite unusual ... Like what amazing lengths do people go to cheat?
- Fred: Well my teacher said someone wrote all of the answers down on the table
- Researcher: On the top of the table?
- Fred: No ... Like but underneath ... and they cheated like that in an exam

- Tom: One boy in our school, he wrote it on his hand ... and um .. he was going like this [demonstrates] going like this ...
- Researcher: Right now ... assessments ... you're all talking about grades and stuff ... what kind of assessments do you all have?
- Joe: Blue card
- Researcher: What's that involve?
- Joe: You have an exam for each subject and you get and grade and it goes down on your blue card
- Researcher: It's those exams that I want to know about ... what do the teachers get you ... how do teachers test you?
- All: Modules
- Researcher: Is that short answers, questions, essays?
- Dan: Any multiple choice ... and there is some tests with writing down ...
- Robbie: In my year you have to do essays and things
- Joe: Yeah and my year
- Researcher: Yeah? Anybody else have any different kind of ..
- Robbie: Mines just like writing out answers ...
- Dan: You're in the year below us ...
- Researcher: What year are you in Robbie?
- Robbie: 9
- Researcher: Year 9 ... and you are all in year 10?
- Robbie: Yeah
- Dan: I'm in year 11
- Joe: Just starting GCSE's
- Researcher: Which do you think ... which do you think has got more kinds of cheating associated with it? Essays or multiple choice?
- Fred: Multiple choice
- Dan: Essays
- Researcher: Fred ... why do you think multiple choice?
- Fred: Well in our school you have to like tick the box and I reckon it's easier to see ... see what they're doing
- Researcher: What do you mean see what they're doing?
- Fred: Well, they have to like tick the box or shade a box... to say what they right answer it ... and it's easier to look over ...
- Researcher: Right
- Tom: We just have to write the answers out to the questions
- Joe: Yeah ... we have to write the answers
- Dan: That's what we have to do
- Tom: We just get a sheet in front of use and look at the question sheet and write ... out the answers ... on a piece of paper
- Researcher: Do you.. Why did you say you thought essays Dan?
- Fred: 'Cos you can take them home ... so that you can take them home with your friends [unclear] yeah sometimes you can take them home
- Tom: Yeah in my school, when people have been away ... teachers, like let, let a couple of boys or whoever take the exam and go and do it in the library so they can both like, both cheat and that ... but sometimes people have taken them home ... taking tests home yeah
- Robbie: The follow-up paper I've just done, you can write the questions down and take it home and do it and bring it back in and write it up
- Dan: We um ... do these um... SE1's in year 10 ... and um ... I know one teacher who doesn't like to get.. known as a good teacher.. so he allows his pupils to take some work home to do ... and he should give it in lesson time
- Researcher: So they should do it in class ... right ... so any other examples of like, the ways that you're tested that you think I might not have heard of?
- All: No

- Researcher: Do you ever get asked to do spoken tests?
- Dan: French
- Fred: Languages
- Tom: When you're all in a class ... in our school, they can call you up ... and you're like one in a class ... and they just call the person to the side and just ask them questions ... um ... you can easily listen to what they were saying ... if you're next and ...
- Researcher: So you all have the same thing to answer ... all the questions to answers and if you're sitting close ... you might hear the teacher saying something?
- Tom: Yeah and you would know what it was
- Robbie: We go into another room to do ours
- Tom: We don't
- Researcher: Is there anyway that you could cheat in the other room one's
- Robbie: Nope
- Joe: Not unless you take a piece of paper ...
- Dan: You've gotta remember what the answers ...
- Robbie: 'Cos in our Spanish exam they were remembering the answers and taking them back ...
- Dan: To tell the others
- Researcher: Right.. What about maths, how are you tested in maths?
- Tom: Just given loads of questions
- Robbie: And you gotta write out the answers
- Dan: I do essays questions for maths
- Robbie: I don't
- Joe: Thick!
- Researcher: How do you do essay questions?
- Dan: We do ... um ... like tests ... we go into the hall or gym or something ... on the tier roll, three different, four different tiers, yellow ...
- Robbie: I'm yellow
- Researcher: In your school ... you go into a formal hall and all sit it together ... do all of you go to a special room to sit your exams?
- Dan: No very different ... sometimes we need to be in the hall and sometimes ...
- Robbie: In the end of module tests you just have it in the classroom ...
- Dan: But if it's an important test you go into the special place
- Joe: SAT's
- Tom: yeah, 'cos we got the SAT's this year
- Joe: When it's end of year exams and that ... you each person has their own desk ...
- Researcher: Right, do different kinds of cheating go on in the classroom, compared to the exam hall?
- All: No
- Dan: In out maths, the teacher has no control ... everybody just shouts ... everybody just shouts out the answers ...
- Joe: Yeah, same in our maths class
- Robbie: Especially if you're in Mr? Class
- Researcher: So it's not exam conditions then? It's not silent then?
- All: No, No
- Dan: Some teachers ... they are really strict ... if there is an actual test in the classroom, teachers should a lot and give a few detentions before we actually shut up
- Researcher: Have you ever experienced this?
- Robbie: If they are like sitting next to me and they are my enemies then just write their answers down
- Joe: You cheater
- Fred: Lots of people just shout out ... it's mad 'Oh can I have a cop of your book a minute' ... and they pass it over ... and the teacher's just standing there, watching ...
- Dan: They have no control
- Researcher: What about science? Because when I was at school we had to do practical experiments under test conditions...

- Joe: No we don't do that anymore
- Researcher: So you don't have to mix chemicals, or look down microscopes for a test?
- Joe: No
- Fred: For an SE1 maybe
- Researcher: What is an SE1?
- Fred: If we get an investigation to do ... we have to do it over the weekend ...
- Dan: A weekend?
- Fred: A weekend?
- Dan: No through the week
- Fred: A weekend day things ... a we get ... time to work through it
- Researcher: So it's like a special homework that goes towards your final mark?
- Fred: Not really ... it's schoolwork ... the whole week for the lessons
- Researcher: OK ... well what I want to do now is just quickly go through these with each of you and see if it sparks off any idea in your head ... or whether you think 'that's not cheating ... don't be stupid'...
OK, allowing your own coursework or homework to be copied by another student
- All: Cheating
- Tom: Well it depends [unclear]
- Researcher: Hang on a minute, Tom it depends?
- Tom: 'Cos they could be catching up ... 'cos they could have missed the lesson and they won't have known what was happening ... and they might want to copy up the work ...
- Robbie: Yeah, but you can't copy coursework
- Joe: In our school ... when you miss it you have to do it for yourself ...
- Researcher: You said if it's small Dan?
- Dan: If it's only very small.. then you can forget really easily ... only a few questions .. you can easily copy that up ... that's all right
- Researcher: What about taking banned material into an exam or test?
- All: Yeah that's cheating, yeah, I agree with that
- Researcher: Any exceptions to the rule?
- All: no ... [unclear]
- Researcher: Do any of you have what we call open book exams ... where you are allowed to take your textbooks in?
- Fred: No we have bit of paper and we take that in with us
- Researcher: You're allowed to take one piece of paper in
- Fred: Yeah
- Robbie: I've done that once for English
- Researcher: What about ... sorry ... Robbie
- Robbie: In English ... we had an exam ... we were doing Julius Caesar and we ... just had the book and we ... researching what happened and we write it down ... under test conditions
- Researcher: So that was allowed?
- Robbie: Yeah
- Researcher: Lying about medical, um for example, home circumstances to get special consideration by examiners, for example you get the exam board to give you a better grade by letting you have more time to do your coursework
- All: Yeah that's definitely cheating
- Researcher: Is this ... am I telling you this for the first time ... or
- Fred: I've never heard of it before [unclear]
- Researcher: You have heard it before
- Joe: I have
- Researcher: So it's not because ... this was designed for university students ... I don't really know if it really happens in schools or not?
- Fred: Not that I know of
- Dan: It's impossible
- Researcher: Joe, you think you have

- Joe: Yeah I think so, I dunno I'm not sure
- Researcher: Oh OK, Right copying another students' coursework and they know about it ... that's like Joe ... your story
- Dan: Yeah I reckon [unclear]
- Researcher: OK lying about medical of other circumstances to get an extended deadline
- Joe: Yeah
- Researcher: You all agree with that one ... OK handing in coursework or homework which came from an outside source, i.e., a student offers to sell you an essay ...
- Joe: Yeah
- Researcher: Is that a bit cloud cuckoo land again?
- Joe: No
- Dan: They wouldn't sell it ... they'd just like copy it and give it to you...
- Fred: There's always swapping it ... there's always one
- Researcher: What about between schools
- Tom: No we don't really see each other from different schools
- Dan: People from other schools don't tend to like each other.. that much
- Researcher: You're from different schools aren't you?
- Tom: Yeah ... I still don't like em!
- Researcher: Taking an exam or test for someone else or having someone take an exam or test for you?
- Tom: I wouldn't mind it [laughter]
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Could that happen ... It is possible to happen?
- Tom: Not unless you've got a twin
- Researcher: So it's a bit of an extreme one ...
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Right in a situation where students mark each other's work, coming to an agreement with another student to mark each other's work more generously than you should
- All: That's definitely cheating
- Researcher: That's something we haven't mentioned is it ... like marking your own work or passing it over?
- Robbie: You swap sides and you say I didn't mean it like that
- Tom: Yeah that's what they say ... and you go 'oh pleeeeeeasee'... you just beg ... then changing the answers for you
- Researcher: So any exceptions for when it might not be cheating?
- Joe: Marked with the same pen ... every time you done it wrong, you get the answer right
- Researcher: So you use the same pen that your mate wrote with ...
- Joe: Yeah
- Tom: Well you use ... something else...
- Robbie: It's easier to let you mark your own
- Researcher: Let you mark your own? ... Copying a students coursework or homework without them knowing it
- All: Yeah
- Joe: That's definite
- Researcher: Does that happen or ...
- Dan: No. No one would've been careless enough to leave it around
- Robbie: Do you wanna bet?
- Fred: A guy in my class lost a whole humanities project ... it went missing
- Researcher: Suspiciously?
- Tom: Unless someone goes through your bag and steals anything
- Researcher: It happened on Grange Hill once ... I remember that [laughter] ... Deliberately gaining information about the contents of an exam paper or test before you take it ... that was your story wasn't it Robbie?
- Robbie: Yeah
- Fred: Someone did that in our class
- Researcher: Is it quite easy to do or does it depend on the teacher?

- Robbie: Well my science teacher ... we had like ... multiple choice answers and the answers were like on the lid of the folder ... and she kept the fold open and we just copied the answers.
- Researcher: Right .. so it that legitimate then?
- Fred: Well like someone older nicked the paper with all the answers on ... then it ... someone asked if they could buy it, so they could ... know what the questions are
- Joe: They could probably photocopy it for everybody
- Researcher: Making up results ... for example a science experiment
- Joe: I've done that
- Researcher: Doing reaction times or something ... and timing how long it takes water to boil or something ... and you just write anything down ..
- Robbie: Oh year, I did that two days ago..
- Researcher: Is that cheating?
- Tom: It would take too long wouldn't it?...
[Unclear]
- Researcher: Hang on Tom, what were you saying?
- Tom: 'Cos it would take too long and you'd be waiting there for like ... half an hour and then you'd have to write it out ... saves time
- Researcher: Robbie ... Robbie?
- Robbie: It saves time ... instead of waiting until it happened you just write it down
- Researcher: Is there any instance when it is cheating?
- Dan: Um it saves time if you have to do a survey ... um it maybe impossible to do the survey, so you have to make up some results ...
[Unclear]
- Researcher: What about miss-shelving library books on purpose and cutting out pages and things?
- Dan: Miss -shelving them yeah all the time
- Researcher: But do you think that's cheating?
- All: No
- Tom: Just having a bit of a mess around really
- Researcher: And what about copying paragraphs from a textbook and re-arranging the words and saying
- Robbie: No we are not allowed to do that ...
- Tom: As long as you read it ...
- Researcher: How do you know if you're allowed to do that?
- Joe: 'Cos the teachers tell you
- Tom: The teachers' tell you ... paragraphs.. you gotta learn that and you could like
- Robbie: You read it and you like ... you got to put it in your own words
- Dan: You get a computer print out and he says it mustn't [I think this should be 'must'] be in your own words 'Cos I'll not accept it'
- Researcher: So does that mean you are not allowed to directly copy anything?
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: You're not allowed it word for word
- All: No
[Unclear]
- Tom: They could give you a letter say from the Red Cross ... and you got to read it and like ... um ... say it was about and what it was saying ... you could copy some paragraphs from that ...
- Researcher: Because you're making quotes aren't you?
- All: Unclear agreements
- Researcher: OK what about ... um ... agreeing to communicated answers in an exam
- All: Yeah, that's cheating
- Joe: Cheating
- Researcher: How many different ways do you know of doing that?
[Unclear]
- Researcher: Hang on wait a minute ... sorry say that again
- Dan: Tapping the table trying to get their attention ... throw a piece of paper at them or something

- Robbie: We got to use sign language and like that?
- Researcher: Sign language ... what real sign language?
- Robbie: We got two deaf people in our maths class ... and they use sign language under the table
- Researcher: Really [laughter] and do you think they're cheating using it to communicate?
- Robbie: That's cheating
- Dan: That's class that it
- Researcher: Are there any other ways which you can ... communicated answers?
- Tom: Um... Morse code
- Fred: How the hell?
- Researcher: OK ... um ... handing in coursework or homework that was done with the help of your parents ...
- Joe: Yeah people in schools done that
- Tom: You could get stuck on a question
- Joe: There's this boy in the school, he got his Dad to do his English work and he got a D
- Robbie: If he's stuck on a quest... like a maths question ... he didn't know that it is... he go and ask what it is..
- Researcher: So if you're stuck it's not really cheating?
- Joe: No, not if you're stuck
- Dan: If it's just Mum can you give me a hand to work out latitude and me Dad helps me sometimes ... he just puts it up on the computer for me and tells me what I've done wrong.. and I put it right
- Tom: Yeah
- Joe: Only 'cos he's a teacher
- Researcher: When would it definitely be cheating?
- Dan: When they did it all
- Fred: If you went 'ah mum, can you do me homework' ... so they just write it all out and give it in
- Tom: Yeah
- Fred: Yeah, like me, when I put my follow-up paper in if I asked my mum and dad to do it for me, that would be cheating
- Researcher: Right ... but what if it was half them and half you doing the work?
- Dan: Well that's all right
- Fred: No
- Dan: Well I still think ... it should be at least 60% of your own work done it and your parents the rest
- Tom: Or they could just tell you what to write, but you could write it out.. differently in their words ... in different words
- Researcher: Yeah right?
- Tom: That wouldn't be cheating
- Researcher: It wouldn't be cheating, putting it in your own words?
- Tom: Yeah they tell you something and you put it in your own words
- Dan: Yeah I've done that before
- Tom: Yeah
- Joe: Because you don't get it
- Researcher: All right ... copying from your neighbour and they don't know it?
- All: Yeah
- Dan: Everybody's done that [laughter]
- Fred: Definitely
- Researcher: Altering the results, of for example ... a geography project so that you get the results that you want.. so you can get a better mark
- Joe: Yeah
- Researcher: Like a survey for example
- Dan: Yeah
- Researcher: Any situation when it might not be cheating?
- Joe: No
- Researcher: OK doing another student's coursework or homework for them
- Joe: Yeah

- Dan: Definitely cheating ... unless you get paid a lot of money for it! [Laughter]
- Researcher: Joking apart do you all agree on that?
- Joe: Yeah
- Researcher: If you get paid that's not cheating ...
- Joe: No it's still cheating
- Fred: But you make money out of it
- Robbie: You still do it [unclear]
- Researcher: OK handing in a piece of work that was supposed to be written by you alone but was written with a friend
- All: Yeah
- Dan: That is cheating in actual fact
- Researcher: How is that different to getting your parents to help you?
- Dan: They know exactly what you're talking about ...
[Unclear]
- Joe: Can we go now?
- Researcher: Few minutes?
- Joe: OK
- Researcher: OK attempting to get your teacher to give you extra help or credit by taking them presents or using your friendship with them?
- All: Yeah
- Robbie: Never done that before
- Tom: No
- Researcher: Do you think it happens or does it not happen?
- Tom: Not that I know of no
- Researcher: What about handing in coursework or homework that was done with the help of your teachers?
- Joe: No
- Dan: No
- Fred: No
- Robbie: No ... 'cos like you got ... if you don't know the answers you got... the teacher to help you understand ...
- Tom: In school you had a detention and he kept saying he couldn't do this and he ended up doing nearly all of it
- Researcher: What about coursework for GCSE though? And the teacher does it for you
- Tom: Yeah that's cheating
- Dan: They won't ... I've tried ... they won't
- Researcher: Is that everybody's experience though
- All: Well [unclear 'no's']
- Researcher: Um ... are there some subjects like maths or science that have specific kinds of cheating ... that you can only do in that subject?
- Dan: Yeah
- Joe: No
- Dan: Yeah [art?]. just say the answers out loud
- Researcher: The teachers
- Robbie: Or in a maths test you take a calculator in and you're not allowed to take a calculator in and you take one in ...
- Dan: So you're gonna check the answers innit?
- Tom: Some classes you can have a calculator in to do certain questions ... but you could be using it for other questions as well ... and they don't know do they ... but you're allowed to use the calculator for some questions ... depends which ones
- Dan: You got like this symbol saying 'no calculator'
- Fred: Yeah but you have to show your workings
- Tom: Yeah but you gets the answer don't you in the end?
- Researcher: OK

- Joe: Takes too long
- Researcher: Do teach ... now we've gone through about 20 different behaviours ... do teachers think that they're cheating?
- Joe: Yeah
- Researcher: More than you do.. or
- Tom: I'd say more
- Joe: More
- Dan: Maybe more
- Researcher: I'm sorry what was that Tom?
- Tom: I said more because they'd say that if you'd asked them to write out what they think is cheating most of them would be on there anyway
- Researcher: But we have said that we think some of them aren't cheating
- Tom: Yeah, but they're ... got different views
- Researcher: What do you mean Tom?
- Tom: Well they've just got different views to working some of them ... and like cheating
- Researcher: Can you give me an example of like when a teacher would say that's cheating and you'd say not it wasn't?
- Tom: Um ... no
- Researcher: Anybody
- All: No
- Researcher: Joe, do you think teachers see cheating ... like as more serious?
- Tom: Definitely
- Researcher: Why?
- Joe: Because it's their job isn't it really ... teachers
- Researcher: But is it just their job? You know ... can you think of a reason why they would think it's more serious that you do?
- Joe: Because they
- Robbie: It's not actually the work ... it's something else
- Tom: They might not be there to help in the exam ... and they wouldn't be able to anyway, to there's not point in cheating
- Researcher: So they'd probably say to you I don't know what you're cheating for... because come the exam you won't be able to cheat?
- All: Yeah
- Fred: And you won't be able to copy off your mates ... or something like that
- Researcher: They say.. that and you've got a smile on your face ... what does that mean?
- Tom: Just saying it ... does it anyway
- Researcher: Does it anyway in the exam ... is there any other reason why a teacher might think it's more serious or perhaps less serious? ... I mean what do you think their views on it are ... what do you think they think of cheating
- Joe: They think it's cheating
- Fred: They think it's stupid ... and give us this lecture on like ... 'well if you do this you won't get proper grades' ... same old thing every time ... everyone
- Researcher: And do you? OK, has anybody got anything else that they can think of that could be to do with cheating, that I don't know about, bearing in mind that I am dealing with university students most of the time ... not you're age group/
- All: No Nope
- Researcher: Can anybody think of a really neat way to cheat that's like fantasy?
- Fred: Oh well, a little computer with little sending messages ...
- Dan: Yeah, you could cheat on computers and send messages [unclear]
- Researcher: Hang on a minute, Tom
- Tom: Well this, about this big a personal organiser and you send messages across rooms and
- Robbie: Like sign language

- Joe: Next year when I'm doing my GCSE's I'm not allowed to take a dictionary in anymore for French, but the year after you'll be allowed to take dictionaries into French
- Researcher: Why?
- Joe: Don't know
- Researcher: Are they changing the syllabus?
- Joe: Yeah think so
- Researcher: Do you think that's fair?
- Joe: No
- Robbie: It gives the other people... the year an advantage
- Researcher: So that means that won't be cheating anymore ... it'll be allowed
- Joe: Yeah
- Researcher: What was your idea Robbie?
- Robbie: You got like, some expensive calculators ... that's got links and like send messages
- Researcher: Right ... e-mail and electronic mail?
- Tom: I know some people they right down on a piece of paper. ... Like before a lesson before an exam.. and then there's chewing gum under the table and they stick the paper under there and then when they need something they go into their bag to get something ... say a pen and just look at the answers upon
- Joe: He knows because he's done it
- Researcher: What about leaving the room and going to the toilet?
- Dan: You're not allowed to do that [laughter]
- Researcher: You must be allowed to go to the toilet
- Dan: No you just wet yourself on the seat!
- Fred: Say if you were really desperate... you gotta be really desperate ... just say you're really desperate and somebody will let you off
- Researcher: Just as a final thought ... do you think girls cheat differently to boys
- Joe: No
- Fred: They could no... they got certain advantages or what have you
- Dan: Yeah ... I think they do
- Researcher: What advantages have they got?
- Dan: Teachers like them more?
- Researcher: You mean they can get away with more?
- All: Yeah they can

APPENDIX 4 (ii)

Transcript for focus group two

- Researcher: Remember to talk at the microphone; it's very good at picking things up.
- Raz: Which bit do you talk into?
- Researcher: The whole thing's a microphone ... all of it ...OK so I'll go round the room, and I'm going to ask you to read out your story ... and in the beginning you say 'hello my name is so and so ... I'm in so and so year' then read your story ... anyone like to go first? OK we'll start with Steve and work that way round.
- Steve: Hello my name is Steve and I'm in the first year ... there was a girl called Jo ... and we were taking our SATs test and she kept leaning over and suddenly scribbled down something ... after ...the next day I said "why were you copying me" and she said ... and she just walked off in a huff ... after break the teacher asked to see me and she told me off for copying Jo's work, I denied it but ... she didn't believe me ... and I think that was well 'suss'
- Researcher: OK thank you Steve, right Egg.
- Egg: There was once a girl called Danny and she was really brainy, but one day her boyfriend died and she started to take drugs so she fell behind in her school work ... then we had a test and she was copying off everyone's work ... and was caught by the teacher ... she got in more trouble than she would have ... if ... if she had only got a few marks in the test ... she also got into a lot of trouble by her parents
- Researcher: Thank you Egg, which year are you in at school
- Egg: Seven
- Researcher: Seven? OK thank you ... Jo
- Jo: I'm Jo and I'm in the second year ... there was a girl and she went to the staff room and stole the papers with the answers for the tests ... she got top marks in the test ...
- Researcher: Thank you Jo
- Raz: Hi I'm Raz and I'm in the second year ... Linda and Sam were worried about their SATs were coming up and everybody was being reminded to revise ... the time came finally, Sam hadn't revised at all, she sat down, she was sat near Linda and copied her work ... when she ... when she was called to the Head's office she was really worried ...
- Researcher: OK Thank you Raz, um Kelly
- Kelly: Hi I'm Kelly, um ... I'm in the first year ... um ... I was in a humanities test and we had to learn the information on the back of our books ... and the people at the back of the classroom had their books on their laps with the information on ... so they could just look down ... and write it ... the answers
- Researcher: Thank you Kelly um and Worm
- Worm: Hello my name is Worm and I'm in the first year at school ... there was a girl in the exam ans she was doing her work, and another girl ... girl ... looked over her shoulder and copied her work ... at first she ignored it but the girl did it again, so she said ... to her "stop copying my work " and she covered it up with a stupid story
- Researcher: OK thank you all very much ... right now, I've got a series of questions that I'm just going to throw over to you and you can tell me what you think of them ... but I'm gong to base it all on all of these questions that you had on the sheet? ... right, well the first thing that I want to know is what behaviours or what things you think is cheating at school ... now some of you have mentioned copying in a test ... but I want you to brainstorm and come up with as many things that you think is cheating at school ... and ideas ... Steve
- Steve: Yes?
- Researcher: What do you think is cheating?
- Steve: Um ... if you like ... If you copied somebody's work or ... you're just doing it together or something ... and you're not meant to be doing it together, you're meant to be doing it on your own ... and that?
- Researcher: Everybody else agree ... working together?
- Steve: If you're not meant to be working together

- Researcher: Ah, but how do you know if you're not meant to be working together?
- Steve: The teacher will tell you
- Researcher: Do they always tell you?
[Unclear]
- Researcher: Um, right ... what were you going to say?
- Raz: Um when people get people, you to do their homework for them or something
- Researcher: Is that cheating ... [unclear] it's what?
- Worm: cheating yourself
- Researcher: Cheating yourself? ... What about cheating the other person ... is it like fair?
- Worm: They could get into trouble for doing it really
- Researcher: OK, what about other things ... what other things can you think of as cheating? ... Would you like me to go through this list?
- All: Yes
- Raz: When you're in a tables like test ... um ... you just wait until the teacher tells you what the answers are and you just write them down ...
- Researcher: What do you mean by tables test ... I don't know
- Raz: um ... times tables
- Researcher: You get tested on your times tables?
- Egg: Yes ... and then when you've done it ...
- Researcher: You have to mark your own work?
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Ah, right ... yes OK so lets go through this list and you can tell me what you think ... allowing your own coursework or your own homework to be copied by someone else? is that cheating?
- All: Mmm, yeah
- Researcher: Are you all in agreement? ... You have to say 'yes' because the microphone can't see your nods
- All: Yes
- Researcher: Um ... when would it be alright to copy somebody's homework?
- Worm: If you're working together
- Researcher: OK, so it's a joint project ... um ... but like supposing you've been off ill or something ... or is it never right to copy someone's homework?
- Raz: Not unless the teacher has told you, you can
- Worm: Well ... if they ... if they were ill and they wanted to know what they did, and then write down the homework and then ... put it in their own words ...
- Researcher: So it's ... not full copying ... you're saying rewriting it?
- Worm: Yeah, if you're ill
- Researcher: If you're ill ... well what about if a friend is really pushed for time ... or you know ... it's a friend ... is that ever allowed?
- All: No
- Researcher: But it's done ... mean ... I'd let my friend copy
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... taking banned material into an exam or tests, for example taking notes in ... Is that allowed?
Good ... bad ...
- Steve: That's bad
- Researcher: That's bad ... would it ever be allowed?
- Worm: No ... only if the teacher said so ... sometimes you're allowed to look through your book to find something ...
- Researcher: So sometimes you have what we call open book tests?
- All: Yeah.
- Researcher: Can you think of any situation ... when it would be OK to do that ... or you think you could justify it ... you think 'it's cheating I know ... but' ... (shaking heads) no? ... What about lying about medical ... or for example, your home situation ... to get special consideration by um ... an exam board ... somebody who marks the exams ... for example they mark your work more nicely ... or you're give extra time to do homework ...

- Egg: I don't think that's fair on the people who ... have got problems at home though
- Researcher: What do you mean?
- Egg: Well if they lie about things ... that they've got problems at home then people who have got problems at home, it's not fair on the people who have ...
- Researcher: right ... so you're saying that's wrong as well ...
- Egg: Yeah
- Researcher: Well supposing you have got something wrong but the teacher doesn't believe you?
- Kelly: You should show the teacher your house
- Steve: Get your parents to write a note
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Is parents' writing notes cover for you? ... so if your parents say, she hasn't done her homework and they make up a reason ... that's alright is it?
- Worm: Yeah
- Kelly: Yeah
- Steve: If they just make it up ... is if it's real, real, real ... like they say she was really ill and she was really ill ... that you, you mean or she wasn't really ill?
- Researcher: If she wasn't really ill
- Steve: No ...
- Researcher: So you think that's cheating still?
- All: Yes
- Researcher: OK ... um ... copying another person's work and they know ... in other words they let you copy ... is that cheating? Because they've let you do it?
- Egg: Not really 'cos they said that you could ...
- Researcher: So it's not cheating? ... but if they didn't know that you were copying their work?
- Steve: Yeah, that's cheating
- Researcher: OK ... right um ... handing in coursework or homework which came from an outside source, in other words you got it from somebody out of the school by either buying it from them or getting it from them ... what do you think, is that cheating or not cheating?
- Kelly: Can you say that again, please?
- Researcher: OK ... supposing you had some homework to do ... and somebody who goes to a different school said "oh, if you give me a fiver I'll give you my answers to that question ... 'cos I've already done that ...
- Egg: Yeah, I think that's cheating
- Worm: Yeah
- Worm: That's bribery
- Researcher: That's bribery is it?
- Worm: It's just like copying someone else's
- Researcher: So, it's just as bad ... taking an exam or test for someone else ... or you taking or ... having somebody else take an exam or a test for you ... so supposing you had a test ... and you wanted to go off ill, so Kelly pretended to be you ... what do you think of that?
- All: That's cheating
- Steve: Kelly might know more than Worm ... so that would be cheating
- Researcher: Right, supposing Kelly knew less than Worm, would that still be cheating?
- Jo: Yeah
- Researcher: Why?
- Jo: Because one's supposed to sit it
- Researcher: Right ... so it's wrong to get somebody else to sit the test for you
- Egg: Yeah they could get lower marks
- Researcher: So it's a bit of a gamble really
- Egg: It would be your own fault if she had less marks than her
- Researcher: So if Kelly had less marks it would serve you right, but what if Kelly got 100%?
- Egg: Worm would have to struggle
- Researcher: Why?

- Egg: Because she might not know everything that Kelly knows
- Researcher: So, after
- Egg: the teachers may think ... more of her
- Jo: Yeah the teacher might like ... give her harder work
- Steve: She might ... she might ... for Worm's work, the teacher might have said um ... "oh, Worm's not good at this" and then she ... goes and does the subject really, really well in a test ... so she would have thought, ... "oh, Worm couldn't have done this because she wasn't very good at it" ... you know
- Egg: they would be suspicious, and harder work as well
- Researcher: So, it's two things ... one you say "oh, no it can't be her, she's cheating" or ... "wow, haven't you done well, here have some harder work ... that dropped poor old Worm in it ...
- All: Mmm
- Researcher: So, it has good consequences and bad consequences
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Were you going to say something Kelly?
- Kelly: No
- Researcher: Sorry, I thought you were going to say something ... um, right in a situation where you mark each others' work you come to an agreement to give each other higher marks than you deserve ... you know, you have to swap over tests?
- All: Cheating, yeah
- Researcher: Why is it cheating?
- Egg: 'Cos you didn't really do it
- Researcher: Yeah, but no-one's going to know
- Kelly: It's the same one as Egg's
- Worm: The teacher will check the tests
- Jo: Yeah, they'll check it
- Researcher: Do teachers always check tests?
- All: Yeah
- Jo: Not always
- Kelly: Normally
- Researcher: So if you knew the teacher never checked your tests ...
- Egg: Yeah, but you could write that in with a different pen ... or the one that they've written with and the teacher wouldn't know
- Kelly: Like cross it out and then say you've um ... um ... said that answer was wrong and said they remembered the right answer ... before you marked
- Researcher: So, even if you get found there are ways of getting round it
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Ah, but is that cheating, if you knew the answer anyway?
- All: Mmmm!
- Researcher: OK, right ... um ... deliberately gaining information about the contents of an exam paper or tests before you take it ...
- All: Yeah
- Egg: Could you say that again?
- Researcher: Who wrote the story about going to the staff room? ... Would you read again Jo because that describes it really well?
- Jo: There was a girl and she went to the staff room and stole the papers with the answers for the tests ... and she knew what she was gonna do and she got top marks in the test ...
- Researcher: Right ... so that's getting information about the test beforehand
- Kelly: Oh, right
- Egg: If you get the answer sheet that's cheating ... but if you just find out from the library or something
- Researcher: What do you mean by that?
- Egg: If you um ... if you find the information like, from ... somewhere and you
- Worm: Didn't know the question

- Egg: If you were certain ... for revision
- Researcher: Oh, right ... do you mean ... that supposing you knew you were going to have questions on, for example ... something to do with geography and you just happened to ... swot upon the right thing in the library ... is that what you mean
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Is that cheating?
- All: No
- Researcher: That's just clever revision
- Kelly: Yeah, 'cos you found out on your own
- Researcher: 'Cos you didn't know what the question was ... so if getting the answer sheet, that's cheating ...
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: What about finding the questions without the answers?
- Worm: That's still cheating
- Raz: Like then you could keep that sheet with the answers ... but without ... with the questions, but without the answers, and then you could find the answers to all the questions
- Researcher: So is that cheating then if you've had to go of and find your own answers?
- All: Yeah
- Raz: 'Cos you knew the questions ... and then other people might not know the questions
- Researcher: I see, so you still have an advantage over everyone else
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: OK, right ... um ... making up results for example, for a science experiment in class ... you don't get time to finish it and you have to write it up for homework ... so you write in some numbers for how long it took the water to boil ... is that cheating?
- All: No
- Researcher: Not really?
- Worm: You'd get it wrong anyway, because it ... 'cos ... other people have done it then ... and then I don't know
- Researcher: No, no, carry on
- Steve: There isn't always a right answer for how long it takes water to boil
- Egg: The results, not all of them, are always the same
- Researcher: Yeah with things like that you can have any kind of results, but the fact that you made them up ... and just wrote them in off the top of your head ...
- Egg: Oh not even thought about it?
- Researcher: Well you didn't get time to do the experiment because like ... you were chatting to your friends
- Egg: Oh I see
- Steve: You haven't done the experiment ... you just written them in
- Researcher: Yeah ... you didn't actually do the experiment because you were, I don't know, reading a magazine of something ... you had to do it for homework and you had to produce a table full of nice numbers on how long it took water to boil ... how long it took salty water to boil etc. ... if you just write it in is that cheating?
- All: Yeah
- Worm: It's like you haven't done it have you ... you haven't done any of the work ... can't be bothered to do it
- Researcher: You ... You don't all seem to be in agreement
- Steve: 'Cos they could like ask you a question on it, like they could say ... the teachers' would say 'what happened to the water while was boiling?' or something ... not that it's bubbling ... but what happened to it, and you wouldn't know the answer because you didn't do it
- Researcher: Yeah ... I mean ... you still get the impression that some of you think ... 'oh yea it's cheating' and some of you are not quite so sure ... would you say it's serious cheating?
- All: Not ... not serious
- Raz: If you did the experiment and um ... you didn't ... it didn't turn out right and you just tried to work out the answer ... for it then I don't think that would be cheating

- Researcher: So you've done the results but you didn't get what you thought everybody else would so you ... like twitched them a bit ...
- Raz: You looked like ...
- Steve: But you have actually done the experiment ... but you didn't get the results right
- Researcher: So you put the results in that should have been right
- Steve: Yeah
- Researcher: So that's not cheating?
- Steve: I don't think so
- Researcher: OK ... um ... copying paragraphs from a text book and re-arranging the words to make them sound as though you wrote them ... so what it is, is taking a text book you have at school ... and writing out something from the text book and saying 'that's my idea
- Jo: If you were researching it and ... um ... you had to write it in your own words, you just changed a few ... then that would be OK
- Egg: If you've read it
- Steve: If you've actually read it then that's OK I think
- Researcher: Egg, you were going to say something
- Egg: Um, I was going to say the same
- Researcher: Do you ... in school ... are you allowed to copy straight from books?
- All: No
- Kelly: Well sometimes
- Steve: Yeah the teacher says
- Raz: Sometimes they do say 'take this and write it in your own words'
- Researcher: Right, so sometimes you take notes on something ... does that happen very often?
- All: Yeah ... it does at our school
- Researcher: OK ... two or more students agreeing before hand to communicate answers to each other during an exam or test ... do you understand what I mean by that ? Like waving to each other or saying 'what's the answer to number two?' and you agreed before had that you were going to communicate to each other
- All: Yeah I think that's cheating
- Researcher: Is it always cheating?
- Raz: Well, if it wasn't in a test then it might not be cheating
- Researcher: What's not a test?
- Raz: If you are in a test and you were signalling to each other the answers, but if you weren't in a test
- Researcher: So if you're working quietly in class ... is that what you mean?
- Steve: Yeah and then you can say you were just confirming the answer ... you can say you were gonna keep your answer but you were just like making sure that it was right
- Researcher: In what kind of subject would that happen?
- Worm: Um ... maths
- Egg: French
- Researcher: How in French?
- Egg: Well we have French tests and if you don't know the words ... and if you don't know the words ... if you've gotta write it down in French and you don't know it
- Worm: If you know the word but you don't know how to spell it or something ... right OK... copying from a neighbour during an exam they don't realise that you are copying
- All: Yeah that's cheating
- Researcher: Is it always cheating?
- All: Yeah.
- Researcher: Can you never have any excuses?
- All: No
- Researcher: You're not very forgiving [laughter] um ... doing another students' coursework or homework for them ... so ... Worm decides she'll do Kelly's homework for her
- Jo: Yeah ... I think just like that because Kelly didn't bribe her or anything
- Researcher: Yeah just like that because you're friends?

- Steve: Kelly didn't do anything ... Oh I'll do your homework for you
- All: Yeah
- Egg: Well Kelly said, Can you do my homework and you said year sure
- Steve: That's cheating
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Is it ... Kelly you're not sure ... is it always cheating?
- Kelly: Um ... if they understood before hand
- Jo: If they knew how to do it ... but had to ... were depressed or had a hard time
- Researcher: So I'm getting the impression that as long as the person's understood it and it's not like they're going to miss out at school it's OK
- Steve: If Kelly told Worm how to write out her homework then ... I don't think that would be cheating because she knew how to do it, but she needed to go to Guides or something
- Raz: If it was like they were on a joint project or something and then like Kelly didn't have time to do it ... and then Worm said 'oh if you haven't got time I'll do it for you
- Researcher: That's OK?
- Raz: Yeah
- Researcher: But as long as the other person has understood exactly how the homework went so that if they did have to do it ... in a test they could do it
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Right OK ... um ... handing in a piece of coursework or homework and saying it's yours when in fact it was written with a friend ... I think you mentioned that in your story didn't you ... Steve?
- Steve: With a friend
[Interruption]
- Researcher: Right, where were we?
- Steve: I mentioned something
- Researcher: Yeah you mentioned um ... doing a piece of homework together and then handing it in and saying it's your own ... but in fact your got a friend to help you when you weren't allowed.
- Kelly: She might have explained it so you knew what to do
- Egg: If they told you the answers or something like that or helped you do the answers, it's not, but if they just explained what you're supposed to do, if you dint understand, then it would be all right
- Researcher: Right so, for example, in a maths problem ... it would be cheating if you said 'the answer's 24', but if they no, you do this, then that, then that ...
- Steve: Then you get the answers
- Kelly: You just explain how to do it
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Does that happen in maths?
- Kelly: Mmm
- Researcher: In any other subjects ... or is it not quite that easy?
- Kelly: Well ... if you had homework from English or something
- Researcher: What kind of situation could you apply to that to? ... What kind of homework do you get in English?
- Worm: Reading? Um ... writing
- Researcher: Writing what?
- Steve: Stories and ...
- Jo: Poems
- Researcher: Can you cheat like that, writing a poem, somebody else tells you how to do it... or not?
- All: Um ... No, I don't think so
- Researcher: What about when you're reading a book, supposing you've been given ... I don't know, Romeo and Juliet or Lord of the Flies ... to read and you happen to have a cassette tape and you go home and listen to it instead?
- All: No
- Jo: Well yeah, 'cos you get ... you take the stuff in by reading it not listening to it
- Steve: If they've told you that you definitely have to read it
- Jo: Yeah 'cos it wouldn't be fair on other people who didn't have the cassette

- Researcher: It's the same thing only one you hear and one you look at
- Kelly: Yeah, but if you
- Jo: English is reading
- Raz: Yeah, but other people might have spent ages reading through the book...and the other person just spent a few hours listening to a tape
- Researcher: So you're saying it's not fair
- Raz: Yeah
- Jo: Yeah, but if you're a slow reader and you wouldn't have had time to do it ... 'cos you can't read very fast ... you couldn't really do a whole book, but you could listen to it on a tape
- Researcher: Do you agree with her? Do you think that's fair?
- All: Yeah
- Raz: But you should ask your teacher first
- Kelly: You should try to read some of it
- Steve: Or if you have dysle ... dysle ... dyslexia
- Jo: Yeah but if one person had the cassette and started making copies of the cassette and selling it, I don't think that's right
- Researcher: That's enterprise isn't it! You don't think that's right?
- Jo: No
- Researcher: That's making money of it ... attempting to get your teacher to give you extra help or credit by taking them presents or by using your friendship with them
- Worm: That's cheating but they wouldn't let you do it ... would they
- Researcher: They might ... if you take your teacher an apple or sucked up to them 'cos they were the teacher's pet they might give you more help
- Egg: If you needed their help ... they will give it to you
- Steve: If it's for an exam or something, they allow you to get extra tutoring
- Researcher: From the teachers
- Steve: You can just get it from the teachers
- Egg: Only if they are behind in their work
- Researcher: So you could only get special help, extra help if you are behind in your work
- Egg: Sometimes ... people pay
- Researcher: For extra tuition
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: But what about if um ... you've done tests ... OK ... and the tests have been handed in and then ... you try and be really nice to your teacher or take them something or give them something ... so that they will mark it better.... If it's a story, because with a, you can give any mark to ... there's no right or wrong answer ... is there?
- Steve: That's cheating
- Raz: The teachers wouldn't do it...
- Egg: The teachers wouldn't know what you were trying to do I don't think...
- Researcher: you don't think they are that clever!
- All: No
- Jo: For bribery they'd (unclear) better marks
- Researcher: So that's cheating?
- Egg: If you just gave them an apple they would just think 'oh that's nice of her' ...they wouldn't oh just say 'oh she was nice to me today, I'll just put an extra mark on'...
- Researcher: How about saying 'here's a tenner, give me A'
- Kelly: Yeah 'cos kind of like they'd have to let you off because of guilt or something ... 'cos
- Raz: They'd like tell you off
- Researcher: Yeah it's a risk you've got to take.
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: OK handing in coursework or homework that was done with the help of your teacher as if it was your own work...this more applies to GCSE... when you have coursework that goes off to

- exam...and the teacher can help you...and they shouldn't really ... but it's a teacher...so is it cheating?
- Raz: Yeah
- Worm: No
- Researcher: Right Raz you say yes, why do you say yes?
- Raz: 'Cos like they might have helped just a few people ... and then there could be a whole year group ... that didn't have any help ... if they weren't supposed to help you then I think it would be cheating ...
- Researcher: Right um ... Worm, you said no, why don't you think its cheating?
- Worm: Well because if you asks them to, then other people can ask them to as well.
- Researcher: Right just by asking?
- W: Yeah
- Researcher: Anybody could ask and the teacher could help anybody ...
- Worm: I think so
- Steve: But if they're not meant to I don't think they would.
- Researcher: What about getting homework...homework, help from your parents for homework?
- All: That's OK.
- Researcher: Why? What makes that different ... to getting help from a friend?
- Kelly: Because like your parents ... like the curriculum change and everything, they may not know ... the answers, but they can help you ... but the teachers know everything about the new curriculum and they can give you ... good help in the answers.
- Researcher: What kind of help is allowed then?
- Kelly: Explaining what you're supposed to do.
- Worm: You can ask questions.
- Steve: Or Help you learn something when you have to learn something.
- Researcher: How would you get them to help you learn something?....
- Steve: If like you have a spelling test or something, you can go through them on your own on paper
- Researcher: So do you all agree that's allowed?
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: No I've done my 20 odd behaviours ... um ... what kind of tests and exams do you have through the year ...
- Worm: SAT's
- Researcher: What is SAT's because I haven't come across those.
- Worm: Um it's just big tests.
- Steve: Every two years isn't it?
- Kelly: Every three ...
(Unclear)
- Researcher: Hang on a minute let's start with somebody ... who wants to say what's in the SAT's ... what do you get tested on ... Kelly, what do you get tested on?
- Kelly: Everything ... Science, English and Maths.
- Researcher: And what kind of questions do you have.... multiple choice? Short answers ... long essays?
- Worm: Well you ... revise from what you've done in the previous year and ... then um ... they just ask you questions ... on what you've done over the years ...
- Researcher: In class?
- Worm: Yeah over the years ... it's like revision of what you've learnt.
- Steve: In science they have like some questions about weather, which you know you've covered when you were working.
- Jo: In English you have to do like handwriting and stories ... and things like that ...
- Researcher: Are they important ... the SAT's?
- Jo: They are ... when you have your SAT'S before your GCSE's they tell you what mark you're gonna ... what expected mark you're gonna get for your GCSE's.
- Researcher: So ... your SAT's in your third year might say whether you go into the top group for GCSE or the bottom group ...

- Ali: Yeah
- Researcher: Are they worth cheating on ... are they really important ... or are they 'oh it doesn't matter'....
- Kelly: They're not that important ... but if you cheat on a SAT's in year 9, for your GCSE's then you get put into the top group and then you can't do the questions can you?
- Jo: That's mocks isn't it?
- Raz: Mock's is more important ... mock's are practice tests.
- Kelly: Big ones.
- Researcher: This the third or fourth year?
- Worm: Third year I think.
- Egg: SAT's you have in late infants, late juniors ... and year 9 of senior school ...
- Researcher: So when are you having yours?
- Egg: We've just had ours ...
- Worm: I've got mine next year.
- Researcher: So what other kinds of tests do you get in class.
- Worm: We um ... have spelling tests.
- Kelly: French ones.
- Raz: We have French and German tests when we have to know how to spell the words...
- Researcher: So you have spelling tests in French and how do you get tested on those?
- Raz: Well we have to.
- Jo: It's normally like a tape recording.
- Raz: We have a vocab book and we have to write down our own ... the words and what they mean ... and then we have to learn each word and then the teacher will say it in English or whatever language it is and then ... you got to spell it right.
- Researcher: and write it down ... what's this about a tape machine?
- Raz: It's just like a lady saying the letters ... words ... in French and you've just gotta write it down in English.
- Steve: In maths you've got like mental tests.
- Researcher: What are they?
- Steve: Um ... they're just like little tests ... of problems ... that you've covered in class ... it's just like ... 10, 20 questions that you like do every now and again ... our teacher normally makes us do them when he gets stressed ...
- Researcher: What does that mean?
- Steve: Um if we don't understand anything and he's told us about 3 times and we still don't understand it ... he goes 'right mental test' ...
- Raz: We have like modules and we have like ... measure or things like that ... and then we have a module test at the end of each one and we... have a test on all the work we done in that module.
- Researcher: And is that like 'question ... please write the answer'?
- Raz: Um... it like all problems and it's like problems we've been taught how to do and then we have it like written problems and we've gotta solve them...
- Researcher: Can you give an example?
- Raz: No...
- Researcher: Let's come back to your mental tests... does he just write them on the board or does he ... have a piece of paper ready ...
- Steve: Um ... he ... like has this little book ... it and he reads out these questions and you've got to write down the answers in your book...
- Researcher: Can you think of any questions as an example?
- Steve: Um...well one of them was... the train leaves at 9.30 ... and then it goes into another station at 10 o'clock...what happened how many minutes...when it was sitting in between.
- Researcher: Do you enjoy those?
- Steve: No
- Researcher: Are there any tests that you do enjoy?
- Steve: No
- Researcher: Are there any tests that you do enjoy?

- All: No
- Researcher: Do you have any other tests?
- Jo: At the end of terms we have tests on everything that we have been learning in the past.
- Researcher: Is that 'there's a question...write the answer? In a few sentences.'
- Jo: Yeah
- Steve: Every subject.
- Jo: I remember in history they...we've been learning about the Tudors and they say who was...King Henry the 3rd...um 8th? ...and things like that ...and how many wives did he have and what were they called?...and that sort of thing.
- Researcher: So you have short answers?
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Do you ever have to write long answers, like a whole page?
- All: Yeah
- Jo: English
- Kelly: In Chemistry... you have to explain...not a whole page, just half a page...
- Researcher: and in English.
- Egg: You have to write stories... and if umthe short story.
- Raz: I don't mind English tests cos itit depends on how good the story is whatever...it's not whether you get it right or wrong
- Steve: Cos for one of your tests in English we have to write a short story in less than 1,000 words...I mean a 100 words!
- Researcher: So you were saying, if there's no right or wrong answer like a story that's a better test than one that you can score 50 out of a 100 on ...
- Raz: Well I'm not saying it's better, but it's like more fun ... 'cos then you don't ... you know that you can't exactly get it wrong....
- Researcher: Because it's ideas, but with maths there's only one right answer?
- Raz: Yeah.
- Jo: And also if you have those kinds of tests people say well I got more than you... and things like that.
- Researcher: And you can be judged against each other...
- All: Yeah
- Steve: And you can use your imagination if you have to write a story but you have to use your brain to think of the answers and work things out.
- Worm: And sometimes um...in English you have to read a story and then answer questions to it.
- Kelly: In English if you have to write stories you usually get homework or something so you can spend as long as you like on it...sometimes we get told to write a story and we get to do it for homework.
- Researcher: And that's a test.
- Kelly: Yeah sort of
- Researcher: Egg you had your hand up before and were trying to say something.... What's your favourite kind of test?
- Egg: Science because its easy...'cos they just had pick up pieces of equipment and say 'name this'
- Researcher: Oh nice... so that' was a good test because it was easy...so the worst tests are the ones that are really hard.
- All: Yeah
- Researcher: Right now... we've gone through loads of behaviours ... do you think that your teachers would agree that they were cheating? ... Do you think your teachers would say 'oh that's not very serious' or 'ooh hang able offence'?
- Worm: They would think it's serious.
- Researcher: What every single one?
- Egg: Only the mean ones.
- Researcher: What do you mean?
- Egg: Only the ones who make you do hard work.
- Researcher: Different kinds of teachers.
- Worm: Yeah some are horrible and really strict.

- Jo: They all have different opinions.
- Steve: There's some strict ones and they like...pick you up on every single little thing ... there's some really nice ones and they just let things to by...
- Researcher: So for some teachers its easier to cheat than for others?
- All: Yeah.
- Researcher: Because they won't mind as much...or...they let it pass.
- Jo: They'll let it pass or they don't notice...
- Raz: Well they might notice and they won't give you...they'll just let it go...they'll still give you a talking to, but not as much as they do as a strict on.
- Researcher: So you kind of like think 'oh it doesn't matter what they said 'cos they're nicer'
- Kelly: No they might give you a detention or something...if someone speaks to you and says if you do it again you'll get a detention or something like that...
- Steve: If you were like...um...writing something down when the teacher was talking...just a little quick something...the strict teacher might give you a detention and tell you off.. and a nicer teacher... a not very strict teacher might just say... they won't say anything they'll just carry on.
- Researcher: But you would know that they had seen you cheat... and that would be enough to make you stop... just the fact that... that they know what you're up to...
- Steve: Mmm
- Researcher: They don't actually have to say anything to you.
- Steve: Mm they look at you....
- Researcher: In the way that teachers have.
- So there are no teachers that you know of that are real walkovers? That you know... that can't keep control... and you just like ignore them.
- Worm: There was one in my old school called Mrs Potts... and we used to just do nothing... and if she told us off we'd say 'well' ... and we used to make fun of her...
- Researcher: So you could get away with murder.
- Kelly: And we used to chuck paper everywhere.
- Researcher: So if you had your Mrs Potts in secondary school ... would you think 'of stuff it ... I'll cheat ... nothing's going to happen'...
- Worm: Well she wouldn't notice because she's too busy trying to quieten down the rest of the class.
- Researcher: So would you cheat?... I'm not saying you would ... but... if the opportunity arose ... would you cheat in one of her classes... because it's easier.
- Steve: I don't think that you would because you'd be trying to learn the things for your exams.
- Jo: If it was like a little small test... it wouldn't really matter.
- Egg: If you ... had to cheat with any teacher ... then you'd do it with the easiest.
- Researcher: So the really strict one's don't have much cheating.
- All: No
- Researcher: OK ... have you got anything else on cheating that you think I really ought to know about? Thank you every so much for taking part.

APPENDIX 4 (iii)

Transcript for focus group three

- Researcher: Who'd like to go first and read theirs out nice and clear?
- X: Hello, I'm Mr X, I'm in the first year of secondary school. There was a person called Q and 007, who were in first year primary. A new boy came to their class, he was called me... one day 007 and Q played a trick on me... and said if you copy the boffin of the class you will get a merit, so he copied her and go sent to the head. The end.
- Researcher: Good story... what does first year primary mean... I don't understand that?
- X: Um... 5-6 years old.
- Researcher: 5-6 years old... OK... Thanks.
- Q: Hello, my name is Q and I'm in the first year at school. One day a class went into a Spanish lesson knowing they had a test... one of the boys... one of the boys at school did not know a lot of Spanish and he got all the answers off the girl sitting next to him... the next Spanish lesson they... had ... they got ... their results, the boy got found out and suspended for one day...
- Researcher: Nasty... OK brilliant, thank you.... Now... Obviously I'm going to ask you about cheating but what I really want to know is what you think cheating is, so can you think of a typical thing a person who cheats does? ... What kind of things does a cheater do? ...
- Q: Well like, copying and stuff like that ...
- X: Copying in tests.
- Researcher: Is there any way else that cheaters work?
- Q: Like, say using the maths lesson... like and you got to mark your own work ... like then they go up to the front and look at the answers... and take down the answers and stuff.
- Researcher: How do you mean?
- X: If like you do timetables tests, and there out of 12 and say like you only get 9 ... but you ... she asks you to do 'em ... because you're a good class, you tick them all right and you, she gives like chocolates or something at the end.
- Researcher: Really?
- X: That's what I got.
- Researcher: Good ... Do you have the answer papers at the front on the class?
- Q: Yes ... she does just like ... um ... she says ...
- X: She writes the answers down like ...
- Q: When you get to a certain number you can get an answer paper ... and then take them home ... some people like when they have to answer them ... they go up to the front ... pick out an answer card and then like tick them all...
- X: And then carry on ... but change the answers.
- Researcher: And that's in mathematics?
- X: Yeah
- Q: Usually it is.
- X: Usually but in ... in um ... English ... we were told what to do ... and this boy sitting next to me ... he's stupid... and he wrote under the table what the... answers to the questions she was going to ask us ...
- Researcher: What kind of answers?
- X: What like ... I've forgotten what they were called now ... things like on punctuation ... things like that ... what are ... he'd written them on the side of the table ... like that ... and then she um ... the boy sitting next to him ... had a ... told her and he got two weeks detention.
- Researcher: Two weeks detention ... so it didn't work ... what other things do cheaters do in other subjects?
- Q: Um ... they might just like, ask someone ... usually ... so like if they were usually sitting next to a friend ... um ... like, usually they might just ask them ... they might just tell them.
- Researcher: What like whisper across?
- Q: Yeah

- X: My friend said one, like, that ... um ... this boy in his class ... he didn't say who it was ... he just ... um ... he got ... what we had to do ... we had to make like sand ... certain ... salty waters like that ... and in to pure water ... and um ... this boy next to him, he done it and he swapped them over ... 'cos the boy went up to tell Sir ... and ... he swapped them over ...
- Researcher: Was he found out?
- Q: I don't think so.
- X: He hadn't said anything else about it ... my friend.
- Researcher: Is science different to other subjects for cheating ... or is it just the same?
- X: The only thing you can do to cheat really is ... like ... where you usually cheat is in tests ...
- Q: When you are doing like paper work and practical ... there isn't much space for cheating in that.
- Researcher: What about homework?
- Q: Homework?
- X: Yeah, sometimes it says, like ... using ... don't use a calculator ... in homework ... and that's pretty simple to do.
- Q: And um ... certain ... and like you can always make up and excuse ... a lot of boys do that in our class.
- X: And some parents ... like don't care if they use a calculator ...
- Q: When sometimes they might even say, like, you're allowed to use a calculator to their Mum and Dad.
- X: Yeah ...
- Researcher: But that's interesting because ... um what you said is like, some boys ... come in and give an excuse ... do you think that's cheating ... making up an excuse for not doing your homework?
- Q: Really it is ... it's just not doing your homework is it.
- Researcher: Right what about if your parents say 'oh go ahead, use a calculator', does that make it all right or is it still not right?
- Q: It's still not right because ... um ... it's what the teachers say ...
- Researcher: Right.
- X: It's ... this boy I know he skived off school ... and ...
- Q: Yeah I know him.
- X: He skived off school and wrote a sick note and forged his Mum's signature ... and done that ...
- Researcher: So that's cheating ... writing a false sick note ... Ok well that's brilliant ... you know you've come up with lots of things ... what I'm going to do now is go through all these behaviours that I've got down here, and I'm going to say to you ... well do you think that's cheating? ... you know ... does it really happen? And um ... is it really serious? ... or is it Oh heck everyone does it' ... right OK ... the first one is allowing your homework to be copied by someone else ...
- X: Well um yeah ... that's cheating ... and you can get a detention for that.
- Q: Yeah and sometimes they might say they've done it together but that's a lie ... I know someone who done that.
- X: It's all right if they're meant to do it together ... and like one person wants to do it and the other person don't ... say like if it's just for one person ... they just um ... um ... they and they ask the other person to copy and give them money, sweets or things like that ... then that is cheating really ...
- Researcher: Right, so let me get this right ... if there is two of you doing the homework and one of you says, 'Can I copy?' ... That's wrong ... but if you both agree ... that, yeah, it's OK, it's all right ... you can copy I don't mind ... that's all right?
- X: Only if they're meant to be working together.
- Q: Like if they're meant to be working together, then like one says I want to do it all and the other says, go on then ...
- Researcher: Right I'm with you, so 'I don't mind doing all the work, you don't have to worry' ... but if you're not supposed to be working together then ...
- X: It's cheating.
- Q: You can like copy each other ...

One of them might not have done it ... or like can't be bothered and the other one might have ... and um.. like in school next morning... they might have said.. 'Oh can I copy your homework ... 'cos I ain't done it' and if he copies it then ... like the most common excuse is that they did it together.

- Researcher: Right and is.. is.. do you think this kind of cheating is bad or serious or?...
- X: Isn't very.. serious.
- Q: Enough to get a detention with.
- Researcher: Does it happen a lot then?
- Q: Um... yeah.
- Researcher: OK right... um ... taking banned material into an exam or test, for example notes...
- X: Um yeah
- Q: Yeah that's cheating.
- X: Unless like it's a notes test or something like that.
- Researcher: Where you're allowed to ...
- X: And you copy all your notes down from the television programme and you've got to write it in the test, but like in GCSE's you're not allowed to do that...
- Researcher: Right... Good Lord what a noise (background noise) um ... so otherwise if it's for a test.. and nobody else knows you've got the piece of notes there ... that's cheating?
- X: Yeah.. a boy in my brother's class done that ...
- Researcher: Yeah.. did he get found out?
- X: I think so yeah ... because this other boy in the class, he sits next to him... and they were like put together because, like one's like a boffin like and the other one's a nut, really naughty and things like that so...
- Researcher: Right.. is it serious though, taking your notes into an exam?
- X: Yeah, probably.. it could decide your.. if its like GCSE's it could decide your future.
- Q: Say it was like um.... Like an end of term one then it wouldn't be like as serious.
- Researcher: So if it's in the classroom and it's just you and your class.
- Q: That would be cheating ... but you still get a detention for it.
- Researcher: But it's not as bad as.
- X: GCSE'S... because like it can decide your future.
- Researcher: OK brilliant.. lying about your home circumstances, or lying about something.. that's wrong with you ... your ill ... to get extra time to do some work ... or let off a piece of work Supposing you said 'oh I was sick last night', or 'my mum's really ill, I couldn't do my homework' or 'can I have extra time please?'
- Q: Yeah
- X: I'd say is a way it is ...
- Q: That's just lying.
- X: Yeah
- Q: That's just the same as making up and excuse for not doing your homework.
- X: Yeah ... and so you say ... you like pretend you were ill and some people are just allowed to stay at home if they are ill ... and like um ... they boy I know ... he's not in my year ... he ... he put ... he did two of them ... he stayed at home ... they don't go to the school I go to ... they're two twins ... and they stayed at home ... and they went outside ... 'cos their Mum went and their Dad went, and they went outside and started ... playing football and cam back in and done their homework ...
- Researcher: But what if is was GCSE's though ... supposing it's a piece of coursework for your O'level ... and you said 'oh I didn't have time or could I have more time' ... or 'I couldn't do it 'cos ...' ... is making an excuse for GCSE work ...
- Q: That's bad.
- X: That's bad really ... 'cos like you've got to have a really good excuse ... if it's in late for things like ... and if you like just lied ... so that's really like cheating.
- Researcher: So that's cheating ... for GCSE.
- Q: Yeah.

- Researcher: OK um ... copying another student's coursework or homework and they know about it ... they've let you copy ...
- X: Um ... well in the way both of them are cheating ...
- Researcher: Yeah but they'd let you do it though.
- Q: If they've let you do it ... then you're still cheating ... it's still the same ... it doesn't make a difference.
- Researcher: Don't make a difference.
- X: It's just like the other person's not going to start up with it ... 'do you want a copy of my homework?' ... The other person, the person that hasn't done it will probably say 'have you done your homework?' or start if off like ... and the other will just say, 'Do you want to copy mine?'
- Researcher: So the situation where somebody says 'here's my homework, copy it' doesn't happen.
- X: No.
- Q: Really it's just the same... if ... say one person let you copy the homework ... and then ... they might say 'oh um ... you can copy it' ... like ... they could... say if someone went into another person's bag and got their book and started writing it al down ...
- X: That would be bad.
- Q: Then what would be ... then it would still be the same... in some ... like ... circumstances ... like ... they're still just copying.
- Researcher: But if they didn't know about it would it be worse?
- Q: If they didn't know about it, I don't reckon it would be much worse because ... all that's happened is that the other person ... is getting into trouble ... because ... like the teacher will say ... both of your work is the same ... and I think you've been cheating.
- S: Yeah they're like cheating either way really ... because ...
- Researcher: Because whatever happens, they're both going to end up in trouble.
- X: Yeah
- Researcher: Ok ... right ...
- Q: The person who was copying it ... says ... 'oh I got it would of his bag' ...
- Researcher: So unless they own up.
- Q: Yeah.
- Researcher: They're both going to be in for it.
- Q: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... handing in homework ..., which came from outside school ... so someone who wasn't at your school did your homework for you ... or ... you paid them to help you with your homework.
- X: That's still cheating ... but I wouldn't say it's ... you can't really ... you couldn't ... like ... tell anyone like ... 'cos they could add an extra lie to it ... they say 'whose done it?' ... You say it's a person from the other school ... they ask the name you see ... and you could just go off like and say a different school...
- Researcher: So if can't be really found out.
- X: No
- Q: So it's like the teacher knows your handwriting ...
- X: So like they only ... not both of them will get in trouble.
- Researcher: Do you think that kind of thing happens?
- X: Might do.
- Q: I've never heard of anyone paying someone else to do their homework ...
- Researcher: No?
- Q: Or given them like ... sweets or things.
- X: But um ... like ... if
- Q: But people do do their homework for them. I know someone who's done that in my class.
- X: Yeah and if ... say they've done another ... said it as another person from another school ... you could be sly ... it wouldn't be like sly ... the person who said he's from a different school ... 'cos he was the only one that got into trouble ... 'cos it would be his fault that he was the only one that got into trouble ... for a start asking him to ... like ... do his homework ... do the other person's homework ... and then ... he said the wrong school ... so it's his fault.

- Researcher: It's his fault... OK ... um taking an exam or a test for someone else ... or someone else taking and exam or test for you ...
- X: You mean like ...
- Researcher: Supposing you had a test and you say 'oh I don't want to do it' and you took it for him ... you actually sat down and took the test for him in the class...
- X: I've seen some people on ... there was this Grange Hill ... two twins ...
- Q: Oh I saw that.
- X: It was a long time ago ... it was on one of the old one's and they were twins who look exactly alike ... and they um ... one done it ... one was ... I dunno ... I dunno what it was ... the other twin done it for them ...
- Researcher: Is that cheating?
- Q: Yeah.
- Researcher: Is that serious or?
- Q: Yeah
- X: It's like on wrestling ...
- Researcher: Wrestling?
- X: Yeah, they had these um ... person called Doink and he kept on jumping out the ring and ... he was dressed up as a clown so you couldn't tell who he was ... and another Doink would jump ... in ... and when he was injured ... he rolled out the ring and ... got ... and there was about 6 of them.
- Researcher: Right yeah I'm with you ... that happens in cartoons sometimes ...
- Q: I saw something less than a week ago it was ... about two sisters cheating ... I don't know what the programme was ...
- Researcher: On television?
- Q: Yeah two sisters cheating ...
- X: There is this programme on TV ... its called ... um ... cheating and something else ... something and cheating it's called ... it was on Channel 4 ... no Channel 2 schools ... something.
- Researcher: Really? For schools ...
- X: Yeah.
- Researcher: OK let's move on ... in a situation where you mark each others work ... you come to an agreement to give them more marks than they really deserve ...
- A: A lot of people do that.
- X: A lot of people do that.
- Researcher: So is it serious, bad, whatever?
- Q: If it's like just ... say like the teacher gave you some spelling ... a few spellings to learn ... then it wouldn't be like ... that serious ... say if it was a test ...
- Researcher: If it was a really important test, do you think the teacher would let you mark your own work?
- Q: Um ... no.
- X: But like ... I suppose really ... it can't ... get that bad ... 'cos they wouldn't let you if it was an important ... you only way you do it ... we had a maths test ... today ... and she just ... the person next to us had to mark it ... but in science what they do ... if they do something like that ... sometimes it's like important tests ... and they give ... another person to mark it and there's like the questions ... Miss has to mark ... what.
- Q: What you do is collect them all in and shuffle them all up.
- X: Changes them
- Researcher: Yeah and give them out again.
- X: But it starts on the other side of the room ... so when she's shuffled them so that the front ones have gone to the back.
- Researcher: And the back has don't to the front ... right ... um deliberately gaining information about the contents of a test before hand ... so sneaking a look at the test paper ... or finding it somewhere.
- Q: Um ... well ... I don't think you would be able to find the test paper really.
- Fred: You don't thing so.
- X: But it's the teachers, they can't photocopy it ... there's nobody else there ...

- Q: If like a lot of people would do that ... a lot of people who saw the test paper lying about ... on the table when they was alone ... a lot of people would look ... I'd probably have a look at some of the questions 'cos like if you just saw your test paper lying down there then ... they're just tempted.
- Researcher: Yeah ... but it's cheating.
- Q: Yeah ... like.
- Researcher: Bad or not bad?
- Q: Quite bad.
- X: Depends how ... important it is ... and in my class he couldn't do that really because we've got three learning support teachers ...
- Researcher: Ah eyes all round.
- X: Yeah ... and this boy still messes around ... he still ... we were doing ... about the body and things ... and ... um ... Sir ... had written down all these questions ... that he thinks are sensible ... and the boy put in two really unsensible things ... questions ... and then he looked at what Sir had done ... and you had to write your name on them and things ... and there's these two boys and they really like fight and everything ... even in front of teachers ... but teachers don't do anything because they are not allowed ... and he put the other person's name on it ... and they kept on putting loads of things in ...
- Researcher: So they put somebody else's name on it ...
- X: Yeah ... and the um ...
- Researcher: So what happened?
- X: The ... they both got in trouble in the end ... because one person had done it about the other person ... and that person had done it about the person who had done it first like ... so there's both of them in there ...
- Researcher: Right ... um ... two or more students agreeing beforehand to communicate the answers to each other during a test or exam by signalling, passing notes or whispering ...
- X: I've seen that a lot in programmes ... though ... school programmes.
- Q: But I've never really heard of that happening.
- X: Usually like they do all these signs ... say it's maths like and they would do ... figure out all these signs before ... go into ... the tests and they would do some signs and the teachers would say ... 'yeah do you want me?' ... I've seen you ... because he's going like that and like that ... and doing those things ... and she said.
- Researcher: What like putting his hands in the air and waving them around ...
- X: Yeah ... as if he wanted a teacher and she ... said ... and he didn't do it any more ...
- Researcher: Is that on television is it?
- X: Yeah but a lot of ...
- Q: But like people do whisper.
- X: Yeah.
- Q: If they can they would as well ... 'cos usually in tests you get split up.
- Researcher: Right ... so you get space apart ...
- Q: Yeah
- X: In our science right ... you get one person ... 'cos all the desks are joined together ... you get one person sitting on the end ... one like at the end but on the side ... so you get people sitting there and there (demonstrates) and you'd get that on each table ...
- Researcher: Do you think that helps you not copy ... can you still ... see over?
- X: You can usually see ...
- Q: But you've got to sort of lean and the teacher might see you ...
- X: Unless it's my writing.
- Researcher: Unless it's your writing ... why is it that bad?
- Q: If um like the teacher probably wouldn't, like if I was sitting there and he was sitting there he couldn't notice But
- Researcher: You'd have to make a big effort to look would you?
- Q: Yeah
- Researcher: Right ...

- X: In my class ... it's not just ... it's never ... done in tests like ... not important tests ... and they like ... they drop something ... a pen on the floor... and they ... this one boy ... he got caught ... he dropped um ... this other boy wanted an eraser pen and ... so he dropped the eraser pen ... by accident ... on purpose like ... by accident ...
- Researcher: Pretending it was an accident.
- X: He picked up and threw it like that ... 'cos he wanted to get it to the other person and it hit the teacher ...
- Researcher: Oh dear ... what a class you're in ... OK ... handing in a piece ... I think we've won this one ... handing in some homework ... and saying you did it on your own when in fact you did it with a friend ...
- Q: Yeah ... it's the same as the one we did earlier.
- Researcher: OK how about this one ... attempting to get teacher to give you extra help or better marks by taking them presents, or using your friendship with them.
- Q: Um ... I know ... there's a certain boy in my class who's done that a couple of times but it has never worked ...
- Researcher: How?
- Q: I remember ... it was a long time ago ... I think it was in Year 6 ... right at the start of Year 6 ... this boy brought her in an apple ... and it's quite funny ... but it's never worked.
- Researcher: Do you think he was deliberately trying to get ...
- Q: Yeah I'd say he was.
- Researcher: Didn't work.
- Q: It would never work.
- Researcher: No ... would you pay a teacher to get them to help you?
- X: No
- Q: No
- X: It's like when ... we had ... it was an easy game ... we should have won it in football ... on Saturday ... We did in the end ... and my brother was refereeing ... and went in there ... and so me and my friends said we're all giving them £2 ... he took all the money right ... right I'm not going to and he gave it back.
- Researcher: So it's nearly worked but not quite ... OK ... handing in homework that was done ... with the help of your teacher ... and saying that you did it on your own ...
- X: I've seen some people ... they just like ... it was just like extra homework ... they say ... like ours is a learning support teacher ... our tutor ... and ... this ... boy ... he ... she was his teacher ... not her tutor ... he was Year 8 like ... and he's not very brainy ... and he had this test ... and ... told her that it was just extra homework ... it was in maths ... it was just extra homework to do ...
- Researcher: So this boy told the teacher ... it was extra homework when in fact it was important stuff ... and he tricked her into helping.
- X: Yeah and she helped ... he got found out ... he get's into trouble all the time.
- Researcher: Right ... what about ... um ... getting your Mum and Dad, your parents to help you with homework ... is that wrong?
- X: I think ...
- Q: Um ...well ... yeah ...
- X: It depends like ... unless ... they
- Researcher: Q you go first.
- Q: My Mum and Dad helped me with my homework ... and showed me how to work stuff out and then tell me ... how to work it out ... sometimes ... but they would never like tell me the answers ...
- X: That's not cheating like ... if you do that ... this boy in my class ... he's not very brainy ... I'm quite good at maths ... and he's ... the teacher ... sat me next to him ... 'cos um ... what she does ... is he keeps asking me questions and I've got to like ... help him without telling him the answers like ...
- Researcher: So that's not cheating then if you just show ... well you use this, this and this ... and this is how you come up with the answer.
- Q: Yeah ... unless it's in when you're not meant to be talking like ...

- Researcher: So ... it's all right if your parents show you how it works ... but if they actually sit down and say 'that's the answer, that's the answer, that's the answer ...'
- Q: That's cheating.
- X: Unless it's told ... try and work it out by yourself ... bring it ... and then like ... the teacher says bring it into school if you can't do it ... and then I'll help ... but if you ask your parents then to help you ... then that's a bit cheating ...
- Q: I know a certain boy ... in are who had to um ... for homework we had to draw ... a house ... our house ... and um ... he got his Dad to do it ... don't know ... how his Dad actually did it really ... but he got his Dad to do it.
- X: Sometimes ...
- Researcher: So that's cheating?
- X: Sometimes like I get my Dad to draw and outline of something ... on the scrap piece of paper and then ... I try and like copy it.
- Researcher: So it's just help but not doing it all for you?
- X: He only draws the outline and I've got to draw all the bits inside ... but I've gotta like copy it from a scrap piece of paper ...
- Researcher: OK, well that's all the things on here ... can you think of anything else that we haven't thought of that could be cheating?
- Q: Well ... um ... no
- Researcher: You haven't come across anything weird?
- X: In a way though ... if um ... drugs is cheating ... like in athletics ... and football..
- Researcher: Yeah because it's getting an advantage over other people, isn't it?
- Q: Yeah I saw this on a film once ... this like ... um ... man ... he's at college and he um ... walked into this test one day with this broken arm ...
- Researcher: Oh yeah.
- Q: And this eye patch over ... like he had an eye patch over ... he had the answer on an eye patch ... and then
- Researcher: Have you ever seen that happen in real life?
- Q: Um ... this boy I know ... he said ... that like ... he's got this friend and his Mum like ... does this thing on his arm and he could get it on and tuck his answers down there ... and he ... couldn't persuade this boy's Mum to get his plaster of Paris on his arm.
- Researcher: Oh dear ... so it was a good idea ... do you reckon it would have worked?
- Q: It might have ...
- X: I don't know how they could do it though ... really ... you see him looking down like that and the teacher would say ... 'What's he doing?'
- Researcher: What about if you've got long hair and you're a girl and you put your hair round so no-one can see ...
- X: What some people do in my class is ... they're doing something wrong and the teacher looks at them and they just go like that ... and then carry on speaking like that and the other person catches on ... and they just sit there listening ... but like ... pretending ... and they look down and go 'oh' like that ... but they're listening ... and when the teacher looks away again ... you look up ... the teacher goes away ... and you answer what the boy was saying ... if it's a question ... or he's just asking you ...
- Researcher: Right ... is there any time when somebody cheats and ... it's special circumstances ... and you think ... well maybe it's all right because ... is there ever a circumstance when it's all right to cheat because something has happened?
- Q: There probably is a circumstance but I can't actually think of one ...
- Researcher: So if somebody had a really good excuse you'd think 'I know it's wrong ... but'
- Q: There probably is but I couldn't tell you.
- Researcher: Um ... what kind of tests and exams do you have in school?
- Q: End of term one's and they do have like on every now and then ...
- X: Yeah ... just like maths.
- Researcher: What kind of tests do you have in maths?

- Q: Maths it's um ...
- X: Tables and we do like tables and like ...
- Q: Yeah 1 to 20's
- X: And that's for just like nothing important like ... that's just like a test ... and then what you do is you get like ... level one ... level two ... three, four ... like that and you do that and whatever level you're on.
- Researcher: What are they, like work out sums and stuff or not?
- X: They're like all ... some of them ... are ... sums ... and some of them ... it's just general maths.
- Researcher: Just maths problems ... so you get ... those like ... throughout the term ...
- Q: And you have like some like ...
- X: It's usually one a term or something like that.
- Researcher: What about in ... French, Spanish or what other language you do? What kind of tests do you get then?
- Q: We've had one quite recently in my Spanish lesson ... but like ... um ...
- Researcher: What kind of test was it ... was it like a spelling test ... or ... fill in the missing words?
- Q: It's sort of like ... um ... our Spanish teacher's got a tape and she plays it ... like ... It's composition in Spanish ... I don't know what it's on about ... but ... tell us about ... what you gotta do ... you learn about places like bars ... and hotels and discos and stuff ... and you learn what they are called ... in the Spanish and then you've got to put a number ... you listen to a tape and then put the number next to the picture.
- Researcher: Right ... so you try and work out what they are talking about as they ...
- Q: But I couldn't really answer.
- X: Yeah I do French right and we've got this book called 'Advantage' ... and um ... what they do ... is they have ... um ... like a person ... number 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 ... their numbered ... and this person says ... what his name is, where he comes from and all that ... and he likes ... going to discos and things like that ... and they give you a clue ... where might somebody be standing and dancing ...
- Researcher: OK so you have to work out what the people are doing as part of the tests ... do you have ordinary vocab tests?...
- Q: Yeah at the moment our homework is to learn the vocab.
- X: Yeah and you can't cheat really ... it's not that important ... but you're still cheating because it won't do any good like ... 'cos you get an A ... and when it comes to the big important tests ... it won't work ... sometimes what they do is put the answers upside down at the bottom ... and um ... this boy he wears glasses and he ... he's stupid ... and he has a mirror ... like ... and he's always looking at the mirror and doing his hair like that ... and then sometimes in the tests he gets the mirror out and goes like that ... and reads it upside down ...
- Researcher: Nifty ... does it work?
- X: Yeah ... he gets caught a few times ... he doesn't get much like in his interval assessment.
- Researcher: Right ... what about in English?
- Q: Spelling tests.
- X: Yeah ... mainly spelling tests.
- Researcher: Writing stories or anything?
- Q: Yeah ... writing stories ... and I think, I've had one test to write a story about a couple of pages long ... and then ... and just like stories and spelling tests really...
- Researcher: Can you cheat on stories?
- Q: Stories ... well I don't know many cheats on stories.
- Researcher: Is it possible?
- X: In home ec today ... um I cheated.
- Researcher: Oh dear ... what did you do?
- X: It wasn't that bad really ... because the other group were cooking like ... we were just writing things down ... and if we didn't write three paragraphs we would get a detention and she wouldn't check it or anything ... she would just get them and throw them in the bin ... it was about a page ... and um ... we had to fill in the missing words ... and I missed out some sentences ... but they weren't all in one go.

- Researcher: She wouldn't look at it.
- X: She'd just think oh ... right he's done enough and throw it in the bin ... as long as ... like ... you leave a little space ...
- Researcher: So it looks like paragraphs.
- X: If you only had like half a page and it was all joined up apart from like from there ... even if it had filled the page she might think that's a bit weird.
- Researcher: So?
- Q: I usually ... our history teacher ... she always tells me to leave one line under the title and then start your writing ... I usually leave about 5!
- Researcher: To make it look more?
- Q: In between paragraphs I leave about 2 or 3 ... just to make it look more ...
- Researcher: I remember doing that myself ... um ... do teachers think that everything that you've said is cheating ... is cheating as well ... or do they think it's not cheating?
- X: Most of them do ... but sometimes they think some cheating isn't ... like ... um ... our history teacher, she ... like's out of it ... um ... she said to me like ... me and my friend ... all we were doing was a little drawing ... and we had to draw what we think Roman roads ... we had to draw our own Roman city like ... and all I did was looked across and looked back and like ... we done that and she said that was cheating ... and then another time ...
- Researcher: So you were drawing a Roman road, it wasn't a test or anything ... and just looked over at your friend and what he was doing ... and she said that's cheating ... did she do anything?
- Q: Our history teacher, you try and explain to her but she won't listen.
- Researcher: She's dead strict is she?
- Q: Yeah she is ... she won't listen to your excuse ...
- X: Once she said that um ... you got to work in pairs ... because we were doing like this board game ... and ... we read this thing and we said what do you reckon the answers are, and she comes over and says and 'what are you speaking to each other for? ... Like that ... and you say ... 'but miss'
- Researcher: So strict cheating ... pick up cheating ... or think more things are cheating that soft teachers.
- Q: Yeah ... say you were talking about your work ... she usually likes silence in our lesson ... she might think you are talking about cheating.
- Researcher: So are there any teachers that are a push over and they just don't pick anything up?
- X: Not exactly ... but if it's a lot ... they would pick it up ... but if like ... If our history teacher ... she picks up everything ... but some teachers would only pick up the important bits ...
- Q: Yeah, my English teacher ... he um ... you could cheat ... quite easy in his lessons ... he's and alright teacher ... and um ... sometimes ... we tell each other the answers and he just listens and it's a bit of a laugh really.
- Researcher: Right so to him it's not really cheating ... cheating's not a bad thing ...
- Q: He like does football as well ... and he's like all right.
- Researcher: OK can you think of anything else that you think you should educate me about cheating?
- Q: I can't think of anything.
- Researcher: No ... any amazing revelations ... like his mate with this plaster?
- X: Somebody could get a pen ... a teacher could ask someone to ... or the teacher could have pen like ... 'cos a lot of ... our history teacher when she comes up to you she says 'haha' like that ... says 'hello' and taps you on the arm like ... and she ... what you could do is have a blunt thing ... like they do ... and you could have a fake arm on.
- Researcher: What purpose would that serve?
- X: And she would touch your arm and it would fall off and blood squirts out.
- Researcher: So you would get out of the test then wouldn't you ... OK we'll call a day there then.

APPENDIX 4 (iv)

Transcript for focus group four

- Researcher: OK, who would like to go first and read out their ... OK let's start with you Hi.
- Hi: Hello my name is Hi and I am in the third year. My friend and her friend decided to cheat on their GCSE Maths. I didn't know what to do as they were my friends but I knew I had to tell someone.
- Researcher: OK brilliant thanks ... um ...
- Marie: Hello my name is Marie and I am in the third year ... Sarah hadn't revised for a French test so she copied Sam as it was an important test ... the mark counted towards the GCSE's, she felt really bad and knew it was wrong, but needed a good mark. Sam hadn't realised what Sarah had done.
- Researcher: Mm thanks ... and er ... Beavis.
- Beavis: Hello my name is Beavis and I am in the second year. Mary was in a lesson and did not know the answers to a question in her exam. So she looked at Gemma's paper to find out what the answer was to this question. She didn't think this was very bad.
- Researcher: OK lovely thanks ... right I've got a list of things here that I want to pick your brains about, but the first thing I want to get from you is ... if you think a person who cheats ... imagine somebody who cheats ... what kind of things do they get up to in school? What kind of situations do they get into where they can cheat? ... um ... for example, how would they cheat in a maths test?
- Marie: Um ... they get like, they might have seen a paper on the teachers desk and think, 'oh yeah I'll have a look at that' ...
- Hi: and like copying the person next to them.
- Researcher: How would they do that? ... I mean is it always sitting in your normal desk ...
- Marie: You can sit next to each other sometimes ... you don't sit very far away from them ...
- Hi: You sit opposite each other .
- Researcher: You sit opposite? Is it still possible to look over?
- Marie: Yeah and sometimes you can put notes inside your pencil case and then read off the notes.
- Researcher: Anywhere else other than your pencil case?
- Marie: People write it on their hands.
- Hi: On your arms.
- Researcher: Hang on a minute ... this pen one, explain the pen bit
- Hi: Just write it on the inside of the top or something.
- Researcher: And pull the piece of paper out when no one's looking ... what else did you say Marie.
- Marie: Writing things on arms or something ... and you can pull up your sleeve and like look at the answers.
- Researcher: Do you think that's possible? Do you think it would work.
- Marie: Yeah, because you're just sat there at your desk, just like that writing away ... and you can.
- Researcher: 'Cos you're covering your work aren't you?
- Marie: Yeah, like that, and you can just look at it.
- Hi: And then ... we had a German test just recently I mean it wasn't a major one or anything, but we had our test books in our bags ... so some people took out their test books, and were looking through the test book.
- Researcher: How easy is that to do?
- Hi: It's quite easy actually because most of the time during tests the teachers are marking other work.
- Researcher: So they're not watching you.
- Hi: Yeah
- Researcher: So are there many subjects where you can get away with quite a lot?
- Marie: Yeah, I think it's just in the major tests like GCSE's and A-levels.
- Researcher: That people don't?
- Marie: Yeah
- Researcher: OK what other ... think about something like science. What would a cheater do in science, to cheat?
- Marie: The same things really.

- Yeah, the same things ... but I don't think they would like look at you ... the paper ... the person's paper, 'cost they might sit at opposite ends of something.
- Researcher: So it might not be quite so easy.
- Marie: Yeah
- Researcher: OK well what I've got here. Do you recognise this?
- Marie: Yeah
- Researcher: If I quickly whiz through those you can tell me what you think ... whether you think it's a serious form of cheating or whether you think it just doesn't happen, or I've got the wrong end of the stick ... OK ... um ... Allowing your own coursework or homework to be copied by someone else?
- Marie: I don't think that's that major but it does happen.
- Hi: No
- Marie: I do copy other people's and they copy mine.
- Researcher: But is it cheating?
- Marie: Not really.
- Hi: It is in a way, because you're not really doing your own work are you?
- Beavis: But as long as the other person agrees with that I think it's like, OK.
- Marie: Yeah
- Hi: Yeah, if you go and take it out of their bag or something like that, then that's ... out of order ... you shouldn't do that ...
- Researcher: So if you copy someone's homework and they didn't know you were doing it ... that's worse than like, saying, 'oh I'll copy yours ... you can copy mine'?
- Hi: Yeah
- I think if they agree to it then that's all right.
- Researcher: Is it like, on a scale of 1 to 10, how serious is it?
- Marie: 2
- Hi: 3, 4
- Researcher: So it's quite low.
- Marie: Yeah
- Researcher: OK um ... well we've covered this one ... Taking banned material into an exam or test, for example notes.
- Hi: I think that's quite major.
- Beavis: Yeah.
- Hi: Because it's a test and you're supposed to learn and revise things from the previous lessons.
- Researcher: But you have like tests in class where you're sitting next to each other and tests like where you're in the gym or the hall ... is one form of taking notes into like, the class tests worse than taking it into the exam?
- Marie: It's worse taking it into the exam hall.
- Hi: Yeah
- Researcher: Why?
- Hi: Well if you have a test in your classroom it's not that important is it ... it's just like an end of year test or something, but in the hall, that's quite important.
- Researcher: What tells you it's important ... what is it that makes you say 'oh this is major, I've really got to sit down and'
- Marie: Well the teachers tell like, 'this is a major test' ... this is just an end of year one'
- Researcher: So they give you an emphasis.
- Marie: Yeah 'so like we're coming up to our SAT's and they keep on about them to us ... so like we know it's quite important.
- Researcher: Right OK ... um what about lying about medical circumstances, um ... or things that are going on at home, so your teacher will let you off a piece of work, or let you have extra time to do it ... pretending you were ill, or saying that your Gran died or something.
- Beavis: Some people do that I think ... they make up excuses for it.
- Researcher: Is that cheating?
- Marie: Not really.

- Beavis: I don't think that's cheating.
- Hi: I think it's wrong though.
- Marie: It's not like major though is it?
- Hi: NO
- Researcher: So, it's not cheating but it's wrong?
- Hi: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... um handing in coursework or homework which came from out of school, for example ... a student from another school who use to go to your school, offered to sell you some of their homework ...
- Hi: I don't think you should do that.
- Beavis: No
- Researcher: So that's wrong, but is it cheating? ... Because you're buying homework already done ...
- Hi: Is it cheating really?
- Marie: It's quite like serious.
- Researcher: Is it serious or
- Marie: Mm it depends what sort of work it is really.
- Researcher: Can you give me an example of when it would be serious?
- Marie: Um ... like, coursework. I think that would be quite serious because ...
- Researcher: That counts towards your final mark.
- Marie: Yeah, yeah.
- Hi: Just little bits of homework ... If it was just like, not a very important subject, say technology ... well I know it's important, but not like one of the main subjects ... if it was like in English or Maths or Science, I think it might be quite bad 'cos that's an important subject.
- Researcher: So you've got main subjects, English, Maths and Science are the three main ones.
- Hi: Yeah.
- Researcher: And anything else is kind of like, an added extra, like a bonus.
- Marie: Mm yeah.
- Researcher: So those three are serious subjects ... would you consider cheating in those three more serious than say?...
- Marie: Yeah
- Hi: Yeah
- Researcher: What even it it's like an in class test and not exams at the end of the year?
- Marie: I think so ... because you're going to need them for more jobs.
- Researcher: Right ... OK ... This one's a good one ... taking an exam or test for someone else, or having someone else take an exam or test in your place ...
- Beavis: No I've never known that to happen.
- Hi: I think the teachers would know ... if you weren't the proper person.
- Researcher: Even in a huge exam hall.
- Hi: Yeah they'd notice.
- Beavis: Somebody would notice, 'cos our school's like quite small, compared to other schools, they know nearly everybody there.
- Researcher: Right ... but would you think that's cheating ... if
- Beavis: Yeah
- Researcher: Serious or
- Marie: Yeah quite serious.
- Hi: Yeah 'cos you can't be bother to even make an effort or do anything, you've got someone else to do it.
- Researcher: Do you think that's quite risky?
- ALL: Yeah
- Hi: I mean that's worse than like writing it on your hand or ... taking pieces of paper in.
- Marie: It's just stupid you shouldn't.
- Researcher: Do you think the reason why it isn't done is because it is so risky?
- ALL: Yeah

- Researcher: Or it's just not worth it?
- Hi: I don't think people think of it, 'cos it's so stupid.
- Beavis: So silly.
- Researcher: OK ... right ... in a situation where you mark each other's work ... you come to an agreement to mark the work more generously ... than you should.
- Beavis: I've done that.
- Hi: Yeah I've done that.
- Researcher: Is that cheating?
- Marie: But not in a major test.
- Beavis: No not in a major test, just like in a little test.
- Marie: Yeah
- Hi: A spelling test or something.
- Marie: I mean it if was a major test ... you wouldn't mark it yourself anyway.
- Researcher: But is that kind of thing cheating.
- ALL: Not really.
- Hi: The teachers know that you're a bit like generous ... if your friends mark it.
- Researcher: Is there a circumstance when doing that would stop being 'all right' and start become cheating? ... What would.
- Hi: Well if they like ... say if you had a spelling test and you got the 'i' and the 'e' the wrong way around, and they'd change that, but if they started like crossing out the work and re-writing that, that's quite, you shouldn't do that ... 'cos you've got it totally wrong.
- Researcher: So it can be serious, but can be 'well its just par for the course', you all do it.
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... um deliberately gaining information about what's going to be in the test paper before you take it ... that's one of the first things you said wasn't it? ... Having a look at the test.
- ALL: Yeah
- Hi: We do that, like in our science lessons ... um like we're in lot of different groups and some groups have the test before other ... they tell us what's in the, so we often do that.
- Beavis: Yeah
- Researcher: Is that cheating?
- Hi: Well like, they just tell you the questions and you like revise them.
- Researcher: And so you are being told the questions but not the answers.
- Beavis: Yeah
- Hi: Yeah kind of they just tell us what's in them ... they just say what sort of aspect of the subject to revise.
- Researcher: OK ... so cheating or not cheating?
- Marie: Not really, no
- Beavis: No
- Researcher: Is it worse than actually seeing the test paper? Supposing the test paper fell into your hands ... it might do ... is that worse than being told revise this topic and that topic.
- Beavis: Mm
- Marie: Yeah
- Researcher: Why? ...
- Beavis: Well because as least if you've like, if somebody else has told you you haven't actually seen the paper.
- Hi: Yeah
- Researcher: So you won't know the actual questions.
- Beavis: Yeah you'll only know what to revise ... the teachers sometimes tell you what to revise anyway.
- Hi: Yeah they do.
- Researcher: So it's kind of like saving their job for them?
- Hi: In our school, they give you a revision sheet at the end of each thing ... to like to over the think, go over the unit.
- Beavis: So it gives you an idea of what to revise for an end of unit.

- Researcher: So if somebody else is saying well this, this and this is in it, well you kind f knew that anyway, 'cos it was on the sheet.
- ALL: Is there any situations where you come across the test paper with the answers on it?
- ALL: No
- Marie: Well in revision sheets I have because where ... people have written on the ... and they like, the teacher hasn't rubbed it out ...
- Researcher: Is that cheating?
- Marie: If you take it home then I think it is.
- Beavis: Yeah that's quite bad.
- Hi: 'Cos that's just like copying isn't it.
- Marie: That's none of your own work.
- Researcher: Right OK ... making up results, for example in a science practical ... because you didn't get time to finish it in class ... so supposing you were making different kinds of liquids boil and you had to see which temperature they boiled at ... you were gassing to your friends ... didn't get a chance to finish it and you had to do it for homework ... so you just put any old results in.
- Marie: I don't think that's too bad.
- Beavis: No
- Marie: Obviously you didn't have enough time to complete the experiment.
- Researcher: But you could have just gone and asked, but instead the person decided they were going to make them up.
- Beavis: We sometimes are told to do that if we don't finish it anyway.
- Researcher: What guess what would have happened?
- Hi: Just use your common sense.
- Researcher: Would there be a situation where that would be wrong? ... OK copying paragraphs from a textbook and saying that the words are your own, or the ideas are your own ...
- Hi: I think teachers know you do that don't they.
- Marie: 'Cos they write 'don't copy' and stuff.
- Researcher: They tell you not to do it?
- Hi: Like, if they read your work ... and they like, read parts somewhere before, like say they provided the text ... and they'd say like 'don't copy'
- Researcher: Is that cheating ... Is that wrong?
- Hi: It's cheating but I don't think it's that bad a cheating ... 'cos it's just saying that you haven't put the effort, like, bothered to put it into your own words ... you just bothered to cheat I suppose.
- Researcher: Supposing you do that, because you just didn't understand what you had to do ... you were a set too high or something.
- Marie: Yeah, I don't think that's wrong ...
- Researcher: And you were doing it because you didn't know what else to do, and you did understand it ... is that wrong?
- ALL: No
- Hi: I think that's just trying like ... 'cos you're struggling so you just do what you can.
- Researcher: So is ... is copying because you don't know what else to do ... worse than copying because you are lazy?
- Beavis: Yeah.
- Researcher: Which is worse?
- ALL: Copying because you are lazy.
- Beavis: Yeah that's right.
- Researcher: Right OK ... um ... two or more students agreeing before hand to communicate answers to each other during an exam or a test?
- Hi: Well that's quite bad because you should do it yourself.
- Beavis: Yeah.
- Researcher: Do you think it happens?
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: Can you think of any examples of when it has happened?

- Marie: Like, I can remember in a Maths tests, me and my friend ... we like, I said to her to write the question on the back of the rubber, like, $x=$ so and so say, and then she's written it down say and passed it back to me, and then I've written it down on my test paper.
- Researcher: Is that quite difficult to do, passing ...
- ALL: No
- Marie: No 'cos you're just ... in our maths room, it's just like little two tables and you sit at each end when you have a test and you just like, borrow each other's rubber of whatever ...
- Researcher: What about waving and saying 'it's 2, 3'
- Beavis: I think people would notice that ... in our Physics test our teacher like, doesn't really like, we're not really, like quiet in our tests ... and it's like he doesn't tell us to be quiet ... so we just discuss the answers and everything.
- Researcher: Some teachers are different to others then?
- Beavis: Yeah
- Marie: Some are a lot stricter ... 'be quiet now' or 'you're in a test and you've not to discuss the answers'.
- Hi: Some um ... right teachers make you spread a long the classroom, but other's just keep you in your normal seats.
- Researcher: Do you think it's more tempting to cheat in classes where the teachers like 'oh get on with the test'.
- ALL: Yeah
- Marie: Like ... I would, if it was ...
- Researcher: OK ... copying from a neighbour during a test or exam and they didn't realise it.
- Marie: Yeah I think that's bad.
- Beavis: Quite bad.
- Marie: Especially if they were your friends because they thought you could trust them.
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... handing in coursework or homework that was done with the help of your parents, as if it was your own work.
- Marie: I don't think that's that bad because ... they always say if you get stuck ask your parents.
- Beavis: They don't really know either so ... they don't ask whether you've had help.
- Researcher: But if they said 'look did you get help with this?'
- Marie: I'd say yeah I asked my Mum.
- Hi: If she said 'no I didn't get help' then that would be quite bad.
- Researcher: 'Cos that's lying.
- ALL: Yeah.
- Researcher: But if you admit to it, then it's all right.
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: Do you think there's a difference between your parents saying 'look this is how you solve this problem' or 'here's the answer?'
- Marie: This is how you solve this problem ...
- Hi: If they just tell you that's like They can't be bothered to explain them.
- Beavis: You won't understand it when you come to do the next one.
- Hi: 'Cos if, and if you just copy someone ... you don't like, understand it then do you? ... You just copy it. But if you like do it for yourself ... you know what you are doing, you have like knowledge of it.
- Researcher: So if you are just told the answer, is that cheating ... or is it.
- Hi: Kind of because it's just like ... putting it ... putting the answer down ... its not like ...
- Researcher: Right ... OK ... Um ...handing in a piece of coursework or homework, saying it's your own work, when you actually did it with some other students.
- Beavis: People do that in our school.
- ALL: Yeah.
- Beavis: I they've got homework to do then they just sit down at lunchtime and do it ... they all do it together, they don't do it on their own.
- Researcher: So that's cheating, not cheating?
- Beavis: I don't think it is ...
- Hi: It's discussing.

- Researcher: What about maths problems though ... there's only one answer to maths problems isn't there? ...
- ALL: Mm...
- Researcher: You're undecided ... Can you say why you're undecided?
- Beavis: I don't know really whether it's that bad or not.
- Hi: NO
- Beavis: 'Cos if everybody's going to have the same answer anyway, they won't know whether you've done it with your friends or not.
- Researcher: So, its not quite cheating or it just scrapes in to cheating?
- ALL: Not quite.
- Researcher: OK ... um ... attempting to get your teacher to give you extra help, or extra credit by taking them presents, or using your friendship with them.
- Beavis: I know some people who do that.
- Hi: Yeah ... people like they suck up to the teachers, like really badly ... and they like, the teachers give them good marks.
- Researcher: So it works?
- Beavis: Mm
- Hi: It does ... I think.
- Researcher: Yeah ... so what, just being nice and saying ...
- Marie: I've never known that to happen.
- Beavis: It does, if you've got a younger man teacher ... one of the girls in our class was really nice to him.
- Researcher: How do you mean?
- Beavis: Well she's just always saying things like 'oh I like your shirt' and stuff like that.
- Researcher: Right I see, and you think that works?
- Marie: I've never known that to work.
- Hi: It does in our school.
- Researcher: You both go to the same school.
- Hi: Well no.
- Researcher: So how does it work in your school?
- H: Well, it's like we've got a new RE teacher ... and they always like sit at the front really keen, and they're all like, really sucking up to him and answering all the questions, like really keen and he does give them good marks in their reports and on what they do and everything ... and he like picks them for things.
- Researcher: So ...
- Hi: When he never would think, like to tell them off, he just like wouldn't shout at them, he just tells them to bet quiet or something.
- Researcher: Right, so if suppose ... there's this piece of homework in RE, and you had to write an essay ... I don't know what you do in RE ... would he mark them more generously than say, kids who sat at the back of the class, even if they were just as clever?
- Hi: Mm that's ... there's a girl in my class, and she's quite brainy ... so she always gets good marks, she's like known for her good marks, so the teachers give her a good mark anyway, 'cos she's like known for it ... so she always seems to get ...
- Researcher: So that can have an effect ... but the kids at the front of the class would they get better parent reports ... the reports you take home to mum and dad ... than the kids at the back of the class because ...
- Hi: I reckon.
- Researcher: Does that come under cheating, or is that just life?
- Hi: It's life really
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... um ... Handing in coursework or homework that was done with the help of your teachers and saying it was your own ... this one really applies to coursework for GCSE ... you know you hand it to go to be marked by the examiners ... and you're teachers helped you with it.
- Marie: Dunno really ... we're not GCSE's yet.
- ALL: No

- Hi: I suppose
- Beavis: Well the teachers have to got to help you on some things, just giving you ideas and then you can put it into your own words ...
- Researcher: So it's a bit like the parents help ...
- Beavis: Mm
- Researcher: OK ... which um ... subjects do you have most tests in ... lots of vocabs or whatever?
- ALL: Languages
- Beavis: Yeah Languages ... French
- Researcher: So you would say that languages that you spent most of your time revising for tests for that subject than opposed to like maths or science ...
- Hi: I revise quite a lot for science ... and languages.
- Researcher: But do you have lots of tests in science? As many tests.
- Marie: No I don't ... languages.
- Researcher: So you have more tests in languages ... would you say more cheating went on in languages than in...
- Marie: No I think most cheating went on in science really.
- Researcher: Why?
- Marie: 'Cos I find it a harder subject ... so
- Researcher: So people have got to get good marks.
- Marie: Yeah
- Researcher: You were going to say something different.
- Hi: Oh ... I'd say that more people cheat in um ... what was I going to say?
- Researcher: I think you were going to say that you took more tests in science or something.
- Hi: Yeah like we have one for the end of every unit but I would say, more cheating went on in languages.
- Researcher: Why?
- Hi: I dunno really ... it just ... 'cos they're such bit tests you have to remember so much ... and not everyone. Quite a few people do cheat, like they hid things in their pencil cases and ... everything but ... our science tests the tables are like spread out ... in front of the teacher, kind of thing ... so you couldn't really.
- Researcher: When you say the tests in languages are so bit, what do you mean?
- Hi: In our ... we have a German teacher and she's quite strict ... and she gives us quite bit tests and they're quite hard ... so you have to revise a lot.
- Researcher: Lots of words, lots of ...
- Hi: Yeah ... lots of vocabulary and lots of spelling and everything and lots of verbs..
- Marie: What you've learnt from that lesson.
- Beavis: Yeah
- Researcher: The more you have to learn, the more like you are to cheat on it ' cos there's like so much to take in.
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ...
- Hi: If we had tests more regularly and had less to learn I don't think people would cheat.
- Researcher: What like one a week 10 spellings.
- ALL: Yeah
- Hi: Like if we had a German test, once every two weeks instead of once every two months or something ... like to do a unit and then we have a test ... the we start another unit.
- Researcher: Right OK ... what other kinds of tests do you get? ... What kinds of test do you get in maths?
- Beavis: End of unit.
- Researcher: What's in those tests?
- Marie: What you've done from the previous unit.
- Researcher: So it's short answer questions ... 'here's a question, work out the answer'
- Marie: Yeah
- Beavis: We don't have them in maths, we just have an end of year test and that's it.
- Researcher: And what kind of

- Beavis: We sometimes have things like mental tests which is like when you don't use any paper ... you just like work it all out in your head.
- Researcher: Ooh I've never heard of those before.
- Beavis: Yeah and that's what we have ... um... like every couple of weeks ... but we ... other than that we only have like end of year tests.
- Researcher: Right what about in English?
- Beavis: Haven't had one yet this term.
- Hi: NO
- Researcher: What do you have for the end of year?
- Beavis: We have like, an exam in every subject.
- Researcher: So do you have to like write essays or ...
- Beavis: Well usually it's just questions and
- Marie: The only tests that I've had are my mock SATs ... and then I'll be having my SAT's and that's in English.
- Researcher: What do your SAT's involve?
- Marie: Everything we've covered since year 7.
- Hi: And then a bit of Shakespeare.
- Researcher: So what would you have to do in English?
- Marie: Well we're working on one of the Shakespeare plays ... we're doing a Midsummer's Night Dream ... and there's like Romeo and Juliet ... and so you have to like learn all the different things ... like a section of the story.
- Hi: Ok from and Act, say Act 3 scene 3 ...
- Researcher: And you have to answer questions on it?
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: So it's more answering questions than telling stories or writing ... do you think it's easy to cheat, or it's possible to cheat on a topic like that?
- Hi: No not really.
- Marie: We're allowed to take our books in of Romeo and Juliet to help us.
- Researcher: So it's not ... well you're allowed to take them in, it's not cheating, so you can't cheat.
- Marie: No
- Researcher: What about science what kind of tests do you have in science?
- Marie: We have tests on everything you've learnt really.
- Researcher: Again is that like 'what's the answer to the question' or is it like 'read this and pick out answer'.
- Hi: They might draw like a little example, like a little picture or something ... I don't know really, we haven't been shown the papers.
- Researcher: So its just English, Maths and Science in your SAT's.
- Beavis: Yeah
- Hi: They're about an hour long and we have two of each.
- Researcher: I bet you love them ... right I've come to the end of my bit of paper ... 'cos I'm going to stop a bit early ... can you think of anything else about cheating that I don't ... that you think I might not know ... bearing in mind I haven't been to school for years.
- Hi: No
- Marie: No
- Beavis: No

APPENDIX 4 (v)

Transcript for focus group five

- Researcher: OK who wants to go first ... OK go for it Fred.
- Fred: Hello my name is Fred and I'm in year 9 at school. A girl cheated at school in a test. She copied all of her friends answers and she kept on cheating by copying her class work ... and she didn't learn anything. One day her friend was away from school and there was a test, and she had no one to copy off ... and she didn't know any of the answers, and she got 0 out of 10 and had a detention.
- Researcher: Thank you, OK Kan
- Kan: Hello my name is Kan and I'm in the 9th year. There was a boring German lesson late on Monday morning and it was a speaking test. My friend Tara was next up and she was really nervous. Her name was called out and she went up to the desk. Time passed and then she came back to the table and told me what she had got. I was in shock, she had got full marks. It was quite good considering she hadn't revised. I asked her how she did it. Then she showed me her hand, it was covered in scribbled down German. She had cheated. I couldn't believe it.
- Researcher: OK thank you ... right ... when you are in school ... this is the microphone ...
- Fred: I wondered what it was.
- Researcher: It doesn't look like it but it is ... um ... when you are at school, if you can think about somebody who cheats, or any person who cheats ... um ... and think about all the subjects that you have ... what kinds of things do they get up to so that they can cheat? ... Think about maths, how would you cheat in Maths?
- Fred: I don't know.
- Kan: My friend she sits opposite somebody who does quite good at the subject.
- Researcher: So she can like see over the work.
- Kan: Yeah
- Fred: In my friends class there's this girl, and she doesn't do any work and she's quite naughty and that ... and she get my other friend to do her homework and that for her.
- Researcher: So that's one way you can cheat isn't it?
- Kan: Yeah
- Researcher: Can you think of any other ways that you can cheat in any of your other subjects? ...
- Fred: Um ... only what Kan said.
- Researcher: Any other ways? ... Is it just like looking over people's work ... or are there other things you can do? ...
- Kan: Oh if you're in a test or something and then you don't write down any answers ... and then when the teacher says, like reads out the answers ... you quickly write them in ... that's cheating as well.
- Researcher: OK brilliant ... um ... anything else.
- Fred: Um ... no
- Researcher: Can you think of anything Kan?
- Kan: Um ... you can like cheat by changing the answers.
- Researcher: So you've already written the answers down and the test answers are read out and you change words.
- Kan: Yeah
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... do you remember this piece of paper? This was given out with the letter, and it's a list of everything that I could think of that was cheating ... so what I will do is I will quickly go through it with you ... and then you can tell me whether or not you think its cheating ... and whether you think it's serious or not.
- Fred: OK
- Researcher: The first one is allowing your own coursework of homework to be copied by another student ... do you think that's cheating?
- Kan: Well my sister got this one.
- Fred: Um ... yeah

- Researcher: You do think it's cheating?
- Kan: Um ... no
- Researcher: Hang on, Fred you do why do you think its cheating/
- Fred: Um ... because it's not your own work.
- Kan: You're cheating off someone else.
- Researcher: OK but Kan you don't think it's cheating, why not?
- Kan: Because um ... um ... like you might get a detention if you don't do it and you've just forgotten to do it, then it's not really your fault is it? ... 'Cos maybe there's a reason you didn't write any homework down or something.
- Researcher: So depending on the reason for copying, says whether it is cheating or not ... so for example ... if you were copying because you were too lazy to do the homework ... would that be cheating?
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: But if you were sick or ... something happened the night before, or you'd forgotten it ... genuinely forgotten it.
- Kan: You read your homework planning and written down or something and get it done by the lesson.
- Fred: There's no real excuses for cheating really ... if you cheat, you cheat ... it's not right.
- Researcher: OK right ... taking banned material into an exam or test, for example, taking notes in.
- Kan: Yeah, that's cheating.
- Researcher: Does it happen?
- Fred: I've only been in like one real test ...
- Researcher: Well what do you call a real test?
- Fred: When you sit in a bit hall and you've got your own table and your own chair ... and then you sit all on your own.
- Researcher: SAT's
- ALL: Yeah
- Researcher: So that's what you call a real test ... what about tests when you sit them in the classroom, you know, everyday tests.
- Fred: No not really ... Oh yeah you shouldn't cheat in them.
- Researcher: OK ... but is taking, like a crib sheet, a sheet of notes in ... to a test in class, is that cheating?
- Kan: Yeah
- Researcher: Kan
- Kan: Yeah sometimes the teachers let you do it, but that's all right, because they say you can do it ... because they know everybody else is doing it ... then ... but if you do it when you're not allowed to do it, that's wrong.
- Researcher: So if the teacher says you can have your books open in front of you ... then that's OK ... but if you're like sneaking a piece of paper into your pencil case.
- Fred: Yeah that's wrong.
- Researcher: OK ...lying about medical circumstances, like saying you were ill, or saying your Gran died or something ... to get extra time to do a piece of homework ... or get let off doing a piece of homework? ... Is that cheating?
- Kan: no.
- Fred: Not really.
- Researcher: Why not? ...
- Fred: 'Cos you may like ... like started doing like or something and then you really wanted to go to the library or something ... and it was closed that day or something ...
- Researcher: So that would be a real excuse though wouldn't it? ... But this is like lying saying 'oh I had the flu' ... or my Gran died' and she didn't ... just so that they will say 'oh don't do the homework then' ...
- Kan: I don't think it's really cheating ... I think it's lying.
- Fred: Yeah ... it's not really.
- Researcher: So it's not the same thing?
- Kan: No

- Researcher: OK ... Handing in coursework or homework that you got from outside of school, for example somebody from another school offered to sell you some homework or ... somebody who used to go to your school, says 'oh I've done that, here you are, if you give me some money you can have it'.
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: Cheating?
- Fred: Yeah
- Kan: Dunno ... it depends really.
- Researcher: Why does it depend?...
- Kan: Because like my sister, she's in the year above me ... and she sometimes gives me her homework ... but I don't copy it ... I just look at it.
- Fred: Yeah that's what I do.
- Kan: I just look at it and get ideas off it ...
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: So there's a difference then ... if you just copied your sister's homework ...
- Fred: If you completely copied word for word ... that would be cheating.
- Kan: But if she had some good ideas and that ... and you thought 'Oh yeah that's really good' I might use that idea in my story, then ...
- Fred: Yeah ...
- Kan: I don't think that's cheating really.
- Researcher: OK ... um ... taking a test for somebody else, or having them take a test for you ...
- Fred: Yeah that's cheating.
- Kan: Yeah ... Do you think it happens?
- Fred: Yeah because in Eastenders, Bianca ... no ... um David was going to take ... um ... he got this girl to take the driving test for Bianca ... but then the girl ... who was going to take the test realised that she had took the same test with the same driving instructor ... the other week ... so she couldn't take it for her ... so Bianca said 'oh I'll take it' ... and she passed, so ...
- Researcher: So it wasn't necessary to cheat?
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: What about in school though? ... Do you think it happens in school?
- Kan: Yeah in 'Sister, Sister' ... in school ... it's a programme about two twins and they are identical ... and one of them's brainy and one of them's not, so they swapped and I reckon that's wrong.
- Researcher: So it doesn't happen in real life then unfortunately?
- Fred: Yeah
- Kan: It did once in my school ... in primary.
- Fred: It did once in my school too.
- Researcher: In your primary school? ... What kind of test was it?
- Kan: This was like a maths test ... we were in the sixth year ... and these two twins swapped classes ... and they got told off for it ... they got found out.
- Researcher: They got found out.
- Fred: There's this one girl, well two 'cos they're twins ... and um ... she had ... they had both had their like papers and um ... one of them hadn't done it, so she went and gave her paper in and um ... and the other girls said ... and the teacher said 'oh where's yours?' and she said 'oh I've just given it in' and ... the teacher thought that she did, but her twin gave it in.
- Researcher: So it can only happen for twins ... supposing you two wanted ... you wanted to take a test for Kan ... or Kan was going to take a test for you? ...
- Fred: Um ... not really because we don't look anything alike ...
- Researcher: But would the teacher always suss? ...
- Fred: Yeah because she's brainier than me!
- Researcher: OK ... um ... in a situation where you get to mark each others work, you decide before hand that you are going to mark the work more generously ... (Laughter) ... then I deserves.
- Kan: I can't do that in my school because the teachers check the work after anyway, because like, they test us to see if we do do that or not ... but I think I'd do it.
- Researcher: Are you at the same school?

- Fred: No?
- Researcher: OK ...
- Fred: Um ... some people do that because you can hear them at the back going 'shsss' ... don't do that, do that'
- Researcher: Right ... is it cheating?
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: Always?
- Fred: Um ... yeah
- Researcher: OK ... copying another student's homework or their coursework and they don't know you're copying it ...
- Fred: Cheating.
- Researcher: Definitely?
- Fred: Sometimes ... the other person who doesn't know you copied them ... gets into trouble for cheating as well ... but ... the other person shouldn't get into trouble because they don't know you're doing it.
- Researcher: But it can happen.
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... um deliberately gaining information about what's going to be in a test ... before you take the test ...
- Fred: What getting the actual answers.
- Researcher: You might see the test paper, you might see the answers ... somebody might have taken the test before you and told you what's in it ...
- Kan: If they just come home and say ... 'oh there were some questions about ... King Arthur or something', but didn't actually tell the specific questions ... I don't suppose that's cheating ... if they say, this is the ...
- Researcher: This is the topic, go and revise it.
- Kan: Yeah.
- Researcher: But if they said 'there's a question that says when did King Arthur do this?'
- Fred: Oh No ... Yeah that's cheating.
- Researcher: What about if you actually see the exam paper.
- Fred: Yeah that's cheating.
- Kan: I dunno ... 'cos you might see it by accident ... and that's not cheating.
- Fred: Oh You should own up and say 'miss I've seen it by accident, can you change the questions?'
- Researcher: But do you think you would? ...
- Fred: Yeah probably ... I wouldn't actually ask her to change the questions.
- Researcher: What about you Kan?
- Kan: Um ...
- Fred: You wouldn't.
- Kan: I would.
- Researcher: It doesn't matter what you say ... if you cheat it doesn't matter to me.
- Kan: I've only ever cheated once in my life and that was by accident because my friend waved a paper in front of my face ... she goes like this and I saw it quickly and I just wrote that down and that's the only time I've ever cheated ... I'm know in my school for not cheating (laughter).
- Researcher: Right ... making up the results ... of, for example, a science experiment because you didn't have time to finish the practical in class ... so for example, you're working out what temperature different kinds of liquids boil ... and you were gassing to your friend and you didn't get a chance to finish before the bell went ... so you just wrote in some answers ...
- Kan: No
- Fred: No
- Researcher: Why not?
- Fred: Because ... it's not your fault if the teacher didn't give you enough time or something.
- Researcher: Yes, but you were chatting ... (Laughter)

- Kan: Well ... really ... 'cos the teacher knows if it's right or wrong, so if you write the wrong answer you get marked down anyway ... but you just write it in so that you don't get a detention or something ... because you haven't done the homework.
- Researcher: So, it's not cheating?
- L: No
- Fred: No
- Researcher: Um ... directly copying some material from a textbook and saying it's your own work ... and your own ideas.
- Fred: Yeah, if you say it's your own ... and go 'yeah it's all mine, did it all myself'.
- Kan: That's cheating.
- Fred: Yeah
- Kan: Yeah
- Researcher: Always?
- Fred: Depends, if you do a ... like half of it is your own writing, and then just one paragraph is copied ... then you do all the rest your own writing ... that's OK ... all the rest is own.
- Researcher: Most of it is your own ideas.
- Fred: Yeah ... it's all yours apart from one line or something.
- Researcher: OK ... what about you Kan, do you agree?
- Kan: Yeah ... 'cos like um ... I can't really do this thing.
- Fred: You're doing really fine.
- Kan: Um ... like if they ask you to write a story or something ... and you ... like again, you get ideas from it ... and you copied like paragraphs from it that like can't change it ... you can't change what you've just read you know? ... I don't think that's copying, but if you write the whole thing word by word, that the teacher doesn't know and said it's all your writing ... I don't think that's right.
- Researcher: Well that's fair enough ... OK what about though, if you're in an English set that a bit too high for you, and you just can't work out how else to do it, so you copy, because like you just don't know what else to do ... whereas ... you copied it because you couldn't be bother to do your own work ... do you think there's a difference between copying because you just wanted to catch up because you were worried about failing ... whereas copying because you were too lazy ...
- Kan: There is a difference, but they're both bad.
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: Is one worse? ...
- Fred: Yeah, the one not being bothered ... to do it is badder ... they're both bad.
- Kan: 'Cos like you go to school for your own benefit don't you ... not for anybody else's.
- Fred: And the teachers ... the teachers shouldn't have put you up in the higher set anyway ... unless you copied all the way.
- Researcher: Unless you cheated ... In which case it's your own fault.
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: OK ... two or more students agreeing before hand to communicate answers to each other during a test ... by passing bits of paper ... waving and speaking.
- Fred: Yeah
- Kan: Yup
- Fred: Yeah that's cheating
- Researcher: Does it happen or not?
- Fred: No only on TV programmes.
- Kan: It happens in my school.
- Researcher: In what kind of lessons ... what kind of subjects.
- Kan: Mostly in maths.
- Kan: 'Cos, like you can write numbers on your hand.
- Researcher: Like quick short answers.
- Fred: Yeah ... and just writing.
- Kan: You just go like this, and the person over there sees it ...
- Researcher: So communicating answers is ... possible in some subjects but not others.

- Kan: Yeah because if you're spread out or something ... and like questions ... all essays ... you can't write it down on your arm.
- Researcher: You can try ... OK handing in coursework or homework that was done with the help of your parents and say it was your own work ...
- Fred: With the help of your parents ... oh yeah ... Mum's sat down and gone lalalala but not told you what to write.
- Researcher: Yeah, right, so there's being told the answer ...
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: And being show how to do it.
- Fred: Yeah
- Researcher: There's a difference.
- Fred: Yeah ... look if my dad said 'look show me how to do it and everything' and I said 'well it's that then isn't it' ... I don't think that's cheating because it's gone into my brain ...it hasn't just gone from him onto a piece of paper.
- Kan: Yeah like you've got a maths question ... and he explains you it, but he shows a different sum ... and then you've got to do the other sum.
- Researcher: Using the same ideas.
- Kan: Yeah using the same method.
- Researcher: So ... that's not cheating.
- Kan: That's not cheating.
- Researcher: But if he just said 'oh come here I'll do it for you, that's dum, dum, dum, dum'.
- Fred: Yeah that's cheating.
- Researcher: OK ... um ... copying from a neighbour during a test and they don't realise you're doing it?
- Fred: Yeah that's still cheating though.
- Kan: That goes on as well.
- Researcher: Is it serious cheating or not serious cheating.
- Kan: Yeah
- Researcher: Which one?
- Fred: It's not serious ... I mean serious.
- Kan: It's serious.
- Researcher: Right OK ... doing another student's coursework or homework for them ...
- Fred: I wouldn't do that anyway.
- Kan: I don't think that's cheating.
- Researcher: You don't think that's cheating.
- Fred: I do ... I think it's cheating.
- Researcher: OK ... Kan, why don't you think it is cheating?
- Kan: Because, um ... like ... you're not cheating, the other persons cheating, so it's their problem.
- Researcher: OK ... why do you think it is cheating?
- Fred: Because ... well ... it is cheating ... 'cos ... um ...
- Researcher: It's wrong? You're aiding and abetting them if you like.
- Fred: Yeah ... you're helping them to cheat, so you know it's wrong.
- Kan: Yeah but you're not cheating it.
- Fred: You're not actually cheating ... but it's still wrong ... 'cos ... 'cos it is.
- Researcher: OK ... handing in a piece of coursework or homework ... um ... and saying you did it on your own, when in fact you did it with other students ...
- Fred: Well you've all go the same answers.
- Researcher: No just your piece of work ... it's something like, you're in a class for English and your friends are in a different class, but they help you do your homework.
- Fred: Helped you ...
- Researcher: Well you all worked at it together.
- Fred: Yeah ... I don't think that's cheating, 'cos you're helping each other out.
- Researcher: OK ... um attempting to get your teacher to give you extra help, or extra marks by taking them presents or using your friendship with them?

- Fred: It's not really cheating but its still ...
- Researcher: You're saying it happens? ... Does it work?
- Fred: In ... like primary school, like you take in apples into the teacher or something.
- Kan: That doesn't happen in secondary schools, 'cos like the secondary school teachers are more aware of it ... for the younger teachers of secondary school are.
- Fred: The little ones put on a cut face ... like cuddle them and everything.
- Researcher: Do you think it works?
- Kan: Yeah sometimes.
- Fred: Yeah sometimes.
- Kan: In year 7 they've got the cute little girls and the naughty boy ... he gets marked down just because he's like that.
- Researcher: So your behaviour can actually affect your marks?
- Kan: Yeah
- Researcher: Um ... handing in homework or coursework, for something like your GCSE's ... that was done with the help of your teacher ... and saying it was your own ...
- Fred: Mm ... the teachers shouldn't do that should they?
- Researcher: So is it cheating?
- Fred: Yeah ... the teacher should get into trouble as well.
- Researcher: Do you think so?
- Fred: Yeah.
- Researcher: Why?
- Fred: 'Cos ... does the teacher know you're going to say it's your own work?
- Researcher: Um ... I don't know ... it's up to you
- Fred: If the teacher says 'oh ... um ... tell them I gave you some help' and you go 'Oh I did it all myself miss' ...
- Researcher: That's wrong?
- Fred: Yeah that's wrong.
- Researcher: OK ... right ... what kind of tests do you have at school? ...What kind of tests do you have in class?
- Fred: Just like get a piece of paper and he sometimes reads the questions out or he gets a sheet and we do it on the sheet.
- Kan: Speaking tests.
- Researcher: Speaking tests?
- Kan: Yeah in French and German
- Researcher: Can you cheat in speaking tests?
- Fred: Ye—ea.
- Researcher: How?
- Kan: You say something ... and you go , you like mumble it ... and then she'll say 'oh did you just say um the proper word'.
- Fred: Yeah
- Kan: And just say that miss ... that's cheating.
- Researcher: Right ... any other ways you can cheat in vocab tests or is that it?
- Kan: There might be a friend over the other side of the room who might mouth the answers ... like tell you the answers ...
- Researcher: That's novel ... um ... I think it's 9 o'clock, you finish at 9 o'clock don't you ... have you got any other forms of cheating that I haven't picked up?

APPENDIX 5**Study 2****Raw data**

Raw data have been classified according to the assessment events used in the four dimensional model. Within this classification, items have been ordered according to behaviour divisions.

- (i) EXAMS ... page 547**
- (ii) TESTS ... page 553**
- (iii) EXAMS/TESTS ... page 559**
- (iv) NON-SPECIFIC ... page 561**
- (v) CLASSWORK ... page 573**
- (vi) HOMEWORK ... page 575**

Key to participant identity coding

Example identification code:

3114h15m311

The identifier is split thus:

311 4 h 15 m 311

- (i) first three digits and last three digits are the participant number**
- (ii) fourth digit refers to year in school**
- (iii) letters other than m and f refer to participant's school**
- (iv) fifth and sixth digits refer to age**
- (v) m and f refer to gender**

(i) EXAMS**EXAMS: CHEATING**

3114h15m311

Cheating in exams

3184h15m318

Cheating in exams

70114m701

Cheating in exams

728a13m728

Cheating in exams

734a13m735

Cheating in exams etc., have answers

748a13m748

Cheating in exams

761p13f761

Cheating in exams

804w12f804

Cheating in exams

806w12f806

Cheating in big exams

8973d13F897

Cheating in exams

968m15sb5968

Cheating on an exam

EXAMS: LOOKING AT THE WORK OF OTHER'S

702t14m702

Looking at other peoples papers during an exam

723a12f723

Cheating in a big exam. Looking at someone else's

740a13f740

Looking at peoples answers in exams

743a13f743

Looking at someone else's exam paper answer or work

781c12m781

Cheating on an exam by looking at somebody else

787c12f787

I think looking at someone else's exam paper is cheating

827wh13m827

Looking at somebody else's exam paper/ work

830wh12m830

Looking at someone else's paper in an exam or talking

840s10f840

In exams you could look over to see what the other person is doing

853b11f853

Looking at someone's work (on an exam)

854b12f854

Looking at other people's exam

867g13m867

To look at someone's work in an exam

869g13m869

Looking at other people's exams

886d14f886

Looking at somebody else's test paper in an exam in exam conditions

91511f915

Looking at other people's exam sheet

929d12f929

Looking at someone's work in an exam

935f15d5935

Cheating in major exams/ mocks such as GCSE's A-levels by looking at someone else's work or having made illegal notes on a test/ crib sheet

938f16d5938

Looking at other people's work (in exams)

942f15d5942

Looking at someone else's answers in an exam

961m15ph5916

Looking at someone else's paper in an exam

989m14mh4989

Looking at someone's exam paper

EXAMS: UNAUTHORISED MATERIALS

1006m15mh51006

Taking answers to exams into an exam

3164h14m316

Bringing or taking answers into an exam

711t14f711

Taking answers into an exam

716t14f716

Or write the answers on your hand to cheat on the exam

720a12m720

Taking answers into an exam

743a13f743

Write down the answer before an exam, spelling test etc., and look at them

775c12f775

If it's an examination cheating by writing answers on your hand

779c12f779

Writing the answers on a piece of paper before going into an exam then copying the answers from the piece of paper

786c12f786

I think cheating is when you write things on your hand and use them in the exam

794c12f794

Writing the answer on your hand before doing the exam

798c12f798

Taking answers into an exam room so you know what to put and get them all right when you don't really know

801w12m801

Taking a piece of paper into an exam

803w12f803

Writing answers on a piece of paper and using it in an exam

807w12f807

Taking answers into an exam

- 808w12m808**
Taking a piece of paper into an exam
- 810w12f810**
If you write an answer that you didn't understand and take it into an exam
- 818wh13m818**
Writing on your hand before an exam the answers
- 828wh12m828**
Writing on pieces of paper before an exam
- 834s11f834**
Write on the hands and look at it when exam starts
- 835s11f835**
Writing things on paper and taking it to an exam
- 836s10f836**
Writing answers to an exam on paper and copying it
- 841s11f841**
Writing on your hand and taking it to an exam and looking at it
- 842s11f842**
Taking a piece of paper into an exam
- 843s10f843**
Taking a sheet of paper into the exam with the answer on them
- 870g13m870**
During an exam somebody looks over a sheet

To have a paper with all the answers in front of your pencil case during a GCSE or exam
- 878d14f878**
If you write answers on your hand before an exam
- 879d13f879**
Hiding answers into an exam and using them
- 880d14f880**
Writing answers in atlases to use in exams (geography)
- 882d14f882**
Writing on little pieces of paper in exams

Writing words of importance for an exam on pens, rubbers etc.,
- 892d14f892a**
Writing notes on your hand in an exam
- 894d13f894**
Sneaking notes into an exam when your not allowed
- 900d14f900**
Writing reminders of things like an equation in science on your hand
or in a book or something before you sit the exam

Taking an answer sheet and writing the answers out briefly and taking it into an exam by putting it up your sleeve or something
- 901d13f901**
Writing notes on your hand before an exam because you can't remember things
- 902d14f902**
Writing on your hand notes for an exam
- 904d14f904**
Writing on your hand or somewhere before an exam
- 907d12f907**
Somebody brings answers into an important exam
- 909d12f909**
Taking answers into an important exam
- 914d12f914**
Writing answers or notes before an exam and using them
- 931d12f931**
Hiding notes (in things like pencil case etc.,) for an exam
- 932f16d5932**
Cheating in a major exam, e.g., GCSE's by copying or somehow taking in your notes.
- 934f15d5934**
Writing answers of you hand or on paper and taking them into an exam
- 937f15d5937**
Cheating in examinations for example, taking in notes
- 946f15d5946**
Cheating in exams – either using notes during an exam, finding out what the questions are before an exam, or copying someone else's exam
- 947f16d5947**
Taking notes into an exam
- 948f16d5948**
Taking notes into large national exams e.g., GCSE's
- 950f15d5950**
Writing notes on pieces of paper on your hand etc., to take into an exam
- 965m15ph5965**
Using notes in an exam to get the answers
- 966m15ph5966**
Writing on your hand (exams)

Having notes in your pocket (exams)
- 972f15sb5972**
Taking a piece of paper with the answers on it into an exam

Revising writing the answers down and taking them into the exam
- 976m15sb5976**
Writing answers on separate piece of paper and taking them in exam
- 985m14mh4985**
Taking answers into an exam
- 986m14mh4986**
Taking notes into exams
- 988f14mh4988**
Taking answers into exams, e.g., GCSE's
- 991f14mh4991**
In exams write answers on your arms
- 992f14mh4992**
Taking a piece of paper with the answers on it into a GCSE
- 993f14mh4993**
Taking answers into exams

- 995f14mh4995
Taking in a piece of paper to an exam and copying
- 996m14mh4996
Taking answers into a GCSE
- 999m14mh4999
Brining the answers in an exam
- I think cheating is when you take a piece of paper with you into an examination and look at it
- 833s11833
Taking a piece of paper into an exam and looking at it because it has answers on it
- Writing answers on your leg and looking at them in an exam
- 834s11f834
Write things that is important on a paper and bring it to school to look when exam starts
- 837s11f837
Taking a piece of paper into an exam and looking at it
- 838s11f838
Slipping a piece of paper in your pocket and reading it in an Exam
Taking a dictionary into an English exam
- Mainly taking any books or revision into an exam
- 827wh13m827
Bringing a book of answers in for an exam i.e a geography book for a geography exam
- 834s11f834
Open the book before the exam starts (under the table)
- 839s11f839
You bring a text book into an exam when you're not allowed it
- 840s10f840
Do not bring a pencil case into an exam because it could have answers on the top like times tables
- 865g13f865
Taking a text book into an exam with you
- 867g13m867
To take a book into an exam
- 868g13m868
Taking the answer paper in an exam
- 869g13m869
Taking a book into the exam room
- 876g13m876
Bringing a book in the exam
- 884d14f884
Having a book on you lap in an exam
- 910d12f910
Bringing a watch that you can record information on and looking at it in an exam
- 91511f915
Hiding notes in a exam or a calculator if you were not allowed it
- 934f15d5934
Taking prepared answers (e.g., essay) into the exam and handing those in, instead of work done during the exam
- 938f16d5938
Taking books/ other information into exams
- 963f15ph5963
Having books, notes in an exam
- 964f15ph5964
Having books/ notes on you lap in exam conditions
- 972f15sb5972
Taking a book or answers into GCSE
- 989m14mh4989
Taking material you are not meant to have into exams
- Opening your desk in the middle of an exam and looking at a book
- 826wh12m826
Looking in a desk and going through books for that exam in the middle of one
- 878d14f878
If you look at a text book in an exam
- 934f15d5934
Looking at a book with answers in it during an exam
- Taking a look at a teachers answer sheet. In a big exam room
- Taking a look at a teachers answer sheet. In a big exam
- 754p13m754
Looking at an exam paper that has all the answers on a teacher's desk
- 870g13m870
To ask to put a paper in the bin during an exam and when you stand up you look at all the answers
- 906d11f906
Look at the answers to an exam
- 927d11f927
Looking at the answers to an important exam
- 934f15d5934
Finding the exam paper and looking at the questions
- Calculators in exams
- 783c12m783
Taking a calculator into a Maths exam
- 802w12m802
Taking a calculator into an exam
- 910d12f910
Bringing one of those watch calculators in a maths exam
- 953m15ph5953
Brining things into the exam which you are not allowed e.g., calculator watch into maths exam
- 963f15ph5963
Bringing a calculator into a maths exam
- 970m15sb5970
Taking a calculator into an exam when it's not allowed
- 973m15sb5973
Taking calculator in a non calculator exam
- 988f14mh4988
Using things you're not supposed to in exams, e.g., calculators in non calculator exams
- 999m14mh4999

Taking a calculator into a maths exam where they are not allowed

EXAMS: EXCHANGING INFORMATION

900d14f900

Sitting an exam and passing notes or signs and exchanging answers during the exam

901d13f901

Passing notes in exams

909d12f909

Passing notes in an exam

I think cheating is when you tell someone the answer or ask someone for the answer in exams or homework

825wh13m825

Asking someone else the question who is doing the exam

869g13m869

Asking someone in an exam

888d14f888

Cheating in exams/test e.g. Asking friends answers

904d14f904

Asking others for answers for exams

907d12f907

Someone asks you in an exam what a question is

934f15d5934

Taking/ asking other people what the answers are during an exam

Looking at people and making contact, talking sign language etc., in exams.

Talking in an exam

818wh13m818

Talking and asking for answers in an exam

820wh13m820

Talking to other people during an exam

821wh13m821

Talking or getting answers in a major exam

828wh12m828

Talking while in an exam

834s11f834

Talk when an exam or dictation starts

854b12f854

Speaking in exams

870g13m870

To talk and asking the answer during an exam

904d14f904

Talking in exams

913d12f913

Talking in an exam

938f16d5938

Talking in exams

955f15ph5955

Talking in exams

963f15ph5963

Talking to people while the exam takes place

EXAMS: PRE-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

Seeing the questions posed for an exam before the actual exam takes place

715t14f715

Taking an exam paper and knowing the answers before you do the exam paper especially GCSE's

820wh13m820

Opening your paper before the examiner says you can

839s11f839

You're going to have an exam and the teacher leaves the question paper on her desk and you pick it up and take it

843s10f843

Reading the exam paper before the exam

882d14f882

Stealing and looking at exam papers

886d14f886

Stealing the exam papers from where you saw the teacher put them this morning

900d14f900

Finding out where a teacher keeps your exam that you will be taking and stealing the paper to know all the answers

903d13f903

Finding a copy of a forthcoming exam and revising from it

904d14f904

Looking at exam papers before hand

911d12f911

Finding out the answers to an exam on a school computer

916d12f916

Looking or having a peek at the exam results

916d12f918

Looking at the exam results before having the actual exam

931d12f931

Stealing an exam sheet, to help you get higher marks

953m15ph5953

Finding out the examination text before the exam

Finding out teachers password to look at exam tests

966m15ph5966

Stealing the answers (exams)

967m15ph5967

Stealing the exam answers

974m15sb5974

Getting answers for exams

975m15sb5974

Getting the answers for exams

979m14sb4979

Stealing exam answers and using them

Finding the examination papers before the actual exams and copying the questions

(connected to the one above) Find the exam answer sheet which the teacher uses and copy the answers

EXAMS: POST-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

Changing answers after the exam has ended

796c12m796

Changing answers on an exam paper

806w12f806

When you change a wrong answer and turn into a right answer in an exam

870g13m870

To lie in your parents says I have got 98% in my maths exam and it's not right

884d14f884

Changing the marks of an exam or paper

When you take an exam home to finish checking answers

999m14mh4999

Be ill on the day of the exam and get someone else (a friend) to give you the answers

Carrying on writing after the correct amount of time for an exam has elapsed

833s11833

Changing a clock so that you get longer time in an exam

880d14f880

Carry on writing when the time is up in exams

91512f915a

Crying or something in an exam so you get sympathy from a teacher

EXAMS: ACTIVE COPYING

Trying to copy or cheat in GCSE or mock exams

3174h15m317

Copying in an exam

3194h14m319

Copying in exams

732a13m732

Copying in an exam

784c12m784

Copying in an exam

810w12f810

When you copy in an exam

894d13f894

Copying in exams

913d12f913

Copying in an exam

916d12f916

Copying in an exam

941f15d5941

Copying an exam answer

943f16d5943

Copying answers in important exams

962f15ph5962

Copying in exams / homework

967m15ph5967

Copying in an exam

I think cheating is when someone copies another persons work in a test

711t14f711

Copying people's work especially in exams

718a12f718

Copying someone in an exam

731a12m731

Copying in an exam

741a13f741

Copying someone in an exam

774c12f774

When someone looks at somebody else's work in an exam and copies

785c12m785

Copying someone in an exam

796c12m796

Copying from a friend in an exam

797c12f797

When you copy someone else's exam answers or if you copy out of a book or something when you're writing the answers

806w12f806

When you copy someone's work in a very important exam

833s11833

Copying somebody's exam paper in an exam

879d13f879

Looking at someone else's work in an exam and writing it down for yourself

880d14f880

Copying somebody else's work in exams

884d14f884

Copying someone's work in an exam

887d14f887

Cheating in an exam e.g., copying someone else's work

892d14f892a

Copying someone in an exam

896d14f896

Looking at another person's exam and copying

910d12f910

Copying off someone in an exam

922d11f922

If you are in an exam and you can see someone else's paper and you copy down the answers

933f16d5933

Copying someone in an important exam

934f15d5934

Copying someone else's answers looking at their exam paper during the exam

939f15d5939

Copying someone else's exam answers

947f16d5947

Copying someone else's answers in an exam

Copying from the text books in an exam

795c12m795

Copying an exam paper

I think that cheating is when people copy you or you copy someone else without them knowing in exams

Rubbing off someone's name of an exam paper and putting your name on it and theirs on yours

963f15ph5963

Swapping candidate numbers around

964f15ph5964

Swapping candidate numbers

EXAMS: PASSIVE COPYING

Your mum and dad or bother/ sister helping you to revise, writing revision notes, telling you the answers before an exam

Getting somebody else to do important exams for you

EXAMS: BRIBERY, SEDUCTION AND CORRUPTION

963f15ph5963

Sleeping with the exam bod because your grammar's crap

Swapping candidate numbers around

964f15ph5964

Sleeping with the exam board to find out answers/ questions or extra marks

966m15ph5966

Bribing a teacher for the answers (exams)

If you're writing an exam and someone asked you about something and teacher punished you because you're not quiet

(ii) TESTS**TESTS: CHEATING**

703t14f703

Cheating in tests

729a13f729

Cheating on a test

730a13f730

Cheating on a quiz

Cheating on a times table

760p12f760

Cheating on a test.

765p13f765

Cheating in a test

TESTS: LOOKING AT THE WORK OF OTHERS

1003f15mh51003

Cheating in a test by looking over a shoulder

3094h15f309

Glancing at someone's test paper but not copying them

3104h14f310

Looking at other people's work during a test

710t14f710

When you look at somebody else's test paper

717a12f717

Looking at somebody's work and answers in a test

719a12f719

Looking at your friends work when doing a test

723a12f723

Cheating in a spellings test (small test) looking at someone else's

745a12f745

Looking at other people's work in tests

746a12f746

Looking at peoples work in tests

751p13m751

Look at someone's work in a test

753p13m753

In a test looking at someone else's answer

759p13f759

When you do a test and someone looks at it

764p12m764

Looking at other peoples answers in a test

768p13f768

Looking at someone else's paper in a test

781c12m781

Looking at people when you are doing a test and you need to know an answer

802w12m802

Looking at other people's tests

805w12m805

Looking at someone's papers in a test

809w11f809

I think that in a test you should never look at someone's work

814w12f814

Looking at other people's work in a test

822wh13m822

Looking at other people's papers in a test

824wh12m824

Looking at other people's answers in a test

831wh13m831

Looking at other people's test paper

858b12m858

People looking at other people's tests

907d12f907

In a little tables test someone looks at your work

908d12f908

Looking at a person's work, in a test or in normal pieces of work

923d11f923

Looking at other people's work in a test

926d12f926

If you are in a test room and you peer over and look over at someone else's work

984f14mh4984

In a test looking at the person next to you

TESTS: UNAUTHORISED MATERIALS

Writing on your hand the answers to a test

3004h14m300

Come in to tests with hidden answers on you

3014h14m301

Hiding answers during tests

3104h14f310

Writing things down on a piece of paper and then putting it in a place so that you can read it through a test

3214h14f321

Writing prompts on your hand to remind you of some awkward word or sentences in tests

3224h14f322

Completing a test with the answers in front of you

Having the answers to a test in your pencil case

Having the answers to a test written on your hand

706t14m706

Writing test answers on your hand etc.,

713t14m713

Taking answers into tests

718a12f718

When you've been given some words to learn and you write them on your hand for the test

736a12m736

Cheating in test by writing on hand

744a13m744

Writing answer on hand before test

764p12m764

Writing down the answers to a test and using them on your own test paper

768p13f768

Writing the answers on your hand before you have a test

785c12m785

Writing the answers of the test on your hand to copy them

787c12f787

I think writing the answers somewhere before the test and copying them is cheating or getting the answer paper is cheating

795c12m795

Smuggling notes into a test

799w12f799

I think cheating is when you write on your hand when you're doing a test

800w11m800

Writing on a piece of paper and bringing it into a test

805w12m805

Sneaking a piece of paper with the answers into a test

811w12m811

Writing the answers on a piece of paper then bringing it into a test

814w12f814

Taking a paper with answers in a test

819wh13m819

Writing information about tests on your hands

824wh12m824

Writing the answers on your hand and looking at them in a test

829wh12m829

Writing the answers to a test on your hand

844b12m844

Writing answers on your hand in a test

845b11m845

Having the answers with you when doing a test

858b12m858

Having spellings written on your hand with a test

874g12m874

Taking the answers into the test

877g14m877

Taking answers into a test

890d13f890

Taking answers into a test (e.g., writing on your hand)

905d11f905

Writing the answers down on paper before you go in for a test

908d12f908

Taking a large sheet of paper or booklet containing information to a test

912d12f912

Writing things on a piece of paper the results and looking at them through the test

932f16d5932

Cheating in a small test, e.g., French listening by copying or using notes.

935f15d5935

Cheating in small tests by writing the answers on your hands/ arms etc.,

940f15d5940

Having the answers during a test (e.g. a French verb test)

941f15d5941

Writing answers to questions on your hand just before a test

942f15d5942

Participating in a test and having answers hidden away from the teachers view

948f16d5948

Taking notes into tests in a classroom (not large national exam)

954m15ph5954

Writing spellings on book before test

955f15ph5955

Writing answers on hand before test

956f16ph5956

Taking answers into a test with you

984f14mh4984

Writing the answers on paper or on your hand in a test

998m14mh4998

Taking in bits of paper with answers on them in tests

I think that cheating in a test and you are put on the same table as someone else. Ranked not very serious4
4 3

Don't look at things on the walls (in a test anyway)

842s11f842

Using a pencil case with your tables on in a maths test

Using a pen with your tables on in a maths test

847b12m847

Taking drugs to help you in a test

871G871

Taking a book into a test

891d13f891

If a teacher gives you a test to do at home and you use your textbook to help you with the questions

923d11f923

If you have 1 test in you book and them another test in your book you look back and see the answers

952m16ph5952

Having books under the table or sitting on them and looking during the test

Looking at information that isn't to be used in a test

3134h15m313

Looking for the answer in your book while doing the test

745a12f745

If you are looking in your book in a test

746a12f746

If you are looking at the front of your book in a test

753p13m753

Looking at your book in a test

793c12f793

Leaving text books open for tests

Looking at test answers

725a12f725

Looking at a teachers question and answer sheet before the test

741a13f741

Looking at the answers to a test that is on the teacher's desk

771p12f771

I think that you would be cheating if you had a test and you had the answers o you could see them

800w11m800

Looking at the teacher's answers for a test

805w12m805

Looking at an answer sheet in a test

807w12f807

Look at the answers for a test (you would find them out by looking on the teacher's desk)

856b12f856a

Looking at the answers while having a test

862b11m862

Looking up answers in tests

874g12m874

On spelling test looking into the answers

972f15sb5972

In a test the teacher writes down the answers looking at that sheet of paper

Having a calculator in a maths test

774c12f774

Using a calculator in a test or piece of work where it states 'do not use a calculator'

795c12m795

Using a calculator in a maths test

800w11m800

Using a calculator in a test

801w12m801

Using a calculator in a maths test

808w12m808

Using a calculator in parts of maths and various tests

811w12m811

Using a calculator in a test

841s11f841

If you are doing a mental arithmetic test you use a calculator

844b12m844

Using a calculator in a test you are not to

906d11f906

Using a calculator in a maths test

964f15ph5964

Bring a calculator into a non calculator test and using it

TEST:S EXCHANGING INFORMATION

3234h15f323

I think cheating is someone telling you the questions to an on-coming test

725a12f725

If you're sitting next to a friend in a tables test and you tell them the answer

754p13m754

In a test asking your mate for the answers

768p13f768

Asking someone for the answers in a test

844b12m844

Asking your friends for answers on a test

890d13f890

Asking somebody else what the questions are in a test if they've already done it

Cheating by telling in a silent test/ communications

3004h14m300

Confirming in tests

3014h14m301

Conferring in tests

3074h15f307

Talking / conferring answers in a test

704t14m704

Helping someone in a test

706t14m706

Helping someone in a test

707t14m707

Helping people in tests

745a12f745

Work on your own in tests not together

746a12f746

Working together in tests when other people are working on their own

774c12f774

Helping each other in a test or piece of work supposed to be done on your own

789c12m789

Working with a partner in a test

886d14f886

Asking your friend not to cover her work during an internal school test/ exam

888d14f888

Helping people to cheat in tests

911d12f911

Helping somebody in a test

912d12f912

Helping friends in test

945f15d5945

When doing mini vocab or verbs test in language lessons many people on their table copy off each other

Talking in tests

709t14m709

Talking in tests

719a12f719

Talking to your friend while in a test and using your friends ideas for the answers to the question instead of what you think

723a12f723

Talking about answers during a test

725a12f725

Talking to the next person while a test is in operation

757p13m757

Speaking while the test is on

766p13f766

Talking in a test

Laughing at people in a test

783c12m783

Talking in a test

871G871

Talking in a test to someone who is cheating

924d12f924

Talking during a test

TESTS: PRE-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

3074h15f307

Getting a test paper before the test

3134h15m313

Stealing answers for a test

3214h14f321

Cheating by somehow obtaining answers to a test before it had begun

721a12m721

Saying you found the answers to an exam you were having, you revised the answers so you knew them in the test

778c12f778

I think looking at questions before you meant to in a test is cheating

878d14f878

If you look at the test questions on a teacher's desk before the test and then revise what you need to know

899d13f899

Stealing the results of a test and then copying them onto your paper

905d11f905

Cheating in a test by going into the teacher's room and looking at the results

91512f915a

Stealing a test paper

917d11f917

Finding test results and taking them

933f16d5933

Obtaining a past paper of a test you are going to do

936f15d5936

Gaining access to the exam and seeing the questions before the actual test

952m16ph5952

Going under people's passwords and finding out work or tests

956f16ph5956

Seeing the test paper before everyone else

962f15ph5962

Seeing the exam test paper before others or before the test

969m15sb5969

Looking at the answers before doing a test

996m14mh4996

Nicking an internal exam paper from the cupboard

Asking a friend (who has previously done the work/test) about the answers of a test

904d14f904

Telling friends the questions on a test you have already had so they will do well when they do it

91512f915a

If your friend has had a test and you're going to have the same one but haven't yet had it, then she tells you some of the questions and answers

933f16d5933

Finding out the content of a test from someone who has already done it

982f14sb4982

When your teacher tells you what the test you have got and your friend has had it so they tell you the answers

TESTS: POST-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

3224h14f322

Changing the answers on your test when you have marked it yourself

702t14m702

Telling the teacher the wrong result that you got in a test when they ask

710t14f710

When you are marking your own test paper and put a better mark than you got

744a13m744

Waiting for answers to be called out in test

768p13f768

Changing your answers after a test and saying you got them right

795c12m795

Saying that you have a higher test score than you have

796c12m796

Lying in a test about your score

845b11m845

Writing the answers to a test when you're marking it

855b12f855

When someone has marked a test they change the answer to make it right

911d12f911

Changing the answer of your test when you are marking it

925d12f925

Lying about your test result

935f15d5935

Cheating in small tests by changing your answers to the correct ones and marking them right.

952m16ph5952

Changing answers as they are read out in class tests

953m15ph5953

Changing answers at the end of a test

954m15ph5954

Copying answers from the board and putting on test

Adding marks onto end of small class test

Mitching a lesson when you have a test then getting your friends test and copying it when you come around to doing the test

963f15ph5963

Missing the paper and then asking the answers of friends

Staying off school when there is a test and you are not ill so that you get more time to revise

904d14f904

Staying home on the day of a test so you will have longer to revise

TESTS: ACTIVE COPYING

1007f15mh51007

Copying in class tests

3044h15m304

Copying in tests

3194h14m319

Copying in tests

706t14m706

Copying answers in a test

761p13f761

Copying in tests

767p13m767

Copying in a test

769p13m769

Copying in a test

772p12f772

Copying in tests

883d13f883

Copying in an important test

889d14f889

Copying tests

890d13f890

Copying in a test

895d13f895

Copying in an important test

925d12f925

Copying answers in a test

933f16d5933

Copying in a general test

Copying someone else's answers in a test

3074h15f307

Copying off someone in a test

3084h15f308

Copying a test from a friend

3214h14f321

Copying answers done by other people in tests

707t14m707

Copying someone in a test

712t14f712

Copying off people in tests

725a12f725

Copying someone ins a test to see your own abilities

734a13m734

Copying people's test results

750a13m750

I think cheating is when you are in a serious test or something and you copy them

763p13m763

Looking at other peoples tests and copying them

793c12f793

Copying people's test answers

818wh13m818

Copying people's answers in tests

835s11f835

Copying people in test

836s10f836

Copying a person in a test

844b12m844

Copying someone else's work in a test

878d14f878

If you copy someone else's work in a test

884d14f884

Seeing one person do something (e.g., speaking in an oral test) and copying what they say)

885d14f885

Copy other peoples work in written test by looking at their work
In an oral test copying what someone else has been heard saying

891d13f891

Copying someone else's test

893d13f893

Copying someone in an important test

899d13f899

Copying somebody else's test paper etc.,

903d13f903

Looking at someone else's test paper and copying the answers

904d14f904

Copying other peoples test papers

910d12f910

Copying off someone in a maths mental test

911d12f911

Copying someone's test (in any lesson)

928d12f928

Copying off people's work in a test or in just ordinary work

940f15d5940

Copying someone's answers in a test

943f16d5943

Copying a friends answers in test (small and unimportant)

956f16ph5956

Copying other people in tests

Using a textbook in a test to copy from or find an answer from

798c12f798

Looking in a book when doing a test and copying the answers

833s11833

In a tables test copying tables off your pencil case

877g14m877

Copying answers in a test or copying the answer out of the answer book

937f15d5937

Taking and copying large chunk of a text book in something like an SC1

945f15d5945

Also when doing small tests in class keeping a book open without the teacher noticing and copying from the book

Knowing someone is copying you test but not doing anything about it

Deliberately letting someone copy you test answers placing your answer sheet in a position so they can see it

When you have a test and someone copies you

815w12m815

When you are having a test and then someone is copying you, that is cheating

Cheating in a test - copying someone's ideas. Cheating in a test would not hurt somebody you would only be deceiving yourself

896d14f896

Listening to a person in an oral test to get ideas for yourself

TESTS: BRIBERY, SEDUCTION, CORRUPTION

808

A teacher giving you a test and you have never done it in class

(iii) TESTS/EXAMS**TESTS/EXAMS: CHEATING**

944f15d5944

Cheating in exams and tests

949f16d5949

Cheating in test/ exams

957f15ph5957

Cheating in a test/exam

958f15ph5958

Cheating in a test / exam

959f15ph5959

Cheating in a test/exam

960f15ph5960

Cheating in a test/ exam

TEST/EXAMS: LOOKING AT THE WORK OF OTHERS

792c12f792

If you are in an exam/test you could look at someone's

826wh12m826

Looking at somebody else's paper in a test or exam

826wh12m828

Looking at somebody else's test paper or exam in a test or an exam

TESTS/EXAMS: EXCHANGING INFORMATION

788c12f788

Take a cheat sheet in with you when you are doing a test/exam

Writing on your hands what the answer is when you are doing a test/exam

790c12f790

Writing answers on your hand in test/exams

794c12f794

Writing the answer on your hand before doing the exam

823wh12m823

Writing on your hand or on your pencil case in a exam, test etc

912d12f912

Writing on your hand the answers or a test or exam

920d12f920

Writing answers to tests/exams on your hand/ paper. If bringing paper into the test

936f15d5936

Taking notes into a test/ exam with you

994m14mh4994

Copy the answers on a piece of paper and bring it in on the test or exam

997f14mh4997

When you've got all the answers of an exam secretly hidden for a test or exam

912

Look at answers in books whilst doing a test or exam

TESTS/EXAMS: EXCHANGING INFORMATION

888

Cheating in exams/test e.g. Asking friends answers

Conferring with somebody in an important exam/test

3124h14f312

During a test or an exam you and a mate consult each other on the answers

950f15d5950

Thinking up a sign language or code to use in an exam/ test

721

Talking to the person next to you or in front of you during an exam/ test and putting them off

TESTS/EXAMS: PRE-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

920

Knowing what the answers/ questions are to a test/ exam

TESTS/EXAMS: ACTIVE COPYING

3144h15f314

Copying in a test or exam

790c12f790

Copying in a test /exam

794c12f794

Copying in a test/exam

898d13f898

Copying during exams/tests

902d14f902

Copying a test/exam

912d12f912

Copying in tests or exams

950f15d5950

Copying work in tests/ exams. GCSE's (either by just looking at someone else's paper/ work) etc.,

Copying somebody's answer paper in an important exam/test

3204h15f320

Copying somebody in a test/exam

719a12f719

Copying your friends work while doing some sort of test or exam

721a12m721

Copying other pupil's work in a test or an exam

776c12m776

Looking at other peoples work in test/exams and copying

798c12f798

Copying someone's answers in a test or exam

842s11f842

Copying someone in a test or exam (over their shoulder)

901d13f901

Looking at someone's work in an exam or test and coping it

936f15d5936

Deliberately copying someone else's answers on a test/ exam

997f14mh4997

When you copy someone else's test or exam

Copying from a source or book when doing a test/exam

Asking your friend not to cover her work during an internal school test/ exam

TESTS/EXAMS: PASSIVE COPYING

Using someone's revision notes to revise from and not making your own

(iv) NON-SPECIFIC**NON-SPECIFIC: CHEATING**

Cheating

NON-SPECIFIC: LOOKING AT THE WORK OF OTHERS

703i14f703

Looking at other people's work when they don't want you to

726a13m726

Looking at your friends' work

728a13m728

Look at other people's work

731a12m731

Looking over people's shoulders

734a13m735

Looking at your friends answers

737a13m737

Looking at other people's work

738a13m738

Looking at somebody's work

Looking

739a13m739

Looking at other people's work

744a13m744

Looking at people's work

748a13m748

Looking at peoples answers

Looking at people's work

752p13m752

Looking at others work

758p13f758

Looking on someone else's paper

766p13f766

Looking at different peoples work

767p13m767

Looking at other peoples work

773p13m773

Looking at other peoples work

775c12f775

Looking at other peoples work

777c12m777

Looking at people's work

783c12m783

Looking at the person's next to you

788c12f788

Looking over your friend's shoulder to see what he/she has put down

811w12m811

Looking at someone else's sheet

817w12m817

Looking at other people's work

819wh13m819

Looking at other people's work or copying them

829wh12m829

Looking at someone else's paper

834s11f834

Look at other people when dictation starts (when you are not sure about the words)

837s11f837

Look over someone's shoulder

Taking someone's paper and looking at it when they don't know

838s11f838

Looking at other people's work and writing it in

841s11f841

Looking at your friends work

849b12m849

Looking at other peoples work

855b12f855

Looking at other people's work

857b12f857

Looking at other people's work

859b12m859

Looking at other people's work

866gf13866

Looking at someone else's paper

868g13m868

Looking at someone else's paper

876g13m876

Look at other people's work

905d11f905

Looking at someone's work

91511f915

Looking at people's work if they don't say you can

91512f915a

Looking at somebody's work

917d11f917

Looking at other people work

919d11f919

Looking at someone else's work or exams

920d12f920

Looking at someone's work

952m16ph5952

Reading other people's pages

957f15ph5957

Looking/ copy someone's work

958f15ph5958

Looking / copying someone else's work

959f15ph5959

Looking / copying someone else's work

960f15ph5960

Looking / copying someone else's work

963f15ph5963

Taking a look at another person's paper

964f15ph5964
looking at someone else's answers

969m15sb5969
Looking at other people's work

971f15sb5971
Looking at each others papers

972f15sb5972
Looking at someone else's paper

980m14sb4980
Looking at other people's books

985m14mh4985
Looking a the person next to you's work

NON-SPECIFIC: UNAUTHORISED MATERIALS

702t14m702
Writing the answers on your hand

Writing the answers on a nearby book

716t14f716
I think cheating is when you hide the answers in your pencil case

742a12f742
Writing down the answers and looking at them when they don't know the answer

753p13m753
Writing answers in on your hands

756p13m756
Writing the answers on your hand

757p13m757
Writing it on your hand

773p13m773
Writing on your hand

Writing it on your pencil case

789c12m789
Writing down the answers on a piece of paper or your hand

817w12m817
Sneaking a piece of paper with the answers on it

819wh13m819
Having pencil cases with answers written inside them.

820wh13m820
Writing some answers in your pencil case

Writing things on your hand and copying them

822wh13m822
Having a sheet of paper which tells you the answers

825wh13m825
Writing on your pencil case

Writing on your hand

826wh12m826
Writing notes on your hand or pencil case

832s10f832
Taking a bit of paper with the answer on it

834s11f834
Wear a shoe with the back torn out and put the paper in there

840s10f840
Write on a piece of paper and put it on the floor by your feet with the answers on it

848b12f848
Writing notes down on hand

866gf13866
Writing answers on your hand

871G871
Writing on your hand

873g13m873
Writing answers down on something

Hiding a piece of paper on top of a book with the answers on that you can see

876g13m876
Little note on paper

Note on hand

877g14m877
Putting notes on your hand

951m15ph5951
Writing on covers of books, skin, pencil, pencil case, table tops

952m16ph5952
Notes or information written on paper, in pencil cases, cloth labels – not skin! Written small on white parts of pencil cases scratched on pen tins

Physics formulas on pencils or circled numbers on a pencil case with times tables on

953m15ph5953
Writing answers somewhere e.g., on your hand

954m15ph5954
Writing on hand in pencil case

962f15ph5962
Writing answers on your hand

963f15ph5963
Writing answers on your hand etc

964f15ph5964
Writing answers on your arm

967m15ph5967
Writing on your hand the answer

970m15sb5970
Writing the answers to questions on your hand

973m15sb5973
Writing answers on your hand

990m14mh4990
Taking a piece of paper with answers on it

995f14mh4995
Writing answers on your hands and rubbing them off as your go along

Having an earpiece with someone feeding you the answers

714t14m714
Using more advanced equipment

719a12f719

Using an item to help you find out a question when not supposed to

739a13m739

Using the answers in some books in the back

744a13m744

Using information for answers

752p13m752

Using a source of information

Using a book

756p13m756

Having the sheet or book in front of you

757p13m757

Looking on sheets on wall for the answers

758p13f758

Having a sheet with answers on or taking the answer book

791c12f791

If you use a text book (etc) and you're not meant to

825wh13m825

Using the book you are using as a pad for looking at with the answers in it

Having the answer book open on the floor

828wh12m828

Having a pencil case which has mathematical symbols or drawings on it

Having a non transparent pencil case in an exam which you can hide notes in

834s11f834

Use a electric dictionary to write down the answer

Buy a pen with 'X' maths answer if you forget something, look at it

Look at the poster on the board which could help (if it is not taken down)

858b12m858

Using certain equipment when not needed

859b12m859

Using materials you're not supposed to

873g13m873

Hiding some earphone to a cassette player that have the answers on

951m15ph5951

Using mini radios to cheat with one person sitting outside the exam telling you the answers

952m16ph5952

Mini radio mike with someone outside looking up answers

955f15ph5955

Using sources to gain answers (when you shouldn't)

995f14mh4995

Seeing the answer in the classroom (as in on the wall) and writing it down)

If you're working on an exercise from a book then look at the answers

3164h14m316

Looking at an answer sheet

704114m704

Looking at answer booklets

715t14f715

Looking in the back of a book for answers

724a12m724

Looking at the answer sheet

728a13m728

Look at teachers answer book

745a12f745

Cheating by looking in answer books

746a12f746

Looking at the back of the books where the answers might be

748a13m748

Reading the teachers answer books

757p13m757

Looking in your book

762p13m762

Cheating is looking at the answers in an answer book

767p13m767

Looking at the answers in the teachers book

773p13m773

Opening your work book

798c12f798

When the teacher isn't in the room trying to look at the answer book

803w12f803

Looking at an answer paper

805w12m805

Looking in an answer booklet when you don't need it

825wh13m825

Looking at the answers in your desk

Looking at the teachers answer paper

834s11f834

Look at what the teacher's paper (answer) of the answer that I don't know

836s10f836

Looking at the answers in books

837s11f837

Looking in your bag to see if you can find anything useful

854b12f854

Looking at people's books

912d12f912

Looking at teachers answers sheets

917d11f917

Looking at teachers notes

953m15ph5953

Looking in text book for answers

954m15ph5954

Looking in back of text for answers

982f14sb4982

Looking at the teachers answer book

Looking at the answer

728a13m728

Read other people's answers

Listening to people's answers

741a13f741

Distracting the teacher to go out the room and them looking at the answers

748a13m748

Listening to other peoples answers

758p13f758

If someone else's paper is turned over and they go somewhere and you look at it

777c12m777

Looking at the answers

846b12m846

Looking at answers

848b12f848

Looking at answers

851b12m851

Looking at the answers

853b11f853

Looking at answers

854b12f854

Looking at answers

859b12m859

Looking at answers

864b12m864

Looking at answers

981f14sb4981

Reading answers

983f14sb4983

Reading answers

Using an instrument such as a calculator when you're not allowed

718a12f718

Using a calculator when you've been told not to

721a12m721

In a subject where you are not allowed to use a calculator for the exercise and you do

724a12m724

Using a calculator when not supposed to

737a13m737

Using a calculator

744a13m744

Calculator in maths

745a12f745

Cheating on calculators

746a12f746

Using calculators when you are not allowed

756p13m756

Using a calculator when told not to

758p13f758

Using a calculator

768p13f768

Using your calculator when you're not meant to

818wh13m818

Using calculators when you are not allowed

820wh13m820

In maths papers using your calculator when it says not to

828wh12m828

Using things like calculators on questions when you are especially asked not to

846b12m846

Don't cheat with a calculator

861b12m861

Using things like calculators in tests

872g12f872

If we have calculators in the maths lesson

889d14f889

Not doing things properly (e.g., using a calculator)

898d13f898

Cheating could also be disobeying your teacher e.g., if you were told not to see a calculator or say a dictionary, then the use of these would be cheating on this piece of work

951m15ph5951

Using a calculator watch or storage watches

952m16ph5952

Calculator memories or watch memories Equipment you are not allowed like watch calculators or things in your pocket

953m15ph5953

Using a databank watch to record answers

954m15ph5954

Entering info on calculator watch

Using calculator when not allowed

961m15ph5916

Using a calculator when insisted not to

972f15sb5972

Using a calculator when not meant to

NON-SPECIFIC: EXCHANGING INFORMATION

Telling someone the answers in sign language

758p13f758

Writing answers on your hand and giving them to people

766p13f766

Passing notes around

773p13m773

Writing notes to each other

789c12m789

Passing notes with answers on them

Showing the person next to you the answers holding up answers to the person opposite person sitting in front of you

854b12f854

Writing notes to when you are not supposed to

964f15ph5964

Passing notes

Asking your friend the answer

3094h15f309
Asking someone for the right answer to a question without having tried to find out the question yourself

3134h15m313
Asking someone for the answer

702t14m702
Asking someone for answers

712t14f712
Asking people for the answers all the time

718a12f718
Asking someone else the answer

720a12m720
Asking someone else for an answer

724a12m724
Asking people for the answers

726a13m726
Telling your friends the answer

731a12m731
Asking what's the answer

736a12m736
Asking for answers from people

739a13m739
Asking you friend the answer

741a13f741
Asking the person next to you what the answers are

744a13m744
Asking for answers off people

746a12f746
By asking all your friends what the answers are

747a13m747
Asking someone for the answers

748a13m748
Asking people to talk you the answers

752p13m752
Telling people the answer

Asking other people the answer

757p13m757
Telling other people answers

Asking other people answers

758p13f758
Asking for the answers

Telling people answers

767p13m767
Asking for the answers

769p13m769
Telling someone the answers

775c12f775
Asking the answers off other people

777c12m777
Asking people what answers are

779c12f779

Telling other people your answers so you're cheating and so is the other person

787c12f787
I think asking someone for the answers can be a form of cheating

789c12m789
Asking what the answer to a question is to your partner

790c12f790
Asking/ getting people to tell you the answer of something and not how to do it

794c12f794
Overhearing someone saying the answer

837s11f837
Asking someone the answer

854b12f854
Getting people to tell you the answers

Getting people to hint and get the answers from that

855b12f855
Telling someone the answer

865g13f865
Asking friends for answers

868g13m868
Asking the teacher all the answers

873g13m873
Asking someone for the answers

874g12m874
Asking another person

875g13m875
Helping someone to show them your answers

892d13f892
Asking people for the answers to a question

909d12f909
Asking someone the answers

Asking the teacher

924d12f924
Asking people for answers

Telling people the answers

951m15ph5951
Asking other people

952m16ph5952
Asking other people

964f15ph5964
Asking a friend for the answers

981f14sb4981
Asking others

982f14sb4982
Telling people the answers

Spreading the answers

752p13m752
Conferring answers

Sharing answers

778c12f778

I think discussing answers with someone else is cheating

809w11f809
Helping people with answers

817w12m817
Helping people with the answers

831wh13m831
Showing each other the answer

866gf13866
Making a joint effort on a paper

880d14f880
Working in groups to come up with an answers when you should be working alone

912d12f912
Exchanging answers with friends

955f15ph5955
Discussing answers

956f16ph5956
Discussing answers with people

962f15ph5962
Discussing answers with others

990m14mh4990
Using any type of sign language

Talking

756p13m756
Whispering to the person next to you

758p13f758
Speaking to each other is known as cheating

773p13m773
Talking to the other person next to you

854b12f854
Shouting out and telling everybody else

NON-SPECIFIC: PRE-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

3064h14m306
Stealing answers from teacher

3134h15m313
Getting the answer book off the teachers desk

731a12m731
Stealing the answer sheet and copying the answers down

732a13m732
Stealing the answer sheet and copying it out

737a13m737
Stealing answer sheets

821wh13m821
Using answers you have stolen

825wh13m825
Looking at the paper the night before

848b12f848
Starting before the time given

865g13f865
Taking answer sheets

866gf13866

Stealing the paper before it's been given to you

869g13m869
Stealing answers

907d12f907
You might sneak into a teachers folder and find the answers out

91511f915
Stealing answer books

964f15ph5964
Stealing the answer paper and learning the questions and answers

967m15ph5967
Stealing other people's work

978m14sb4978
Nicking the answer book

988f14mh4988
Getting the answer sheets without anyone knowing

Taking people's work book

763p13m763
Taking someone's English so you don't get a detention

NON-SPECIFIC: POST-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

719a12f719
When you mark you work and you've put the wrong answers down and change the answer to then right one and then tick it

721a12m721
When you get to mark your own work and you get one wrong, so you cross it off write the proper answer and tick it

745a12f745
Cheating by not knowing and when answers come putting them down

757p13m757
When you mark them, writing the answers down

Getting your friend to marks them right when you change books

758p13f758
Rubbing out answers and put the real answers in

791c12f791
When the teachers read out the answers, you then write them in or change your own

810w12f810
When you change an answer after it's been marked

831wh13m831
Changing grades on your progress report

838s11f838
Writing down the answer that the teacher gave as an example then rubbing it off so you don't see it

859b12m859
Changing other people's work

880d14f880
Changing somebody else's work
If you are asked to read out your marks you sat perhaps 9 when you got 4

902d14f902
Changing a grade on your report to show your parents

903d13f903

Changing a grade from say a C to an A to show your parents

913d12f913

Changing marks

If a teacher says you've got a higher mark then what they actually gave you and not telling them wrong

920d12f920

Change your mark/grade

932f16d5932

Lying about a mark of grade to a teacher

Changing your mark, either on a report when it has been given out of in a register for example, changing a late mark.

939f15d5939

Changing your answers after you have been told the correct ones

951m15ph5951

Correcting answer when the teaching is reading out the answers

Lying about mark

953m15ph5953

Changing answers

954m15ph5954

Lying about mark

962f15ph5962

Changing your answer when marking your own work to the correct answer

965m15ph5965

Correcting work as it is being marked

967m15ph5967

Correcting work as it is being marked

Faking sickness to get off school

937f15d5937

Faking notes from parents to get more time for work

994m14mh4994

Don't give in so you have extra time

Saying you've done something which you haven't e.g., reading a book

932f16d5932

Lying about doing your work, making up an excuse about why you didn't do it.

937f15d5937

Pretending to a teacher that work has been handed in and blaming them for its loss

946f15d5946

Telling the teacher you've given in work when you haven't and they think they've lost it

NON-SPECIFIC: SOCIAL LOAFING AND LAZINESS

Getting someone to do all the work in a group

746a12f746

Letting your friends do all the work and you looking

796c12m796

Working in a group but making no contribution to the work

886d14f886

Working with clever people to do work. Using them for their answers and ideas. Letting them do all the work

892d13f892

Taking the credit for someone else's work i.e., you do nothing in a group but say you did

902d14f902

Letting 1 person in a group do all the work

903d13f903

Working in a group and letting one person do all the work but still take the credit for it

942f15d5942

Not helping in group activities and taking credit for other people's work

987f14mh4987

Saying you're going to work in pairs and making the other person do all the work

NON-SPECIFIC: ACTIVE COPYING

3014h14m301

Copying friends

709t14m709

Copying work

713t14m713

Copying

724a12m724

Copying

727a13m727

Copying

732a13m732

Copying

795c12m795

Copying work

809w11f809

Copying people's work

812w12m812

Copying answers

854b12f854

Copying

865g13f865

Copying

898d13f898

Copying others work

955f15ph5955

Copying

981f14sb4981

Copying

Copying other people's work

1002f15mh51002

Copying other people's work

1004f15mh51004

Sitting next to someone who is copying what you're writing

- 1006m15mh51006
Copying other people's work
- 3014h14m301
Copying other people's work
- 3024h14f302
Copying other people's work
- 3054h15f305
Copying other people's work word for word
- Copying people's work because you know it's right
- 3064h14m306
Copying answers off someone else
- 3094h15f309
Copying somebody's work word for word
- 3104h14f310
Copying other people's work just to get better marks yourself
- 3134h15m313
Copying people's work
- 3144h15f314
When you can't think of anything to write so you turn to the person next to you to see what they've written
When you are stuck on a subject at school so you copy your friends work to avoid going to the teacher for help
- 3154h14m315
Copying from someone
- 3164h14m316
Copying other people's work
- 3224h14f322
Copying someone else's work
- 704t14m704
Copying others work
- 707t14m707
Copying peoples work
- 714t14m714
Copying other people's work
- 715t14f715
Copying off a friend
- 716t14f716
Or when you copy someone else's work
- 720a12m720
Looking at someone else's book (answers)
- 729a13f729
Copying someone's work
- 733a13m733
Copying people's work
- 734a13m734
Copying people's work
- 736a12m736
Copying someone
- 741a13f741
Looking at other people's work and copying
- Sitting next to someone who is brainy and the copying them
- 742a12f742
- Copying someone's work or answer
- 747a13m747
Copying somebody
- 749a13m749
Cheating is when you copy someone or something
- 754p13m754
Looking at someone else's work and copying answers
- 756p13m756
Copying other people's work
- 757p13m757
Copying other people's work
- 761p13f761
Using other peoples work
- 769p13m769
Following someone else by saying the wrong answer
- 778c12f778
I think copying someone else's work is cheating
- 779c12f779
Looking at someone else's work and copying their answers
- 780c12f780
Copying from other people (in any circumstances)
- 781c12m781
Using someone's work to help you on some questions
- 784c12m784
Copying someone's work
- 789c12m789
Copying each others work
- 791c12f791
When you copy someone else's
- 799w12f799
I think cheating is when you copy someone's work
- 803w12f803
Copying someone's answers on some work
- 804w12f804
Copying people's work
- 805w12m805
Copying other people's work
- 807w12f807
Copying people's work
- 810w12f810
When you copy people
- 816w12m816
Cheating is copying someone else's work
- 817w12m817
Asking to copy work
- 820wh13m820
Copying people next to you
- 825wh13m825
Copying off someone else
- 835s11f835
Copying other people's work
- 839s11f839

Copying people's work 845b11m845 Copying answers from the person next to you	930d12f930 Looking at other peoples answers and making them your own
846b12m846 Copying off other people	933f16d5933 Using someone else's work
848b12f848 Copying someone by you	949f16d5949 Copying other people's work or ideas
851b12m851 Copying off other peoples work	951m15ph5951 Copying other people
859b12m859 Copying people's work	953m15ph5953 Copying from person next to you
860B860 Copying other people's work	954m15ph5954 Copying person next to you
861b12m861 Copying someone over their shoulder	966m15ph5966 Copying someone else's notes/ answers
862b11m862 Copying other people's work	968m15sb5968 Looking at other people's work and copying it
868g13m868 Copy someone else's work	969m15sb5969 Copying other people's work
869g13m869 Copying people's work (not exam)	970m15sb5970 Copying people's work
875g13m875 Copying someone's work to better your mark	973m15sb5973 Copying other people's work
879d13f879 Cheating - knowingly using answers that are not your won and not thinking for yourself	974m15sb5974 Copying other people's work
883d13f883 Copying answers off others for written work	975m15sb5974 Copying other people's work
892d14f892a Copying other peoples work	977f14sb4977 Copying other people's work
895d13f895 Copying other people's work	978m14sb4978 Copying other people's work
8973d13F897 Seeing someone's work and then copying it	979m14sb4979 Copying your mates Doing the same as someone else
900d14f900 Copying someone else's work	982f14sb4982 Copying people's work
906d11f906 Copying off someone else's work	893 Copying people's work
911d12f911 Copying somebody when they are winning something so that you can win as well	986m14mh4986 Copying other students
914d12f914 Looking at people's work and copying	987f14mh4987 Copying off friends
919d11f919 Copying someone's work	988f14mh4988 Copying others work
920d12f920 Copying word for word someone's work	990m14mh4990 Copying the person next to you
921d11f921 Copying a friend in work	992f14mh4992 Copying other people's work
922d11f922 Looking at other people's work and writing them down yourself	993f14mh4993 Copying other people's work
924d12f924 Copying other people's work	994m14mh4994 Copy from someone else
927d11f927 Copying off the person next to you	995f14mh4995 Copying the answers from the person next to you

998m14mh4998
Copying people's work

999m14mh4999
Copying someone else's work or their answers

Copying out of text books

1003f15mh51003
Using a text book writing it word for word

1004f15mh51004
Finding the teachers answer page and copying from that

1005f15mh51005
Copying from a text book

1006m15mh51006
Copying out of a book when you're not supposed to

3034h15m303
Copying straight form a book

3044h15m304
Copying from a text book

3194h14m319
If you're given a question, writing the example answer

718a12f718
Copying from an answer book

769p13m769
Copy the answers out of the books

91511f915
Copying answer books

916d12f916
Copying something straight out from a book

917d11f917
Copying out of text books

928d12f928
Tracing a picture then saying you drew it all by yourself

943f16d5943
Looking up answers in backs of books and using them as your own work

986m14mh4986
Copying word for word out of a book

987f14mh4987
Copying out of text books or Internet etc

989m14mh4989
Copy work from books and internet

993f14mh4993
Copying out of text books

994m14mh4994
Copy from a text book

997f14mh4997
Printing out the subject from a multimedia encyclopaedia and saying you typed it yourself

Copying work that is given to you by another pupil

Looking/ copying a friend's work / test without anyone realising

723a12f723
Copying someone else's work (stories drawings) if they don't want you to

789c12m789
Copying someone's work without them knowing

790c12f790
Copying the person next to you without asking

931d12f931
Looking at other people's (copying) without their permission

932f16d5932
Copying someone's work without their permission.

942f15d5942
Copying someone else's work without their permission

976m15sb5976
Copying what someone else has wrote when not told to

Printing people's work off the computer and putting your name at the top

3084h15f308
Handing in other people's work as your own

711t14f711
Taking someone's work without them knowing and handing it in as your own

741a13f741
Putting your name on someone else's work and then scribble out their names

855b12f855
To swap papers because the other person has more right answers than you

874g12m874
Swapping papers with another person

891d13f891
Printing out what someone else has written upon the computer and the saying that it's yours

895d13f895
Swapping your work with someone else's

896d14f896
Using someone else's work as your own

8973d13F897
Giving in someone else's work in and getting credit for it

912d12f912
Writing a different name at the top of your sheet

984f14mh4984
Copying someone else's work and giving it in as your own

Cheating by using someone else's work

3024h14f302
Taking other people's ideas

3094h15f309
Copying the basic principle (ideas) of somebody's work

3154h14m315
Stealing people's ideas

702t14m702
Taking people's ideas

711t14f711
Taking people's ideas

Stealing people's work, ideas, answers without them knowing or agreeing

809w11f809
Copying people's ideas

862b11m862
Copying designs for competitions

879d13f879
Cheating is making someone thing that you did something when you did not, e.g. work

880d14f880
Stealing somebody else's idea and taking the credit

882d14f882
Giving people ideas to help them, but if you were in an exam you would have to think for yourself so you're not helping

886d14f886
Overhearing somebody else's ideas and putting them into practice

888d14f888
Stealing people's ideas

889d14f889
Taking other people's ideas

890d13f890
Taking the credit for someone else's idea so that you get a good mark (and they don't) when you didn't do anything

892d13f892
Using others ideas as your own

892d14f892a
Using other people's ideas

893d13f893
Taking somebody's ideas and using them as your own

You taking the credit for something you did not do

894d13f894
Take someone's ideas and call them your own

8973d13f897
Being asked to write a poem and copying one out of a poetry book

898d13f898
Pinching someone's basic idea improving it and getting a better mark than the original

899d13f899
Picking up other people's ideas and saying they're you won without changing a detail

Asking for someone's opinion of something and using it as your own

901d13f901
Using someone else's ideas and words because you can't think of your own

903d13f903
Looking at someone else's work and using their ideas. It's OK to look at their work and develop their ideas

904d14f904
Stealing other peoples ideas

941f15d5941
Taking credit for answers which aren't all entirely your idea

942f15d5942
Copying other ideas you have seen from another person and adapting them slightly to suit your needs

943f16d5943
Using other people's ideas and developing them differently (but only slightly)

944f15d5944
Taking credit for someone else's work

946f15d5946
Copying pieces out of books or other sources of information and saying you wrote it

985m14mh4985
Plagiarism

NON-SPECIFIC: PASSIVE COPYING

Parents doing you work

791c12f791
If someone else, e.g your mum, a friend does it for you

841s11f841
Ask your mum the answer to all of the questions

914d12f914
Asking mums and dads for answers

Getting someone else to do your work for you

3164h14m316
Getting somebody else to do the work for you

3174h15m317
Getting someone to do your work

743a13f743
Let other people do you work for you

859b12m859
Getting people to do things for you

889d14f889
Get other people to do something for you

892d13f892
Letting other people do your work for you

895d13f895
Getting someone else to do your work
8973d13f897
Letting other people do your work for you

899d13f899
Getting other people to do your work and passing it off as your work

950f15d5950
Getting someone else to do the work for you

976m15sb5976
Getting someone else to do your work

Paying someone to do your work

742a12f742
Making people do your work and not letting them do theirs

789c12m789
Forcing someone to tell you the answer by bullying or blackmail

817w12m817

Making somebody give their book to you by saying I'll bully you if you don't

821wh13m821
Paying somebody for answers

858b12m858
Making other people do your work

869g13m869
Buying answers
967m15ph5967
Paying people to do your work for you

980m14sb4980
Getting other people to work and say that you're help them out some time and you don't

984f14mh4984
Paying someone to do the work for you

Doing someone's work for them

NON-SPECIFIC: BRIBERY, SEDUCTION AND CORRUPTION

737a13m737
Threatening to beat up if don't let them look at work

905d11f905
Bribing someone

965m15ph5965
Bribing teacher to get good grades

985m14mh4985
Bribing teacher to tell you results

Bribing teacher to change your grades

993f14mh4993
Bribing someone to do the work for you

A teacher marking a test and because they like you they put a tick n every one even if it is wrong (they wouldn't though)

909d12f909
The teacher telling you the answers

934f15d5934
The teaching giving you hints about what the questions may be so you can revise certain topic areas or answers

986m14mh4986
The teachers helping you when they are not supposed to

(v) CLASSWORK**CLASSWORK: LOOKING AT THE WORK OF OTHERS**

764p12m764
Looking at other peoples answers in a classroom lesson

778c12f778
I think looking at someone else's work is cheating

CLASSWORK: UNAUTHORISED MATERIALS

844b12m844
Writing answers on your hand in class

When doing work and your stuck on something and you look at the answer sheet to find the answer and writing it

722a12f722
Cheating on work, e.g., looking at the answer sheets

748a13m748
Looking at answers in the book you are working from

835s11f835
If your maths book has an answer page you look at it

858b12m858
Looking at answers on k.m.p cards (maths)

Looking at someone else's work for the answers

860B860
Don't look at the answers in the back

939f15d5939
Purposely looking at answers before completing the work

976m15sb5976
Looking at answers when not told to in the lesson

Using a calculator in a class you are not to

CLASSWORK: EXCHANGING INFORMATION

Passing notes in class to ask for question answers

Asking your friend for answers in class

Conferring in lessons

CLASSWORK: POST-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

When you've been given some questions to do and you don't do them until the teacher's put the answers on the board

721a12m721
When you use an answer sheet o answer work, but you don't tick or cross them yet. You copy down the answer first, then do it

722a12f722
If you pretend that your teacher has marked your work and put a tick next to it

752p13m752
Changing your work when marking it

774c12f774
If you are marking a piece of work your self and if you have not got the answer. Write it in when he says what it is

795c12m795
Changing answers on work when marking your own work

841s11f841
When you are checking it with a teacher you change the question

8973d13F897
When marking work (e.g., in maths) changing the answers so that they are right

913d12f913
Change answer from wrong to right when you're mark you own work

920d12f920
If you mark your own work and you change your answers

946f15d5946
Changing your grade that a teacher has given you for a piece of work by adding a or a + to make it higher

Handing in work late. For example, if everyone had 1 week to do a project, the person who handed it in later would have had more time to spend on it and get a better mark

939f15d5939
Lying about things in order to stretch a deadline (e.g., claiming you were ill when in fact your just couldn't be bothered

943f16d5943
Lying about circumstances to get extensions on work (so that you can have longer than anyone else)

CLASSWORK: ACTIVE COPYING

Copying work

3044h15m304
Copying in class

3174h15m317
Copying classwork

709l14m709
Copying work

795c12m795
Copying work

809w11f809
Copying people's work

898d13f898
Copying others work

944f15d5944
Copying work/ homework

Copying someone's work in class

3004h14m300
Copying a partners piece of classwork

3084h15f308
Copying people's classwork

3194h14m319
Copying someone else's classwork

3214h14f321
Copying work of any kind. Copying classwork you find difficult

740a13f740
Copying someone's answers in class

765p13f765
Copying people's work which took them time to work out

797c12f797
If you copy someone's class work

806w12f806
When you copy someone's work in class

844b12m844
Copying someone else's work in class

895d13f895
Listening to people and then saying what they said just in different words, for a piece of speaking work

909d12f909
Copying somebody else's work in a lesson (looking over shoulder)

946f15d5946
Copying work from friends or getting someone else to do your work

965m15ph5965
Copying people's notes in class

996m14mh4996
Copying somebody's work in class

997f14mh4997
Copying someone else's entire work

Printing out from a CD-Rom encyclopaedia and handing it in as word processed work

950f15d5950
Copying someone else's work, i.e., from a text book and submitting it as your own

Taking other people's work off the computer and using it and then wiping it

784c12m784
Handing in other peoples work as your own

942f15d5942
Using somebody else's work and saying it's your own

950f15d5950
Getting someone's work and changing the name to yours without them knowing

If you take someone else's ideas and call them your own, like in oral work if you hear someone say an idea and then tell the teachers calling it your idea

879d13f879
Using someone else's ideas in a piece of work

882d14f882
Looking at other peoples work and copying their work and ideas

883d13f883
Using someone else's ideas for drama work

887d14f887
Pinching someone else's ideas for a project etc.,

896d14f896
Taking someone's ideas for a piece of work and then using them yourself

902d14f902
Pinching ideas for work, i.e., project

939f15d5939

Using somebody else's work / research to write your own (e.g., using someone else's research to write up a biology investigation)

946f15d5946
Copying ideas from friends when it comes to project work and using all their information rather than finding your own

947f16d5947
Handing in musical compositions or poetry which was written by someone else as your own

949f16d5949
Taking credit for someone else's work

950f15d5950
Using someone else's ideas when they were using them i.e., for a project structure and not developing / changing them very much

979m14sb4979
Copying a design

CLASSWORK: PASSIVE COPYING

Getting extra help for work that is supposed to be yours e.g., from parents

(vi) HOMEWORK**HOMEWORK: UNAUTHORISED MATERIALS**

Using a calculator for your maths homework when you're not supposed to

891d13f891

Getting asked a question for homework that says DO NOT use your calculator and you use it

HOMEWORK: PRE-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

When you have been set prep to do, then someone goes and steals the answer sheet

Asking someone who has done the test what the questions are of what the exam is about

HOMEWORK: POST-ASSESSMENT TACTICS

If you have been set homework, e.g., read a chapter from your reading book and you pretend to

776c12m776

Handing in homework late

792c12f792

You could cheat on teachers, by saying that you've done your homework but left it at home when you haven't (lying again)

793c12f793

Doing homework at school

903d13f903

Handing homework in late and lying about forgetting them

904d14f904

Staying at home when homework must be handed in

91511f915

Lying about homework if you hand it in late

937f15d5937

Handing in coursework very late and having more

Using excuses such as leaving homework on a bus, which are not truthful

938f16d5938

Making up excuses from your parents to get extra time for coursework

Being away from school when coursework is due in to get extra days

941f15d5941

Asking for an extension on a coursework deadline, For a pathetic reason, e.g., not bothering

942f15d5942

Not handing in coursework and work in on the deadline

948f16d5948

Lying about homework if not done

Taking time off school if you have not bothered to complete coursework

949f16d5949

Lying, e.g., to teachers about homework etc.

Not doing your homework at all

709t14m709

Not doing homework

795c12m795

Not handing in homework

887d14f887

Lying to a teacher about homework

888d14f888

Making up an excuse not to give in your homework when you can't be bothered to do it

891d13f891

Not doing your homework and then telling your teacher that you've done it and forgotten it

896d14f896

Pretending to read a book for school and then asking someone what it is about instead of actually reading the book

902d14f902

Telling lies about homework to a teacher

942f15d5942

Not doing homework and making up excuses (constantly) of why unable to do it

HOMEWORK: ACTIVE COPYING

Copying homework

1005f15mh51005

Copying homework

3014h14m301

Copying coursework

3144h15f314

Copying homework

3174h15m317

Copying homework

3214h14f321

Let other people copy your homework

709t14m709

Copying homework

793c12f793

Copying homework

794c12f794

Copying homework or work done in lessons which you have not completed

796c12m796

Copying homework because you couldn't be bothered to do it

889d14f889

Copying homework

890d13f890

Copying homework

891d13f891

Copying homework

892d13f892

Copying homework

901d13f901

Copying homework because you can't be bothered to do it yourself

902d14f902

Copying homework

945f15d5945

Copying coursework

948f16d5948

Copying homework from other people if not done

967m15ph5967

Copying homework

Copying other people's coursework

1007f15mh51007

Copying other people's coursework

3004h14m300

Copying someone's homework

Copying someone's coursework

3074h15f307

Copying someone's homework

3104h14f310

Copying somebody else's homework

3124h14f312

Borrowing a mates' homework to copy from just because you haven't done your own

3194h14m319

Copying someone else's homework

3204h15f320

Copying friends homework/school work

3234h15f323

I think cheating is when you can't do your homework and you get someone else's book and copy the work

712t14f712

Copying off people's homework

768p13f768

Copying someone else's homework

785c12m785

Copying someone's homework

786c12f786

When you have been set homework and you copy it from someone else that is cheating

787c12f787

I think copying someone else's homework is cheating

790c12f790

Copying someone's homework and getting everything right

792c12f792

You could cheat by copying someone's homework, because the teachers know and tell you to do it again. It's still wrong though.

797c12f797

When you get someone else to do your homework or if you copy someone's homework

798c12f798

Copying someone else's homework/work instead of doing it yourself

799w12f799

Don't ask if you can copy someone's homework

832s10f832

Copying someone else's homework

843s10f843

Copying someone else's homework

884d14f884

Copying someone's homework

885d14f885

Copying someone else's homework

888d14f888

Copying people's homework

893d13f893

Copying someone's homework

894d13f894

Copying someone's homework

895d13f895

Copying someone's homework

896d14f896

Looking at another person's work and copying, i.e. homework

904d14f904

Copying people's work (homework)

916d12f916

Cheating in your homework by looking at somebody else's and copying it all out

917d11f917

You haven't done your homework so you copy off your friends

935f15d5935

Copying someone else's homework unless you have the teachers permission or you were ill

936f15d5936

Deliberately copying someone's homework/ coursework

937f15d5937

Copying other people's coursework

938f16d5938

Copying someone else's work/ coursework

939f15d5939

Copying someone else's homework answers

940f15d5940

Copying someone's homework

941f15d5941

Copying homework from someone when they have spent hours doing it

945f15d5945

Copying friends homework

948f16d5948

Using other people's coursework or exam notes to revise or use in exam or coursework

950f15d5950

Copying other people's homework (with or without their consent)

965m15ph5965

Copying other people's homework

Copying out of books for coursework

3194h14m319

If you have an essay to hand in on a certain topic you've done before copying or handing in the old essay to save effort and time

706t14m706

Copying homework from a book

838s11f838

Copying out of books at home then showing your teacher you made it up and getting house points

940f15d5940

Copying chunks from a book and putting it in your coursework / written material

991f14mh4991

Copy out of a text book for your coursework

992f14mh4992

Copying from a text book for coursework

Let other people copy you homework

932f16d5932

Copying someone's homework if you've forgotten it, with their permission.

933f16d5933

Copying someone's homework with their permission

Using other people's homework as your own

734a13m734

Nicking people's homework

774c12f774

Taking somebody's book and copying either the homework or classwork

784c12m784

Taking someone's homework

835s11f835

Taking someone else's homework home and copying it

887d14f887

Taking someone's homework book and copying it

899d13f899

When a friend agrees to help you with understanding your homework and you take her answers and get her into trouble for

926d12f926

Go through people's bags to look for their homework to copy

933f16d5933

Copying someone's homework (if they do not know)

Photocopy homework

785c12m785

Switching homework to write your name on it

879d13f879

In an exam or other work, where you use someone else's work as your own

939f15d5939

Passing in another person's coursework as your own

940f15d5940

Using someone else's coursework and passing it off as your own

947f16d5947

Copying someone else's homework and handing it in as your own

Getting ideas from other people's coursework**HOMEWORK: PASSIVE COPYING****Getting your parents to do homework**

3004h14m300

Getting your parents to do you projects work etc.,

3014h14m301

Getting Parents or friends to do homework or coursework

3124h14f312

Asking a mate/ relative to complete your homework for you

3164h14m316

Using other people work for coursework

838s11f838

Getting homework and getting your mum to do it for you (helping doesn't count)

839s11f839

You get your brother or someone else to do your homework and you don't learn a thing

840s10f840

Getting your mum and dad to do all your homework or else you won't learn anything

843s10f843

Getting your brother to do your homework for you

884d14f884

Getting your mum or dad to do your homework

898d13f898

Doing homework with your friends because the idea of homework is to work it out yourself. Parents shouldn't help either

937f15d5937

Getting parents to help you with important work such as coursework and technology projects

940f15d5940

Getting your parents to do your homework for you

945f15d5945

Getting help from friends when doing coursework

Asking parents and people outside school to do homework

Asking people outside school to do coursework

982f14sb4982

Your parents tell all the answers when you are doing your homework

Getting someone else to do your homework

3064h14m306

Asking your friend to do you homework

799w12f799

I think cheating is when you get someone to do your homework for you

836s10f836

Making someone else do your homework

894d13f894

Getting people to do your homework for you

896d14f896

Getting someone to do your homework for you

903d13f903

Letting someone do your homework for you

908d12f908
Getting someone else to do your homework

910d12f910
Getting someone to do your homework

914d12f914
Getting someone else to do your homework

938f16d5938
Getting someone else to do your coursework

942f15d5942
Getting somebody to do your coursework

943f16d5943
Getting other people to do homework

966m15ph5966
Getting someone to do your homework/ classwork for you

974m15sb5974
Getting someone to do your homework

975m15sb5974
Getting someone else to do your homework

980m14sb4980
Get other people to do your homework

987f14mh4987

Getting other people to do your homework

Pay people to do your homework

763p13m763
Making someone smart do your homework

886d14f886
Blackmailing a friend to help you do your coursework

935f15d5935
Making other people do you homework for you

965m15ph5965
Paying people to do your homework

985m14mh4985
Paying for some coursework

Let other people copy you homework

888d14f888
Letting people copy your homework

903d13f903
Telling someone all the answers to their homework

HOMEWORK: BRIBERY, SEDUCTION AND CORRUPTION

Blackmailing a friend to help you do your coursework

APPENDIX 6**Study 3****Answers given to the question 'Is cheating in school wrong?'**

(i) Wrong respondents page 580

(ii) Ambivalent respondents page 593

(iii) Right respondents page 606

APPENDIX 6 (i)

Wrong Respondents

001

I think cheating is wrong cheating is one of the worst things you can do because if you are copying in an exam then it is not your own work and you learn any thing from that. It is also not telling the teacher what group you should be in because it is not your work. It can also get you into trouble and it not worth doing. I think people that cheat are not cheating other people they are cheating them self's. And plus the people that they are copying off might be wrong and if you did it to your self you might get it right. And if you copy someone because you don't know the answer. You should take a gess because at least it will be you own work and what ever restalt you get you should be proud of because its your own work and you didn't cheat. It is what you know not what somebody else know's.

004

I think cheating in school, is wrong because it is not wright and it is not fair people should not cheat on others. I think cheating can be lieing, pretending or hurting someone - if people cheat they should be punished because it is wrong top cheat on somebody. Some people get very hurt if others cheat on them. Also cheating can get people in lots of trouble.

006

One thing about cheating is that it is wrong, if you copy somebody and write the same letters down or numbers down it might be wrong and you will have the same answer as the other person and then the teacher will know if you have been cheating or not. You can also get the same mark out of 10 or 20 then you have been caught out. You shouldnt cheat because that is what will happen and then you will know why you shouldnt cheat anymore. People do it all the time because they do not know the answer, they should think carefully and then they might get it right. It won't be fair on the other person either, because the teacher might think you have done it or the other person you have been copying off of. You will get into trouble, I think it is wrong and this is my answer to say why.

008

I think cheating is wrong because just say you cheated in an exam. You might get put in the top group and you might only be able to do the things that the middle or bottom groups are doing. If you do cheat in an exam or even in a lesson you will get found out if you have copied the person next to you because they will have the same marks as you and they will have the right questions that you got wrong. So you will get caught. I have always thought cheating is wrong because its worthless and stupid.

009

Yes I think cheating is wrong and dishonest you don't get anywhere by cheating because you always get found out it you cheat in your sats or any other test you may get a job that your not really very good at And then you may get the sack and have to rely on Social Security or income support for your money. People who cheat find out eventually that they did wrong and realise not to do it again because the person they cheated from may find out or they will be put in a group which they find is to differcult for them. Yes CHEATING IS WRONG. You get knowhere.

010

I think that cheating in school is wrong because the person that is cheating doesn't know if the other persons answers are right or wrong And the teacher will find out that you are cheating. The teacher also wants to know what you know and not the person sitting near you. And if you cheat in an exam you might get put into a top set and then find it really difficult, You also shouldn't cheat because its not fair on the other person because they might get into trouble for copieing the other person when it was them that cheating.

012

I think cheating is wrong because people won't be able to know the correct answer and will never learn anything. If they do cheat it's not fare on the person their cheating of off. I don't think it matters if you get a quision wrong as long as you try your hardest and then you will be told the correct answer and will now for the next time. Some people get worried about their friends picking on them for getting it wrong but you don't have to tell them so theres nothing to worry about.

013

I don't think cheating is right in school. People maybe in a very important test or exam, the person who cheats maybe more capable than the person their copying off or cheating. If someone is looking in the answer book then working it out that is not cheating. Cheating is pretending to understanding when you don't then your cheating yourself. People often copy because their nervous. But then they might work out a answer to a question theirself then look at their friends and it's not the same they put their friends answer down and it might then be wrong and if they hadn't cheating by copying they would have got it right.

015

I think that cheating is very wrong because it is not showing your own ability but someone else's. If you cheated and you copied someone else's work they might have it wrong so the you might of known the answer but you thought it was wrong and copied someone's. You have to try to do it yourself and it doesn't matter if it's wrong just as long you tried your best. If you cheated then you might get put into the top set and you can't cope with it so it's better to be in the level the set that you can cope in, that is at your standard of work.

016

I think cheating isn't fair on other people. Someone whos not very dever might get all the questions to a test right because of cheating while someone might be trying very hard but not get many right so the cheater will get all the credit. It's also bad for the cheater because they might not be copying down the right answers. Cheating does nothing but show how lazy you are. Also if the cheater and someone else get the same marks, the one who didn't cheat might get blamed for cheating. Cheating is DEFINATLY wrong.

017

YES! I think cheating is wrong in school. In maths the other day, I had finished my work and was just looking around the room. In the back of the question book was an answer to a question that, first you had to estimate it then you had to look to see how close you were. I must

have seen at least 5 maybe 6 people looking in the back before they had had a go at estimating it! I think cheating means looking at the answers before you've done the question. Even if this is just looking at your partners work, or on the answer sheet. Even using a calculator when your suppose to is still cheating.

018

Yes I think cheating is wrong because you will be getting the wrong marks and its not fair. If you cheat then you will get high marks and a good job but when you come to do the job you won't be able to do it because you didn't know what you would have to do. Also if you cheat you will be thick because you would have never used your brain.

019

YES!! I think cheating in school is very wrong. I don't like people who cheat.

021

I think that cheating in school is wrong because when you cheat its unfair on others and you will get told off for doing so. It also is bad for you because it will stay in your name if your caught. 1 boy in my old school youst to cheat and he got caught for it. Nobody liked him anymore and nore did the teachers. Cheating makes you feel bad inside and also makes you feels guilty. It can also turn you into a nasty person if you do it regularly and not as a joke.

024

I think cheating in school is wrong and unfair it's not fair on other pupils. I haven't ever cheat before and I'm not just saying that I really haven't ever cheated. Some people think cheatings fun and worthit but its not in the long run you will feel guilty so it's best not to cheat what's the point. I don't know anyone who's cheated in school and I don't want to either especially if it's a friend.

025

Cheating in school is wrong. And some times I cheat I mean, I am cheating now I am copping this from another pusun so evin I cheat some times.

026

Cheating in schools is wrong because children could not be very brainy and could copy someones work who is quite brainy and do very well in a test or something like that. And you should always do your work not copy and cheat by copying someones work because it not right because it's not your work.

027

Yes cheating in school is wrong. The person who is cheating is not learning anything so if they cheated in an exam and had to go back and do that question they would not have a clue what to do.

028

I think cheating in school is very wrong. The person who is cheating won't benefit from cheating as when it comes to a exam they won't have a clue what to do. Just because they copy work and get things right it won't help them at all when it comes to an exam. So yes, I think cheating is very wrong in school.

029

I think cheating in school is wrong. Especially if you have a really big test which desides what group you will be in next year because if the person next to you cheats

they will get the credit for your work. It is also bad for the person who has cheated. If they cheated on an exam and got put in the top group, they may not understand what they have to do. Also there parents and teachers think they are goo but when they can't do the work set the parents and teachers may get suspicious and the cheater would probably get told off anyway. So it's best not to cheat.

030

Yes! Because the other people don't get the chance to have as good marks as you and because if you copy the person they might of got it wrong even if they are boffins.

032

I think cheating is wrong because you won't learn anything by cheating. If you get a high score and you've cheated then you might get in a group that is to hard for you and it's the same with jobs. If you ccopy exactly the same as someone else then the other person might get told of for cheating when it was you how cheated. Some people think it's OK to cheat so they will be with their friends but I think education is more important.

033

I think cheating in school is wrong, because if you are doing a test and you copy your friends work, they might have it wrong. Also if you cheat in your GCSE's you could get disqualified and when you grow up you won't be able to get a good job. Going on from copying a friends work and putting it in exactly the same words you would get the blame. If you copied a friends exam you could get isolated from lessons for a couple of weeks.

034

Yes cheating is wrong because if for example, you were copying someones work then your parents or teacher won't know what kind of standard is. And that it would be wrong because the other person would of done all the work and all you have to do is copy them.

035

Cheating in school is wrong because if you cheat on a test and you were going to get half marks but instead you get full marks you probably would get work that you can't do.

036

It is wrong because you wont learn anything and will do rubbish in your exams if someone cheats in a test and goes to what group you go in and you cheat you will be put in a high groups and you wont be able to do the work what is set. I think that cheating is wrong, and if you write anything on your hand and a teacher catches you you won't get anything and you won't learn.

037

Yes! Cheating in school is wrong, because you are getting the answers of someone else when you are supposed to answer them yourself which makes the teacher put you in a high group when you don't know anything.

038

Yes it is wrong because you won't know the question if it is asked in an exam. It saves the cheater time when they person works out the answer for the question.

039

Cheating is wrong because it not fair on the other students because your get a good mark without trying your hardest. The student you might be copying from might have the answer wrong anyway but you wouldn't understand the question so you wouldn't learn!!

040

I think cheating is wrong, because people will have studied for hours and other people will cheat and get their answers.

041

Yes. Cheating is wrong, because if people cheat on Exam etc, the teacher might think that you know it all and she/he might say do it again and you won't be able to. Cheating in games etc. , is not fair because it does not give other people a chance. Cheating is just not fair.

042

I think that cheating in school is wrong because it is not fair on the person who has spent ages on researching for somebody else to copy. It doesn't help the teachers either because they think that it is you who knows it (the answer to a question) they would think that you should be in a certain group where the work is either to hard or to easy. It also lets yourself down because in the end cheating isn't worth it, your only going to end up cheating yourself. That's why I think cheating is WRONG in school. This also leads to failure in futer exams etc. ,

043

Cheating in schools I think is wrong this is because you are only cheating yourself e. g. , If you cheat in your tests you could be put into a group you are not ready for or not as advanced as the rest of the students. Also it's the same with GCSE exams you may get a qualification that you need but the job you get may mean nothing to you and you wont know what to do. Cheating is also very unfair if you are copying from someone. They may have put a lot of work into something and someone copies them it can be very frustrating.

044

Yes! Because if you cheat in a test you have a chance of getting a good mark and if you do then when you get into whatever it was that the test was for (let's say Maths)! Then you might not be with the person you were coping from and then you would start getting low marks again. And also if you did copy and got a low mark then you would be really unhappy. You could also get found out by the teacher. So it would save the embarrassment. I personally think that coping and cheating will not help you learn anything.

045

I think cheating is wrong beacuse you are not having a education if you are copying other peoples work.

046

Yes cheating in school or any where else is wrong, as you may get a higher grade in a test and get into the wrong group. Cheating will get you now-where ion the long run because you would struggle through lessons and will have to cheat for the rest of your life. If I had my way I would bann cheating all-together and make each student sit away from anyone else. E. g. , in class once in a test I had finished and look round at my friend on the other side of the room. I saw her look over at the girls next to hers and the write something down. This was a big test to decided which level class we were on next

year, it ended up with her in the top!! I think its really bad an people should not cheat for there own sakes!! They will never benefit from it on the end!!!

047

I think cheating in school is wrong because:

a: its' not fair on others.

b: If other people don't then why should you.

c: Some people don't want to.

049

I think cheating in school is wrong especially if you are copying some-body else's answers because that person might of spent a long time revising for a exam. Cheating can also be when you write things on your hand when you have an exam or it could just be looking at somebody elses work.

050

I think cheating in school is wrong. It can muck up your test results and make you be put in higher groups then you are capable to cope with. Cheating can be where you write things on your hand and copy them down on your answer sheet. Cheating can also be when you take an answer sheet into a test. Cheating can also be when you copy someone elses work.

051

I think cheating in school is very wrong not only are you taking the credit for someone eles work but you may not be able to manage that standard of work yourself. So in the future you will come unstuck and be found out. Also they may have the wrong answers and you may know what the real answer is. Cheating is when you can't be bothered or are having a bit of trouble so they copy someone elses exam or test paper. Even if you copy a piece of work that ist that important it is still cheating. Test and Exams are not the only things that you can cheat from little things in lesson. I would never cheat as I believe that cheating is very wrong, I think if you get caught you should have you test ripped up and be punished. If you coped someone eles work, you won't know what question you need practice. Its not cheating if you go round to your friends house and do you homework together. If you cheat your telling down you teachers, parents, friend and most of all your self. Cheating is never right not matter what the situation is.

052

I think that cheating is wrong because you might get into the habbit. First you might cheat on a little bit if work and then you will be cheating on realy big important tests and you will not get a good education when you are older so that is why I think cheating is wrong.

055

I think it is because, if you cheat and copy the person next to you, your teacher wouldn't proberly know what group your are in or how thick you are or brainy. Or you could be copping a person that doesnt know the answer and you could get in wrong to and your teacher migh suspect something and you could get caught. And if you do get caught the other person could get all the blame.

056

Yes, because when other people have worked as hard as they can and then other 'people' (cheaters) come along and cheat when they do not deserve to win etc. , they will get praise and they do not deserve it. The other person might get very upset.

057

Yes.

059

I think cheating in school is wrong because you will not get a true answer. You will know you have cheated and if you have that question again and you will get it wrong you will get found out in the end. I think when you cheat in school you are also cheating yourself. I would like to see cheating in schools stop.

060

Yes I do think that cheating is wrong because if you are in a test or an exam and you have been told to start. If there is someone sitting next to you and all of you have started to work on your test or exam, and if that person gets stuck and can not work out the sentence or maths or anything, they just sit up as they put their eyes on one side and that side is the other person's work. As the other person is still working or nearly finished the question, the other person that is cheating looks at the answer the other person has written and then they start to write it down. I think that cheating is wrong because the person that has written the answers down might get it wrong and it might get the other person's work wrong too and they can get into big trouble for that. And that is why I say cheating is wrong.

061

Yes because if you cheat it won't get you anywhere and you won't pass your GCSE.

062

Cheating is very wrong because it can ruin your life for when you're older. Because if you copy someone's, theirs might be wrong and so will yours. And if the teacher catches you cheating you can get your papers taken off you and get caught and cheating is just wrong. People sometimes copy people and get the answers right but then you get them right because you copied and that means you don't really know what it is because you've copied. **REMEMBER DON'T CHEAT!**

065

Yes because you cheat yourself and if you go in to a high group you won't now what to do and you want to learn anything.

066

Yes because people will think you are cleverer than you are and set work that is too hard and you won't be able to do it and you will get stuck.

067

Yes I think it is wrong to cheat in school because people will never know if you're good or bad at things in school.

068

Yes it is wrong to cheat in school because you have to learn the things that you don't know.

069

I think that cheating is wrong. The only one that you are cheating is yourself. People who cheat should be ashamed of themselves.

071

If you cheat you are very silly and have no brains to think for yourself you would be very stupid and you will get caught out when you are older anyway.

072

Cheating is wrong because if you cheat you'll never know your ability. You will know your friend's ability or if you cheat off a paper then you're silly. Back to I don't think it's right to cheat and it just goes to show you have not got brains of your own and you have to use someone else's.

075

I think cheating is wrong because if it was a really important test to get a job or something once you have the job you will not know what to do. It is also wrong because if you get caught you would be in serious trouble and your problem would not have a chance to take the test again.

081

I do think cheating in schools is wrong because whoever you're cheating off suffers because if a teacher finds out then you and the other person will get marks deducted but if a teacher doesn't find out well then your just cheating yourself because you don't end up learning anything apart from cheating.

082

Cheating in school is wrong because it is other people's work not yours so you have not done it your friend has or whoever you copied from.

083

I don't think cheating is wrong, it's stupid because if you copy someone else and they get it wrong so will you.

085

I don't think that you should cheat as it is dishonest. You should do your work and your answers. So I do think that it is wrong to cheat. You might as well work with someone in a test if you cheat as it isn't your work. You don't actually know if they have got the answers right or not so why bother you might as well use your brain. It's to see if you're good at that subject or not the tests are for your benefit so you can see where you need to improve. It's a part of life so test prepare you to think for yourself. It is unfair to people as well especially if you get higher than them. It's best to use your brain and not to cheat.

086

I think you should not cheat in school because your exam is to see if you're good in a subject or at spelling and there there to see how well you're in a subject and they could get it wrong and the teacher could see that you have cheated. So it's wrong.

087

I think that cheating in school is wrong because if you want to do well you might as well learn yourself because sometimes when you copy someone else's or cheat it will probably go wrong anyway. If when you cheat by copying someone else your wrong answers will be the same as theirs and it will show up and it really doesn't get you anywhere. I think it's also wrong because it's dishonest and unfair to other people.

088

I think cheating is wrong because if you cheat on GCSE exam and you go for a top job you will be stuck if they

ask you a question from the test you will be stuck because you copied your mates answers and you wouldn't no. It is also wrong because if you get caught you will have your paper ripped up or a phone call to your parents. It's just not worth it! And if you cheat is just goes to show you can't use your own brain and think for yourself. And if someone who simple can't be bothered to answer a question coppies that is not fair.

090

I think that cheating is wrong because if some's takes money of people the person will get upset and because they cannot go to the places that the want to go.

095

I think cheating is things like sneaking a piece of paper up your sleeve with answers on it in a exam. But it could just be as simple as copying homework. I think the worst kind of cheating is something important that if you cheat when it won't do you any good and only look on you to other people. Or it could be like cheating people on money when you buy something, it doesn't matter how expensive it is or cheap, I still think its cheating. I think a lot of people know how to cheat and cheat. Like passing notes with answers on or hiding bits of paper in a pencil case, or engraving answers on a desk or on a tin pencil case. There are many other ways of cheating like if you had a watch and bought another one identical, then broke one of them on purpose and took it back and swapped it.

096

I think cheating in school is wrong, because if it is an exam or a test the teacher only wants to know how much you have learnt or taken in so you are only kidding yourself, if you get all the answers from cheating, not your teacher. If it is another kind of cheating let's say copying, somebody's project again you are only kidding yourself, not your teacher. If it is something like printing somebody else's work of a computer to give in for yourself you are very sad if you can not be bothered to do it for yourself. I also think stealing is a form of cheating too.

097

I think cheating in school is very wrong because you are cheating yourself. If you can't do your maths homework and you copie someones and then in class you are asked to do some then your are in trouble. In Tennis if you are 15/40 down then you pretend its the other way round then you are cheating on your self. I think cheating is very serious.

099

I feel that cheating in school is wrong. It stops you thinking about the question and if the person that was copied from had got the answer wrong then the copier would have also got it wrong (and lost marks if it was a test). Also asking people the answer to a question which you are ment to work out yourself is also wrong, for example, if you were on a trip and you had to answer a question about the name of the place and you decided to go into a shop to ask the question, that would be cheating.

101

I do think cheating is wrong in school because maybe in a exam someone may look at someone elses answers and the person who cheated could get a higher mark. Cheating is a bad thing that people should not do because if the person starts cheating she or he may not be able to stop cheating and that would be very wrong. There are many ways of cheating and some are worse

that others and people shouldn't do it. Teachers should look out for people cheating. Even doing your homework can come to the conclusion of cheating like your maths and your weren't ment to use a calculator and you did.

102

Yes, I think cheating in school is wrong because it might be a bit of homework and the teacher might of thought the person actualy did the homework checked and could get in a lot of trouble. Some more examples. One person might look at someones test and the person how did the test could get there test not counted. Games could be won by a cheater and the person how played the game propally would lose and not want to play that game again. Cheating is definitely wrong to do in school. In normally just gets the person how didn't do anything wrong in trouble.

103

I think cheating is wrong. It is wrong because by cheating you achieve nothing. An example of cheating is if you look over your friends shoulder to see how they've done something or if you ask to see how they've set something out or how much they've done and instead they are looking at the answers. When i said you don't achieve anything by cheating I mean that it isn't your work you haven't done anything and if you get top marks you get praise and congratulated for having your friends work on your paper. Also in a exam you don't have your friends to help you or even cheat from and you are stuck because your friends done your work and also you stay down in your academic way while your friends or friend gets brighter in the sense that with all the help they give you, their brain expands with new ideas.

104

I think chetting is very bad and we should stop doing it.

107

I think cheating is wrong because if you're in a test with the person next to you, but you don't work in partners the person next to you copys you test because they don't know what to do, And when the teacher marks them he/she finds out that one of you was copying the other then you are sereisloy in trouble!

109

Cheating is wrong because if you cheat you are not learning anything because your using the answers that you don't know. Then you won't understand in a test what the question is because you wouldn't of answered by yourself.

110

I feel that cheating is wrong because if you cheat you aren't going to learn anything and if you cheat by copying someone else their answer could be wrong.

112

I believe cheating in school is wrong in a way. There are many different ways of cheating and cheating yourself. If you cheat you are only cheating yourself not anyone else. You won't learn anything. I strongly believ cheating is wrong.

115

I honestly think cheating is wrong because if you cheat you won't know your own ability of work and you might not be able to understand the work given to you. In

exams it is even worse as you won't be able to see what your score is.

118

Cheating is wrong in test and in dees becomes in our test it will not be canted for your GCSE and the people know your cheating will go an tell the teres.

119

I think cheating is very wrong because if you cheat off someone and get really high marks then you should feel guilty because you know it's not your own work.

120

I think that cheating is wrong because you would be getting a good grade for something that you haven't done and if you get asked something about it you won't know it and I just think that it is wrong.

121

I do not agree with cheating because I feel it's wrong. Nothing is worth cheating for no matter what the particular situation is! It can cause a lot of trouble which ins unnecessary.

123

I do not think that there is any need to cheet in school. There are enough facilities for you to learn by and enough teachers to ask if you don't understand something. So you have absolutely not excuses to cheat. I'm not saying that you should never be tempted only that you should never act on that temptation. Because your not only cheating on the tests your cheating yourself.

124

I think cheating is wrong because you are pretending that you know the answer to the question when you don't. If you look at the question and then try to work out how they have got, I think that is okay. If you cheat then I think you are cheating yourself.

125

Cheating is wrong if you cheat your cheating yourself more than you are cheating anyone else, because you miss out on the education.

126

I think cheating is wrong and if you do it you're not achieving anything.

127

I think cheating is wrong, because if you cheat you could always probably get found out if you cheat. I have cheated before but I luckily didn't get found out about it. So I was lucky. I think cheating is wrong in all ways even if you don't sort of cheat but do for a little bet like helping a friend that is steel cheating.

128

I thing cheating is a wrong thing to do like looking at someone witing or having your book in your lap. I thing it is wrong to cheating because you won't full good in side because you have a grused all the time if you cheat.

129

I think it is wrong to cheat because if you are in a test and you look at someone elses test and copey the

ansers you are not showing what you know. Anyway there ansers mite be wrong so there is no point.

131

Yes it's wrong because you think that's better because you will have wright but if somebody like your sister or mother or teacher ask you this question and you can't answer you sai in your head, how was stupid to don't learn my lesson and to cheat during the exam.

132

Cheating is wrong really it is being to other people and its lying to yourself. I like the worst cheating in school when you have an exam is when you are working through it and then you get stuck so you look at someone elses work because it there peronal work and you are cheating on your friend if you have enogh friends.

133

I think cheating in school is wrong because if someone wrote the answers on their hand or something like that then for a start it isn't really fair to the other students. If you cheat then you are cheating yourself, because if there is another time when the question comes up then you won't know because you cheated earlier on in life.

134

Yes it is because you have got to put in what you want and then you get out what you have done. If one person has spent hours and hours on their homework, revision ect. , then other people that haven't done any of the work copy the other persons work. Or in an exam you take one of the questions sheets anserws paper and go home and learn the anserw off by heart. Looking at other peoples anserw sheet then altering it a bit to look like your work.

136

Cheating is wrong in school because it doesn't help you, it doesn't help your teacher. It also can stuff up your life if you get found out cheating in your GCSE's.

138

Cheating is wrong because you are not assest on your ability but on some one eles and if you have a problem and you cheat you can not get help because they don't no what you have gone wrong on. The worst from of cheating I think is looking at other peoples exams because it is not fair on the other person.

139

I think that cheating is wrong probably always. Cheating is wrong espetualy on the exams. If you cheat on an exam like GCSE and pass it will a good mark you will have problems on your work because you won't understand what you have to do and how. Sometimes when you cheat once you can't stop and you can get addicted to it.

141

Cheating is wrong there is no exeptions to this is very wrong. What you sould do is try your best and if you don't know the answer, that okay just skip it, it's just wrong cheating.

142

I think that cheating in school is wrong. There is no really point in cheating. You come to school to get an education and if you are cheating, it must mean that you

do not know how to do something. There is nothing wrong with this but if you cheat to find the answers you will never know how to do the certain thing. Cheating does not just mean cheating on yourself, it also means, cheating your family, your school, your teachers as well as the person you are cheating from. For example, you cheat on your exam, and pass. Your parents don't know about the cheating and are proud of you. You get top marks in school and your teacher are proud. Your school is also proud. It's your own consens. Only you would know. The person you cheated could get a good job if it was on a level so they are the ones who will have to live with it.

145

Yes, I think cheating is wrong. I usually think of cheating when if someone rolls a number 3 on a dice for a game, but they wanted a 2, so they just move it 2 and get what they want. I don't like it the way when people just ignore the fact that their friends are lying. Lying is also a form of cheating. If someone cheats on each other, I think it is really unfair. If someone kept on cheating then they would have no friends and no one would trust them. Stealing is also cheating. In a way, not doing what you are told could also be a form of cheating.

146

If I think about cheating the first thing I think about is cheating in school. Mainly in exams. I don't think it's right for one person to do all the studying and revising. And then another person to come along and just take all that from you. Like, there's this really hard answer and no one else knows what to do apart from you and you're really chuffed about it. The one other person comes and copies it off you and taking your gladness away. You also can't get the highest mark because someone's got the same mark. I wouldn't ever do it in really important exams and would hate it if anyone else did it to me.

147

I personally think that academic dishonesty is unfair and stupid. If you want to get detention or fail your exams or lose friends then I suppose it's fine, but not many people want that. I think cheating is unfair because the people that don't cheat will get a lower mark, even if they have done loads of revision and preparation and when the cheaters can't even be bothered to enter the exam properly. Cheating is also in a way lazy. If it means copying others answers then it could end up getting the innocent party in trouble and the guilty getting away scot free and with all the credit. This I think is very unfair. I think cheaters are liars, fools and stupidly blind.

148

Some cheating is definitely wrong. Looking at answers of another person in an exam is wrong because it is not your own work and you are graded/ marked for copying which isn't fair. It also doesn't benefit anyone. Cheating like looking at answers before a test deliberately and not owning up is wrong too, because it's not fair on others who have learnt and revised really hard for a test and all the 'cheat' has done is look at answers and get good marks. The 'cheat' wouldn't learn anything and so it wouldn't be any good to them apart from their reputation. If someone cheats like looking at answers that is wrong, but if they own up I think that they shouldn't be punished because they've admitted they were wrong and so they wouldn't actually 'cheat' because others would know what they've done and not count it as a result so it wouldn't benefit the person's reputation. I think that cheating can be cheating yourself. For example, if you really wanted to play in a hockey match and you didn't because of some stupid reasons, you would be cheating yourself of the opportunity. (In school it might be cheating yourself of good marks because you didn't

revise) But this isn't 'wrong' as such, it isn't building a false opinion of you self, or effects anybody else. Only taking away your self enjoyment.

149

Cheating in test is wrong. If you are in an exam and you look at someone else's work and copy it's wrong because you are only set an exam to test you and your personal ability not someone else's, e. g. . If you are sitting the 11 and you don't know what to write and you look at another person's copy someone's answer, that's cheating, it could totally change the rest of your schooling for the next 8 or 9 years of your life, if you go to a school which demands a lot of hard work you may not keep up because you didn't write what you thought the answer was years ago! It is also cheating yourself, because you aren't actually going to benefit in the long-run! By skipping off school or missing lessons at school you are also cheating yourself. You are expected to turn up for a lesson by your teacher the teacher is there for your benefit - no-one else's. By asking a friend to do your work for you is cheating, school work is generally expressing what you think and believe, your friend is having to work hard just because you can't be bothered, e. g. . You bunked a lesson to go out somewhere, if your friend has to cover for you that is cheating already! Your friend does her work and then comes home to do your work for you. I'd rather not write anymore.

151

I think that cheating in schools is wrong when people cheat, they are not helping anyone. They are just cheating themselves, because if they look at somebody else's answer, that means that they have not studied properly for the exam. They are just writing down someone else's thoughts and views. It is not really them writing it. They could be put in a higher class due to them cheating and have to struggle with the standard of work. Or vice versa: the person they copied from could have got something wrong. You could be put into a lower class and be bored with the class because it is too easy. This would not be trying enough for the person.

152

I know why people may cheat and most of the time it is because they have left all the revising for exams the night before about 10:00 and can't remember a thing (or they haven't revised at all) and instead of taking a lucky guess (you never know) they think their only chance is to cheat. I think that it is wrong and it's unfair to everybody else who have spent those weeks revising and it especially unfair to the person they are cheating off. You are not cheating anybody but yourself, even if you get 100% as your result and you can go home and tell everybody how well you have done, but deep down inside you'll know that it wasn't your own work...you'll only be letting yourself down, along with your family friends and teachers. What's the point? You will probably get found out anyway and have to sit the test again by yourself. Cheating isn't worth the trouble. Personally I would rather revise for weeks on end than copy someone else's work.

153

I think that cheating of any kind is wrong. I think that people who cheat aren't cheating the teacher they are cheating themselves. I think that cheating from looking over somebody's shoulder in a test to stealing exam results is wrong. The test or exam is to test the person to see if they have revised or how much they know if you have cheated is yourself and nobody else. I think that people should realise this because teachers could think you were really brainy and put you in the top set when you couldn't cope.

155

Personally I think cheating is wrong, so yes cheating is wrong. I think that if you cheated all through your school years then in the end of year exams and small test you would get good marks, then when it came to your A-levels and GCSE's then you would be stuck as you wouldn't be able to look at other people's work and wouldn't do very well because you would rely on other people to do the work for you. Another way of cheating is of righting answers on your hand, pencil case or paper. I also think this is wrong as when you could to A-levels and GCSE's again you wouldn't be able to cheat in these exams as they are so tightly controlled.

156

think cheating in schools is wrong. You are using someone else's work as your own and that is wrong. Cheating is not necessarily copying someone's work. It could be that your cheating your parents who think you're working and you not. I think both using someone's work as your own and cheating your parents is wrong.

159

I think cheating in school is wrong. Cheating doesn't tell the teacher how much you are learning. It gives your teacher a false evaluation. e. g. , If you get your dad to do your homework and you get full marks for it your teacher will think you're a whizz when really your dad is the whizz. Cheating is wrong, because in tests if you haven't revised and the person sitting next to you has you could copy and that is unfair.

160

I think cheating in school is bad because if you cheat in a subject like Maths or something and you end up in the top set you will find it very difficult and the set below you will end up knowing more because you haven't understood or learnt anything about what you were being taught. In a test if you cheat and get found out then you will be given a bad name and you won't be able to get rid of it. When you are doing your GCSE's then you will have to sit miles away from everyone else and you will feel lonely. Your friends may leave you because they don't want to hang round with a cheat. What's the point in cheating?

162

I think that when a person cheats it is wrong because they could get into trouble and it's not fair, for example, if somebody got a mark back, say 98%, but it wasn't all their own work, they could be put into a maths group or something like that and not understand what anybody is talking about. Cheating is also unfair for the person you are cheating on, I mean you could get through to something you really don't deserve to get to and the person you cheated on didn't. I don't really like when people cheat and sometimes people copy my work. It does annoy me because when you see that they are copying you and have done the same you feel as though you haven't achieved anything.

168

Cheating in school is wrong because they don't really get anything out of it. They either get good marks and don't learn anything out of it or get bad marks and turn out that you could have had better marks if you actually tried. Tests are for your benefit to help you in the future they are also very important because they will help you get a job. There should be more ways to stop people from cheating.

169

I think cheating is wrong. Children who do cheat - depending on the extent of the cheating - should be punished. If someone talks in an exam, in some exams this is classed as cheating. I know it does in ours!! I don't think cheating is just copying, but spoiling someone else's chances. So, talking disturbs concentration. This is why I believe talking in an exam is cheating. If someone tries to copy someone else's work, this is also cheating. I say this because, if you copy then it's not your own work. Anyway what they've written may be wrong anyway: If some copies, then they've not thought of it themselves. They've taken someone else's thoughts. If someone stumbles across a testpaper - with written answers - and they copy and memorise the answer, I call this cheating. If they find it, they do not have to read it.

170

I believe cheating in schools is wrong especially in exams. Copying is dishonest and not fair on the person who has done the work. When found out the person could be branded with 'cheat' as a name for the rest of their life. I think that cheating your friends in school is even worse because the friend would have trusted you and valued you highly. In exams cheating is wrong because every pupil should be given a fair chance.

172

I would have to say yes it is because it is not fair to use other people's knowledge to gain academically, e. g. , if someone is on a test and looks at other people's papers and then ends up with a higher grade than they should have got they don't learn anything and there is nothing to stop them doing it again. Of course, cheating doesn't just come down to looking at someone else's test paper, they can do it by copying and idea in Art or another subject. Even if it still turns out different, you will still know that you did not earn the whole grade for it and should only be praised on what you have done which may be a lot but it is not the finished article. People can also cheat by lying to a teacher over why they have not done the homework or why they haven't handed it in as this is cheating yourself out of an education. Really the only person you are cheating when you cheat is yourself as you are not reaching your full potential and you rely so much on other people then what happens when there is no one to copy off or to give ideas? You would have relied on other people so much that you wouldn't have bothered to revise or think of your own ideas. So, yes, cheating is wrong as it can hurt your friends, make your teachers not trust you and make you into a person who is lazy and with no self-respect. We would all like to cheat sometimes, but the reason we don't is that we know it is wrong and something inside must tell us it's wrong otherwise everyone would cheat wouldn't they?

174

In school I think there are many times when people could be accused of cheating, i. e. , pushing in front of people when queuing for the canteen, running to get on the bus first, listening to other people's conversation and the one that most people think is cheating, copying others' work. If I had to define cheating, I would say it is when you take advantage of someone or a situation, in order to gain something for yourself. When I listed the different types of cheating I think they can all fall into this definition. I think if you asked most people what they thought cheating was, I think they would say something like pinching exam papers, or copying work that someone else has done. Although I agree that this is cheating, I think that there is more to it than that because although at the time you think you are gaining something, in the long run you may be losing, in that if I was doing an exam, and copied an answer from the girls next to me, although I might get it right, I wouldn't actually know how to work it out, no I wouldn't have

gained anything except for a slightly better mark. Although I have been tempted to cheat in the past, I haven't, because I don't think it is fair on the person or people that you are copying off, or pushing past in the dinner queue, as in the case of copying it was their work, and nothing really gives you the right to take their ideas. To conclude, I think that cheating in school is wrong, although pushing past people in the corridor may not seem like cheating to some people, in the end, I don't think you actually gain anything from cheating, no there isn't much point in doing it is there??

177

I think that cheating in school is wrong because you are using other peoples ideas, answer etc. , to gain credit for your results. I think that any form of cheating be it in a exam or in a running race for example is wrong. If other people can be bothered to take time to revise and then someone sits down next to them and copies what they write, I would feel extremely upset because the person who is cheating will get the results etc. , when it really was someone else ideas. Also I think that the person who is doing the cheating isn't doing themselves any good, because if they get caught cheating, it will go on their school report and word will get around and the person wouldn't be trusted and will more than less likely be disliked by other people. I've had an incident where people were copying me but I daren't say anything because I didn't want to make a fuss being at a new school. Eventually it stopped but for the period in which they were copying me my confidence was knocked for six. I felt what was the point in working when someone was going to copy what you've worked at and get the credit for it. I think people who have cheated are insecure because they don't know how to work on their own and are probably special needs but no one has realised.

187

I think that cheating is wrong e. g. , when you cheat in an exam it is wrong. I think this is wrong as exams are to test what you know, they are to let the teachers know what you understand and do not understand. If you copy the answers from somebody else and they are correct the teachers will think you understand the work and then when it comes to put the work into practise you will not now what to do or when you come to doing your GCSE or A levels and you can not copy off anybody you will get a low mark. Another form of cheating is copying other peoples homework. I do not think you should copy other people as this is meant to be done at home not at school and is again to test what you understand and do not understand.

193

I think cheating in school is wrong. If you look at a view of cheating, as in copying in an exam from the person sat next to you, you are not only being unfair to the person but being unfair to yourself, because you are cheating yourself. It is yourself you are letting down, by not knowing the work and if you constantly cheat you will know nothing and come to rely on other people and never do anything for yourself. If you cheat it may lead other people into trouble. Another way of cheating could be for example, cheating younger more feeble people out of lunch money or something similar, which I find unacceptable and wrong. These people cheating others are like bullies. One other way of cheating could be taking homework again from more feeble people, copying it up into your book then handing the books in, again this isn't fair to the person and it is not a surprise you need to cheat in exams as you never know the work. 'Cheating is BAD!'

194

Is it because it is unfair. When it comes to classes and subjects - if someone in that class cheated and got a very good mark and everyone else didn't cheat and their marks were lower - that would be unfair. So it is wrong. Some people are tempted to cheat and can't resist it - but there are people who are in control of themselves and know that it is wrong. But:- there might be a serious situation (or even situations) where the only way to get out of it is to cheat. I'm not sure what but I'm sure there is. That would mainly occur out of school life. It's not just cheating on work but on people - like friends. That is wrong except if there (again) was a very good reason. I don't think cheating gets you anywhere really. It might do in some cases though. When someone cheats and I find out about it with a friend - we will automatically slag that person off - even if he/she was a friend to us. It's just a natural reaction for me. I just find it very annoying - because I'm not the sort of person who cheats (I may have at some times but I think everyone has). We would be friends with that person again in about 10 minutes or so. Cheating, for me has always been a bad thing and probably always will be - so Yes, cheating in school is wrong. (I have no more to write above).

195

I think cheating is stealing somebodys idea, breaking a rule, dishonest. In school there are many times when a pupil is tempted to cheat. I know of many times when I have but I have never been able to carry it out. Personally I think cheating is like stealing. Its pinching something that belongs to someone else, and then taking the credit. (If in fact the person has done the correct answer in the first place). That's the first type of cheating. Copying off somebody else. Stealing. The second type is of course, the opposite. Knowing too many answers. Writing notes on your hand, or hiding facts and figures in your pencil case. This isn't like the first type, its just plain unfair to the rest of the pupils and in some way, on yourself. If you don't know answers and facts about the subject, but the teachers think you do, they will never be able to monitor your progress correctly and you sometimes won't get the help that you need. The third type - being in on it together. Only revising half of what you are ment to and then nudge and wink at your friend next door for help. If you're going to cheat, it's bad enough doing it by yourself without dragging someone else into it. If she's a friend then don't involve her. Those are the views I have on cheating in three sections,. That's the way I view cheating in my head. Divided in 3 parts. All of them at the bottom, coming to the same conclusion. WRONG!

196

I think that cheating is wrong, not because you're cheating other people, but yourself. I think it is dishonest. I don't think it is too serious if it's just a little test, but it is still wrong. But if you are in a big exam and you cheat you can get false qualification and lead other people to believe that you're something when you aren't. I think that cheating is also selfish, if other people have worked hard to get where they are and then cheats just copy their work and then take the credit. Some other people don't think cheating is a serious matter until they get found out and this is when they regret doing it. I don't know how people who cheat can live with the guilt on their conscience. Also some people cheat once and these are the people who feel guilty but people who cheat repetitively are just selfish.

198

I think cheating in school exams, i. e. copying somebody elses answer(s) is wrong, but you will only be cheating on your self. The exams are to test you not your friend next door to you, so if you copy, her when

you haven't got a clue about something then the teachers will think that you know about that subject when you actually don't. On the other hand she might of got the answer wrong so if you copy off them you will get the answer wrong as well. If you get caught cheating you will also be punished and if you were in a major exam, e. g. , GCSE or A level and the made your paper void, it could affect the rest of your life so it isn't really worth the risk.

200

If you were in an exam and you looked at someone else's work I think this would definitely be wrong because you would be getting a higher mark than you should. But if you were playing cards with your friends and you cheated to win, this would be alright. Because its only playing a game with friends and it doesn't affect you. If you were cheating for, example, in a game of netball it wouldn't be right but it wouldn't be as bad as cheating in an exam. If you were in a small test and you waited until the answers were being given out a high mark. This would be cheating, but because the test wasn't particularly important it wouldn't really matter if it were to save yourself from embarrassment at your lower mark. Although it still would be wrong, however, if you looked at someone else's work whilst you were doing the test so as to get higher marks this would be wrong definitely.

450

Yes I think cheating is wrong in school. It gives people, especially teachers false information about yourself and the standard of work you produce. Many people I think will become less confident in their school work and will not benefit at all from cheating. For example in a test, if someone cheats and moves up in sets, they may struggle later on if they cannot cope. No one can help the standard you are at unless you tell them, then they can help you, I think cheating is also wrong because it could be someone else's hard work that is being cheated from and that is not nice for her/him. So yes, I think cheating is wrong and it doesn't get you anywhere.

451

I think cheating, anywhere, is wrong, whether it is in school college or work etc. . I think this because some people will work their hardest and may not be able to achieve what they wish. And then a cheater comes along doesn't work at all and then they do achieve what they want. I think this is wrong because it's not fair on the person who worked really hard. It is really hard to explain but it is just really wrong because it's not fair on those who worked hard to achieve their dreams.

452

Yes it is wrong because it can get you into a lot of trouble and can make life difficult for you especially if you cheat on a test or exam. As it can put you in a high set for something that you are rubbish at. It can also be bad if the person you copy off gets 1 all wrong and you have exactly the same questions right.

454

I think cheating in school is wrong because if you copy someone's answer in an exam then you could score 0. This happened to my brother in college he lent his friend some work to catch up on and his friend copied it word for word and my brother almost failed his NVQ level 2 stage grade. I feel that anyone who does cheat shouldn't get a second chance.

456

Cheating in school is wrong as you won't know what to do e. g. , if you copy homework and then get a test then wouldn't know what the answer is and will fail. Also it is wrong because you can get told off for it. Also if you copy on a test and get in the high group for having a high mark then you've made it harder for yourself as the questions in that set will be a lot harder than the one you should be in.

457

I believe that cheating in school is wrong, whatever type of cheating it may be. For instance, someone who cheats in an exam situation is really only cheating themselves and making themselves seem what they really aren't e. g. , getting a B by cheating at an exam only makes it worse for themselves by getting a higher standard than they should. Cheating is wrong in whatever situation it may be. It could change someone's life and take away an opportunity that someone else deserves e. g. , a job needs a B. A person who cheating undeservingly got that job instead of someone who didn't cheat.

458

As soon as you define cheating, it is at once apparent that it is a wrongful act. In school, where students are assessed by the same criteria and given grades after taking the same examinations, those that cheat have been given an unfair advantage. When humans go into the workplace, they are compared by their qualifications. If their grade is not a realistic representation of their competence, then it is truly unfair that distinctions should be made in their favour. There are disadvantages for students who cheat on minor tests because they are placed in sets with people who are of a higher ability than themselves. In this sense they are cheating a system of purpose as well as cheating themselves, because they will be unable to cope. Cheating in school not only has serious implications for the offender, it endangers the reputation of the innocent party who is being copied.

459

I think cheating in school is wrong, especially in an important exam like GCSE or even A levels. Copying someone else's paper is cheating because it didn't involve your brain in working out the questions, it involved the other person's brain and knowledge

462

Cheating in school is wrong. you do not benefit from cheating. An exam is to show where you and points are and what you need to improve on. You are cheating on yourself. Cheating is totally wrong. It is not only unfair to fellow pupils but also on yourself. You may find cheating can lose you many friends and cheating is the easy way out.

461

Yes, cheating is wrong because you will not learn by cheating. Example, if you were in a test or exam which would decide what set or group you were in for the next year or so, you could not cheat or you would be in the wrong set for a year, it would be really hard or too easy so you wouldn't learn much.

465

I feel that cheating in school is way out. I absolutely disagree with it. If people are going to cheat in school they most probably will cheat all their life and their lives will be nothing but a cheat. If people cheat in exams and get a good mark and a good job they will find it very hard and will know and regret what they have done. I hate

cheating I have seen people cheat and I did nothing about it maybe cause I thought there was not point or I thought I might get chinned by that person. I know I made the wrong choice but I will know next time to make the right choice. This has made me thing about cheating and how I know I should stop cheating now before we all are cheat and everyone's life are a cheat.

466

Cheating in schools is definitely wrong. In my opinion there is no point to it, I can see why people do it, because 1) they either cannot be bothered to think and do it themselves or 2) they want to do better than they know they can. If you do cheat you are only cheating yourself because you might get a good mark but it will not be YOUR mark so you might as well not have bothered. If you have done your best and you get a bad mark at least it has come from your head rather than someone else's paper. Another down factor is that if you get found out you will never be praised for a good mark you may get in the future because the person who marked the paper may think 'Did this person cheat?' For students who can't cope with not doing well at school may be urged towards cheating because they feel they will let everyone else and themselves down. Often they cannot deal with this. Cheating is wrong but many would disagree even if they do not admit it.

467

If someone cheated in a test them I would consider that wrong, because it's your own work and if you have copied someone else's then they could have got it wrong also and a teacher could easily know it was you. Also if you copied someone's homework and they had worked really hard on it and you got the credit for it or a higher mark then that wouldn't be fair. I find this the same with classwork.

468

Copying homework is cheating because people don't try their homework themselves I think this is wrong. Copying answers in any lesson is cheating. I think that people should use their own brain. Cheating on people by taking things out of their bag is wrong whatever the reason. Directly asking a teacher for answers I cheating and I think that they should be asked to be pointed in the right direction. Copying in tests is cheating and is wrong.

470

I think cheating is well out of order. If you are copying or cheating you are just cheating yourself.

800

I think cheating in school is wrong because it is being disloyal. There are no exceptions. If someone is trying extremely hard in an exam and they don't do very well, there may be another person who is cheating and does really well. This person does not deserve to get a good mark. Some people copy others in class and get the answer totally wrong. This is their fault. But if someone copies someone else's homework and the teacher sees two piece of work, the same he or she might blame the person who didn't copy. This isn't fair on that person. So basically, whatever the situation, I think cheating is very disloyal and wrong

801

Cheating in school is wrong because if you cheat you could get loads of wrong answers but if you try your self you may get more answers than from cheating

802

Cheating in school is wrong because it's not fair on the person you cheat from, because they've probably worked hard to find out all the information and you've done nothing. Also if you cheat your just cheating yourself and you'll have to carry on cheating for the rest of your life.

803

I think that it is wrong to cheating in school. Like in a test, because you would be cheating only yourself. It would not show what you are really capable of doing.

805

I think it is wrong to cheat although many people still do it. I don't think it is right to cheat in school because you are not using your own knowledge and understanding, in a way your using someone else's brain. By cheating you re cheating on yourself, if you work hard enough then you wouldn't need to cheat. You are not using your brain, knowledge and understanding which means you're not getting up to your own standard. You are getting wrong results which means it is wrong cheating.

807

Yes because it is not fair on the person you are copying from that they have to do all of the work. Also who you are copying from may have the wrong answers anyway so you are no better off by cheating. People who cheat could get further in life by cheating than those who actually work. This is unfair on those who work and if you want to get somewhere in life you should work like everybody else.

808

. %4Cheating is wrong, it is wrong to cheat in national exams because they show your ability, so if cheating was allowed it would be stupid because you wouldn't learn any thing and every body's marks would be 100% all the time.

809

In school if you do not accomplish your work on you own, then why pretend that you have? You only cheat yourself out of help and endanger your chances in the exams. Cheating only effects you in the long run. If your work is not up to standard, ask for help!

810

Cheating at school is wrong because it's not fair on the people you cheat on because they work hard on their work for example, they can look at it and cheat but that is wrong because they have done their best work and some one will get the same mark and it can be very disappointing.

813

Yes, I do believe that cheating in school is wrong. If you cheat you do not show your true ability in a test for example.

814

I think that cheating in school is wrong because doing so will not show your true capabilities and may end you up in considerable trouble (e. g. , getting work you can't do (and so on)

815

Yes, cheating is wrong because if you are caught you can get into a lot of trouble - if it was an exam you'd get your paper ripped up and that could cost you a job when you're older.

816

Yes, because if you cheat you can get into trouble and if it is an exam you could get put into a wrong set which may be hard to you.

817

Yes, I think cheating is wrong because if someone trusts you and you cheat to them they can never trust you again or they never believe whatever you say.

818

Cheating is wrong because it is not what you know it is what someone else knows. If you do cheat you maybe put in a set or in a job which is way out of your league and you may not be able to cope with it and you may have a heart attack, stroke when you're older.

818

I think cheating is wrong especially in exams and tests and cheating by copying someone else's work.

824

Yes, cheating in school is wrong for example copying somebody else's paper in an exam.

825

Yes, I think cheating in school is wrong because if you don't do the work, you won't anything in the future.

826

Yes, I think cheating in school is wrong because it would be hard if you go to college or work with A's and B's instead of B's and D's.

829

Yes, I think it is wrong. People should be honest.

830

It is wrong to cheat but cheating is not going to get you anywhere. I reckon people who cheat are lazy.

843

Yes, I think cheating in school is wrong, because it's not your work that you hand in it's someone else's. Also in the end you get found out, so it's just not worth it

845

I think cheating in school is wrong because what's the point of the teachers teaching you things if you're going to cheat? It is wrong because if you cheat it proves that you're lazy, can't be bothered and that you don't listen in lessons. If you cheat and do really well and get into a really good job that your exam results helped you get then you won't know what you're doing because you cheated and then you will look really stupid. You won't get a good job if you cheat because you won't know what to do or anything.

848

I don't think cheating is right or wrong. School is to help students make something of their lives if the cheat they will only cheat themselves and will be stuck. When they

go and do a course in the future to learn harder things and they will be thrown out and they will be no where. In some aspects it is wrong, for instance other people who work hard, but don't get the grade to possible beat the person's grade who's cheated and that means the person not cheating will be denied a chance.

851

I think cheating in school is wrong. I think it is because if someone for example, decides not to do their own work, but copies off of someone else then they are going to get credit for that work. I don't think that is fair because that 1 person is taking the easy route out of getting on with their own work.

703

I think that cheating is wrong in any way, but under some circumstances can have good reasoning. When a person cheat then they are not showing what they are capable of doing and it will affect them in some way. If, for example, they copy someone else's work then they have not thought about the work and might not be able to do it when they need to. Sometimes people use cheating as a way out if they aren't getting the marks they need to get and our finding work difficult. Rather than admit that they are having trouble, they cheat. The teacher will assume that they are finding the work easy and they (the pupil) may never learn the work and when they have to do it again (e.g. , in an exam) won't be able to. Cheating isn't worth it. It is unfair on the person who has had work copied (if that is the case), and it will affect the person who cheats. If you cheat it will only come back to you. Even though cheating is wrong most people have probably cheated and not really realised it. For example if you forget to do your homework and need it done in a hurry, you copy someone else's but no one says 'No, that's cheating', yet in a way it is. A lot of people if given the chance to see a copy of a test beforehand, would say yes, even though it is cheating. Some people have other things on their mind (problems at home etc.) and cannot find the time, or cannot concentrate on doing homework. They cheat to try and get the work done, so it is something that they don't have to worry about. I think that although cheating is wrong in school, too many people do it and it probably won't be stopped.

700

Yes, I think that cheating is wrong. I think this because even though there are many ways of cheating, practically every case, whoever is cheating it is not only cheating on themselves but other people too. I don't think it is fair when someone cheats on an exam or test because there will be people that have studied hard and actually worked for it and when another person cheats they get a good grade without putting any effort into it. There is not point in cheating as even though people who cheat make other people believe them, they will know inside that they don't really deserve it. When people cheat on their homework it is them that won't do very well in their exams at the end of the year. Even though it may seem fun when they are doing it, it will always have a bad result. If people start to cheat in school, where will it end? If they think it's OK to cheat now, what will think of it when they have more important things to do or decide? School may be important but a school test is not the same as tax books or things like that and if they feel that it is acceptable for them to cheat at school, they will probably think it is acceptable to steal as well. Stealing is a form of cheating too as you are cheating the people you steal from. 'Cheats never prosper' and I agree with that saying. Why should other people suffer because people can't be bothered. Cheating only causes trouble or problems like in an exam if you get caught cheating the exam is practically torn up on the spot and if the person hadn't cheated and

had been bothered to work then at least they would have got a mark than no mark at all. Also, if they are caught they could never live it down and will be remembered like that. No one would be able to trust the cheat. People who think cheating is fine and socially acceptable are not worth knowing.

702

Of course, cheating as a whole is wrong. It is unfair to other people and at the end of the day it doesn't help anyone. I think of cheating as: copying people's work in tests or for their homework, writing yourself notes on your hand for exams or writing notes on pencil cases etc or by changing your answers after hearing or seeing the correct answer. I think that people only cheat when they are anxious about getting something correct as if it wasn't important to them to do well then they wouldn't feel the need to cheat. Most people know what it is wrong to cheat as it is taught to us and we grow up with it. To be the cheater, you feel you have done nothing wrong, but most of them feel guilty. But consideration has to be given to others as cheating is unfair to them. I feel that cheating is wrong, but I do realise that some people feel the need to do well and really know that by themselves, they cannot do well as they don't have the self confidence. But others who cheat sometimes do it because they haven't bothered to work themselves, in which case it is particularly unfair to others. Often people cheat without meaning to - they might be in a test sat alongside someone and they just glance at that person's paper and see a different answer and are

unsure now if theirs is right or wrong and they might consider the answer for a while and then change their's. This type of cheating is not necessarily deliberate. But, cheating is unfair and wrong and people should know that. I don't feel that cheaters should always be confronted because they know they have done wrong and are upset without being told to their faces that they have done wrong. There seems to be no way that cheating can be prevented in school, but it is wrong.

460

I think that cheating in school is wrong. Say, you're in a test and one person leans over to try to see your work. That is wrong. The person won't learn anything and it's not fair because you've learnt it and spent time on it and the other person hasn't. I don't agree with any kind of cheating; From taking answers into exams on your hands or copying someone else because it would not be a fair example of your academic level. If you cheat, you are a selfish person. This is because you don't care about anyone else but yourself. The worse kind of cheating is when you copy someone and the other person doesn't know and you both get caught and penalised for it. When people cheat it shows a lack of skill and honesty, which are important skills for life. People who cheat would not do well in jobs etc. Cheating is a form of lying because you're hiding the truth from people. People who cheat, will cheat again and again, even if they get caught because they've seen how easy it is. They think it's easier than doing the work.

APPENDIX 6 (II)

Ambivalent respondents

002

Yes and No, you can cheat on yourself by looking at the answers when you don't know them. But working it out with a friend or helping a friend is not cheating. Many people kid themselves and think that they know what their talking about. Many other people use calculators in maths to know the answer to $6 \times 11 = 66$ But that's cheating a bit. I think everyone's cheated once in their life like cheating on a board game whilst your friend is on the loo or some people have looked over other peoples shoulders at an answer or copied each others work. Another way of people cheating is when your playing a game of blind mans bluff and your friend is putting the scalf on your head and they ask you if you can see you can but you say no. That's cheating some of the teachers think we are cheating we move in an exam or breathe.

003

I'm not sure if I think cheating is wrong, but in some ways I do and someone ways I don't. If you cheat and everyone else has not cheated then it's unfair to everyone else because your getting an advantage they don't have. But if your not as brainy as everyone in your class and in tests everyone gets 20 -20 and you only get 4 -20 than it's a bit embarrassing, but if you cheat and you get 20 - 20 and all the rest of the class get 4 - 20 then you'd be embarassed as well so really its not worth it. If you do cheat and you all get 20 -20 but normally you get about 4 - 20 then your teacher will be a bit suspicious. So it really depends on which way you look at cheating that you can tell weather its right or wrong.

011

I think cheating is wrong in school because if you are doing a test someone might look at yours and copy it. I think it is wrong because if you get a high mark and it is good they will get the same and they didn't achieve it that's why it unfair. I thinks cheating thought sometimes may be good for you because you would not get worried when you have to do work what you cant do. I think cheating may get you into trouble also.

014

I think cheating in school is wrong. Some cheating is wrong but some for rightish reasons. The first cheating that wrong is cheating on an exam because you can't be bothered. The other cheating is because your not bright and the teacher won't help you. Exam cheating get's you into trouble if you copy off someone who is brainyer than you. You could end up with harder work than you can manage. The rightish cheating is still wrong but not really there fault. CHEATING IS CHEATING.

020

Yes, cheating is wrong because after a test if you have cheated you will get put into a high group for you next year of school and you would not understand the work and you might not be able to cheat again because you can't cheat for the rest of your life. But if your lucky you would be able to cheat for the whole of your school year but when you had to leave school and get a job you wont know what to do, you wont get paid and you'll lose your job. And, in games if you cheat it wouldn't be any fun and know one would want to ever play games with you. So you would be homeless with no friends or family. You can't cheat in shops like I did last night. I got two

sweets and stuck them 2together. They were long and thin so it looked like one sweet. Then the man only charged me £2.06p instead of £2.11p, so you can cheat with money and things.

022

Cheating in school is wrong but I do cheat sometimes. If everybody cheated in school the hole wide world would be full of cheaters and then they won't be room for other cheaters.

025

Cheating in school is wrong. And some times I cheat I mean, I am cheating now I am copping this from another pusun so evin I cheat some times.

031

Cheating is wrong in school, I have cheated in a test or exam. I haven't cheated in secondary yet. You might wright answers on your arm before a test that is cheating.

048

In some cases I think cheating is wrong, like if your in an exam and you copy someone elses work or if your in a relationship and you see someone else behind their back. But if you don't understand and someone tells you the answe I think that this is OK. I know I have cheated a lot and I don't feel guilty or anything but I know it was wrong.

053

I think it is mainly wrong to cheat in school. I am not that clever so nobody tried to cheat from me. I like music so not much cheating goes on in that. I have eaten things in class before and I suppose it could be called a from of cheating. When you copy someone, that is the wurst type of cheating. I'm not particularly onest about cheating but I don't often tell lies.

054

I think cheating is and isn't wrong. I think cheating is wrong in exams and tests and major comptetishions but I don't think is wrong e.g., getting some people to help with minor homework or e.g., getting somewon to draw a picture for you when your supposed to do it yourself. I also don't think it's that wrong when your playing a e.g., maths game and someone cheats. I only thinks its wrong when someone cheats in exams and test and major competions and things that matter and things that will effect your later life and your life now.

058

Cheeting is good for you in the first place bu then you get up set cause its no your own achivement. If you re found cheating you would get in to more truble than you would if you got it wrong.

063

If depends on if the teacher catches you or not because if they catch you then your in big trouble but if you succeed then its OK.

064

I think cheating in school is wrong because of you cheat on your work and in tests it will not do you any good in the long run - e.g., GCSEs, if you cheat in a test that measures your IQ level or something, sets (top, middle, bottom) and you copy your friends answers you will get put into a top set if they are more clever than you and you will find it very hard and not be able to handle the work. Also if your friend/ person next to you gets an answer wrong so will you when you could have got it right, also all of your work /test will look the same and the teacher will notice. So I think cheating is a bad idea but I admit I have cheated before and will cheat again. NEVER CHEAT.

070

I think that cheating is wrong because at the end of the day the people who cheat are the ones who get nothing out of school or whatever they cheat in. Cheating in school exams extra is extremely wrong because nobody gets anything out of what they have achieved because other people are still at the same level as them. If you cheat in something such as a game then that's not too bad, but what's the point in playing a game if your just going to cheat. Because then that is no longer a game. I think just about everybody has cheated in their lives but I wouldn't cheat in school or in an exam only a game of GOLF or something.

073

Sometimes! If you cheat in a school sports day, e.g., put bubble gum on the spoon in the egg and spoon race then that is wrong and cheating like in English by getting your friend to do your homework, that is wrong as well. If you use a calculator in maths homework that isn't always cheating or even better asking someone to help you with the question isn't wrong either.

077

I think that cheating in school is wrong because if you cheat you are getting an unfair advantage over the other students, e.g., if Tommy was in a test and he could see the teachers answer sheet and no-one else could he would be getting an unfair advantage over other students who are attempting to do their best, as Tommy would be getting better grades than everyone else. Cheating in class by looking at someone else's work isn't that bad but cheating in a test is. I think cheating in school is wrong.

078

I think that cheating in school is wrong because it will not help you when you are older. And if you cheat in a exam and the teacher sees you you will get your'e paper ripped up and you'll get into a lot of trouble too. The first time you cheat makes it a lot easier to cheat again. And if you sit next to someone quite a lot and look you at there work and your start to look more and more at there work and one day you're not sitting next to them then you'll get into a lot of trouble so really cheating in school is wrong.

079

I think that cheating is not right as other people may have worked hard to get the results. While you have just copied what is right. I think that if you get brilliant marks when you cheated you should confess but if you just get average then you could just leave it. I think that if you are in a small unimportant test then you could cheat but if it is important then I don't think you should.

089

I think it depends on what you mean. For example, if someone could not be bothered to find out an answer to a question and they copy your answer, I think that's unfair because you put effort into finding an answer and someone just copy's it, so I think that's wrong. In some cases some people might do it in desperate need for example, if you were doing a test and you were doing a test and you were desperate to move up a set in school, and you really needed to know an answer, and you look at someone's answer then I think that isn't wrong as long as you copy it out in your own words. On the whole it really really depends on what you mean by cheating.

092

Yes because it can get you into trouble and no because it can also get you out of trouble.

093

I feel cheating in school is very very wrong. Even the ones which are small cheats are still bad to do .e.g., to look at someone else's homework. Cheating means that the person who is doing it is only cheating themself. When it come to doing GCSE's or A levels they would be found out and punished. If they had been copying others work during the younger years they may not be able to answer the questions even a few easy ones which would make it a little obvious they had been cheating. Bringing scraps of paper with the answers to a few questions into an exam is very bad, even though you may be found out. Looking across a someone's work during lessons is rather bad, Personally I feel that more steps should be taken to stop bad cheating as it is a bad habit and does not help you for one day whether in lessons or during an exam you will be seen and badly told off. There are many occasions when people cheat some are mild cheats, e.g., watching a coping another candidate for an exam. People stop themselves by feeling guilty and upset, from cheating. Some parts of cheating can be called wrong and a few right. I agree with this statement. People only cheat because they're worried about their exams so they cheat to know the answers. Luckily most people stop before they get to 'addicted'.

094

I think it is wrong. But in some ways more than others. For example, if you hadn't revised very well, for an important exam because you thought you would fail anyway so you thought you would take some summarising notes into the exam to help you. I feel that this more wrong that someone copping the nights homework that you haven't done because you didn't understand the homework. It always works out the same what's the point of cheating in an exam because your going to have to learn the information or facts sometimes because otherwise you will have to continuously cheat and what's the point in the that? It is more serious if it is more important and there is the enormous risk of being caught out. If you cheated in your GCSE's or A levels it would be extremely stupid and idiotic. If you didn't cheat and failed the exam you would only have to sit it again at the worst and if you were caught it would be even worse and you would possibly be suspended or at the worst expelled. Cheating is very serious and is taken very seriously by teachers. Also it is a sign that people are either under stress or they are emotionally upset or they are lazy.

098

Yes, I think cheating is wrong because you are not using your own ideas, e.g., when you copy someone else's work or get your parents to do homework for you. You can also miss out on things you don't like. You could stay at home when you're not ill or get your

parents to write you a note off games when there is nothing wrong with you. Using a calculator or dictionary when you are not allowed and writing answers on your hand or paper and looking at it in an exam is wrong. It stops people using their own brain to do work and if you get into the habit of cheating it would be hard to learn to revise for A levels and GCSE's. I don't think any cheating is right. Asking help from a parent, teacher or friend is all right as long as you try to use your head and don't always rely on other people.

100

Cheating is wrong. If you make up an excuse so that you do not have to do something than this is a form of cheating. That is not as bad as some others like if you took a piece of paper with all answers into a exam. It could be on you hand in steady of a piece of paper. You can look at someone work than is definitely wrong. If you get your mum to do you homework this is also wrong. But you can still ask answer, this is not wrong. It is only wrong if you mum does the whole work. Dad is the same as mum.

105

I think cheating is wrong if it is something like were on person takes ideas off another. Buts not as bad if its just 1 little thig.

106

In Maths if you look at the back of a KMP card where the answers are it isn't cheating if you try to find out how they got the answer but if you just copy the answers down it is cheating.

108

I think cheating is wrong but some people do cheat because their to leasy to do their work without cheating. To be really truth full with you I have cheated before but I only cheated once and I am not going to do it again.

111

Cheating in school isn't wrong but if you cheat by copying someones work you are only cheating yourself. You won't learn and won't understand the topic. If you use calculators then you get the answer you should try to understand how it works.

114

Cheating in school is wrong because if you do you don't learn anything, you don't help yourself. If you check your answers that should be all right.

116

In big exams yes it is and in some lessons it is but when you stuck on something and you look at your friends sheet if it is alright with them. Cheating is very bad because it only for you to do an exam it is so the teacher can see what level your at in what lesson if you cheat it will be harder in the lesson because your at a higher level then you should be at.

117

In most cases cheating in school is wrong. If you look at someones exam paper if it is an important one. I think it is OK to look at someone else's work or to ask someone if you need inspiration or don't understand but just getting the answers because you can't be bothered is wrong. Most of the time it is wrong.

122

I think that cheating is wrong because most of the time people find out. I think everyone has cheated a some time in there life but I think you should not cheat in Exams because you are being tested to what you know not what you can find out.

130

I think cheating in school is wrong if you are doing a big test because youre teacher will not no how good you are and cannot do her job. But if you cheat just asking someone a question to help you understand what you are doing I think that is OK. If you want to cheat make sure it is for the write reasons and not because you want to get out of doing work because that way you don't learn.

137

In some cases yes and no in some. If you cheat for a good reason and make amends before anybody finds out it is OK. Getting caught cheating, or cheating on a friend is wrong.

140

I think sometimes it is.

142

I think that cheating for minor tests and homework isn't that bad as it is does not say whether you are going to do it the rest of your life or not, as long as one does not make a habit of it. If someone cheated in GCSE's or A-levels, then I think that that would be very bad and if you get a good job, someone with real talent is missing out rather than a cheater who can't do it. Also the employer would be hiring, in a way and con-man (but this would only be the case if it was made a habit). If you cheat a few times in life say, to earn a little more money (as long as it's not too dangerous/bad) then that is OK as life is just like a game really and sometimes you need to cheat to get to the finish.

144

I think cheating schools can be wrong. Like in the important tests - GCSE / A levels. If it is just in a class mini test is does not matter so much but on principle it does. If a child is being bullied in to cheating I think it is very wrong. Cheating in school can lead to more serious things like not having any confidence in yourself and not feeling anything you do is right. I think cheating can be solved by separate desks and personalised coaching to make people feel more confident about themselves.

145

Yes, I think cheating is wrong. I usually think of cheating when if someone rolls a number 3 on a dice for a game, but they wanted a 2, so they just move it 2 and get what they want. I don't like it the way when people just ignore the fact that their friends are lying. Lying is also a form of cheating. If someone cheats on each other, I think it is really unfair. If someone kept on cheating then they would have no friends and noone would trust them. Stealing is also cheating. In a way, not doing what you are told could also be a form of cheating.

146

If I think about cheating the first thing I think about is cheating in school. Mainly in exams. I don't think it's right for one person to do all the studying and revising. And then another person to come along and just take all that from you. Like, there's this really hard answer and

no one else knows what to do apart from you and you're really chuffed about it. The one other person comes and copies it off you and taking your gladness away. You also can't get the highest mark because someone's got the same mark. I wouldn't ever do it in really important exams and would hate it if anyone else did it to me.

148

Some cheating is definitely wrong. Looking at answers of another person in an exam is wrong because it is not your own work and you are graded/ marked for copying which isn't fair. It also doesn't benefit anyone. Cheating like looking at answers before a test deliberately and not owning up is wrong too, because it's not fair on others who have learnt and revised really hard for a test and all the 'cheat' has done is look at answers and get good marks. The 'cheat' wouldn't learn anything and so it wouldn't be any good to them apart from their reputation. If someone cheats like looking at answers that is wrong, but if they own up I think that they shouldn't be punished because they've admitted they were wrong and so they wouldn't actually 'cheat' because others would know what they've done and not count it as a result so it wouldn't benefit the person's reputation. I think that cheating can be cheating yourself. For example, if you really wanted to play in a hockey match and you didn't because of some stupid reasons, you would be cheating yourself of the opportunity. (In school it might be cheating yourself of good marks because you didn't revise) But this isn't 'wrong' as such, it isn't building a false opinion of yourself, or effects anybody else. Only taking away your self enjoyment.

150

I think that cheating in schools is wrong. You can probably cheat in loads of ways but you will almost always get caught. I think that if you need to cheat for whatever reason you seriously need to get a life. Although not all ways of cheating are as bad as others. If you cheat in a mini-test or quiz although its bad it's not as bad as copying in a big exam like summer exams or GCSE's. Most schools try to discourage cheating with threat of detention etc., So obviously it is considered wrong. Some times I may not consider it totally wrong if someone owns up to it, it just seems to justify their actions a bit. Some people think that they are too stupid to do well, but everyone can achieve what they need. Anyway if someone copies on one test and gets a really good mark and then on another gets a rubbish mark it's a bit weird. And who they copy off might not get the answers right and the consequences are they get caught and get a lousy mark. So its not really worth it.

154

What I think about cheating is that it can sometimes depend on whether you can do it or not without getting caught. Of course, cheating is bad and wrong but not necessarily. For example, many people can make up good excuses for not doing their homework or forgetting it. But cheating in things like tests and exams, I think that goes a bit too far for cheating. Sometimes cheating can help but most of the time it can't. Later on it could be turned against you. Personally, Yes I think cheating is wrong but we can't do anything to stop it completely. Everyone cheats in school, whether it would be looking at someone else's work or getting someone to do your homework. Even I cheat too. People can't help it.

157

I think cheating in school has advantages and disadvantages. When you cheat, nobody benefits

because you might have cheated in a Maths exam which has put you in the top set. The you will find the work difficult. Then again, if you just cheat on one question then it still won't benefit you but it won't do you any harm either.

158

Some cheating is wrong but not all cheating. Cheating like in an exam is wrong but cheating on a single piece of homework like copying someone's can be alright as long as it is not all the time because that is unfair. Most cheating is wrong, but ADULTS (no offence) think all cheating is wrong and you should never do it and the consequences should be death. If you did cheat in school, I think that the consequences are not very effective because all you get is a detention if you cheated on something small, but if you cheat on an exam it is something totally different you get the paper thrown in the bin. I don't know if you can do it again, but I think it would be way to harsh.

161

I think that all cheating in school is wrong. From my own personal experience I have know many reasons and excuses for people cheating. E.g., People cheating in exams because they think their parents will be angry if they do badly. I don't think even this is an excuse for cheating. Their parents should not put on so much pressure they maybe could work harder and do better and if they simply can't do any better, that's how they are. I also think this kind of cheating gets you into more trouble than having angry parents. If it is an exam to set ability and will decide what class you go I you will find it too difficult. You will learn nothing. If you always cheated on tests, you would never know if you were ever learning anything. Believing that the result of such a test was true, would deceive you into believing you were more clever than you are. I think lying about homework is a waste of time and teachers should sometimes accept that no-one is perfect and people forget.

163

I think that cheating in school is OK but only if you're doing just a small test or exam that won't be recorded. If it's a really important test then I think that it is quite bad because the other people in your class won't have the same benefits as you if you get higher marks than them. Also if you cheat on your work, you're really cheating yourself because by cheating you will not be improving yourself and you will not be able to get the help that you really need in the future. I would cheat on a test if I knew how to do something but couldn't remember it or if I was really stuck, because after all no ones really going to find out are they? If I found out that my friend's been copying my work, I'd just want to kill her, I suppose I'd feel really betrayed and I'd just think that she was a sneaky little bitch. But then again, it would depend on how important the tests was. If it was my A levels or something, I'd just hate her but if it was just a spelling test I wouldn't mind that much, but only if she promised to let me copy her on another test if I didn't know the answers. I don't really like people who cheat but it's their choice so I don't really give a shit.

164

Cheating in exams and tests is not really beneficial to anyone as it defeats the object, which I think is to see how you are doing in school. If you cheat and you are struggling with work no help is given, so you are cheating yourself (in a way). For example, if you cannot do or do not understand French verbs and a test is given to see if everyone understands and you cheated, then you would never understand. I personally do not

see the point of cheating in school exams. I'm not saying cheating is wrong, just of no benefit.

165

I think that it definitely depends on the exam. If its just a little insignificant test, then you can always catch up later, but if it's GCSE's or end of term or A levels etc., it's DEFINITELY wrong. You're not only cheating yourself, but the people who have worked really hard for their exams, they're cheated too. You're getting the same jobs as them etc., though you're NOT qualified or right for the job and it's not fair. I can understand people who are crap at a subject and really see no other way out and those who haven't revised, but in both cases if a little extra work was put in it could be OK. Generally I think cheat is wrong, but sometimes it can't be helped. I also think that way too much pressure is put on for exams so cheating is an easy way out. I wish exams weren't compulsory.

166

Cheating is thought to be most common in exams. Teachers don't trust pupils all of the time which I think is from cheating, but personally I don't always trust teachers. The most that I have cheated in school is copying out someones homework because I hadn't done min. As for cheating in exams of tests I have only done this once, because the teacher had handed out the exam and ran out so he had to go and get some more, this was the perfect opatunaty to cheat. I a group we answered all of the question in our head and wrote them down when we were aload. I think that if you cheat in an exam you could get yourself into a hard set and then your could struggle. Overall I think that when you cheat the only person that you are cheating is yourself. Yes I do think that cheating is wrong because it is not the truth.

167

I have no really strong views on cheat (whatever the kind). All I think is that no one should have to think is that no one should have to cheat or lie to teacher. I think that some forms of cheating are worse then others. E.g., I don't think that lying to a teacher about late homework is as bad as looking at someones paper in your GCSE's. I think if you did cheat in a exam you shouldn't be punished harshly, but instead, I think a teacher should talk to you to try and find out why you did it.

171

I do think that cheating in school is wrong because if it is an examination then you are not learning. If you are cheating in homework, for example, i.e., you have forgotten to do it or you don't understand so you copy someone elses then I don't think that's wrong because it is just one mark (unless you make a habit of it). I think it depends really on what situation you are in, if for example, if you have a lot of pressure on you to do well and you cheat in an exam then I don't think thats wrong because you might be brilliant in school and get really good grades all year round but then go ahead and fail the one exam deciding your future because of nerves etc. You might be able to go on to university and complete the course with flying colours but if the exam is standing in your way and you know that you won't pass then I don't think that cheating would be wrong. If you make a habit of cheating then I do believe its wrong but if it is just one exam then its OK but then again I think you do need to be able to overcome being able to do exams, i.e., mental blocks, because you won't always have someone to copy off and aswell you become to reliant on cheating.

173

I think that people who cheat in school are either lazy or lack confidence. If someone decided to watch eastenders the night before a test instead of doing some revision they would be lazy, but if someone had not confidence in their own ability and felt they had to cheat it is entirely different. For them, it is just a matter of asking the teacher for help before the exam and doing a lot of revision, but for the first person they is no obvious way to help them. They would need motivation to revise and this is the job of parents (if their child can't motivate itself). Cheating in school is wrong no matter which way you look at it but as I have said it is easler to help some people than others. I have a lot of motivation to work hard as I do not feel the need to cheat, but if I got a string of bad results I suppose I would lose a lot of confidence which might encourage me to cheat. People like this are not bad people, they just nee a confidence boost and I doubt that they would continue cheat. Looking at exam papers before a test is different to copying someone's work. If you looked at papers I would not think you were lazy rather more nervous. Revising for exams would be hard if you didn't know what to revise (we are normally told what to) so looking at exam papers would make it easier, because you could go away and look up all the answers. It is still cheating though and not fair on your fellow classmates.

175

I think that in most circumstances cheating is wrong. But whether I think its wrong or not, I still allow it. If one of my friends needed a good result in a lesson, that I was good at, I would let them copy from me. I don't mind as I know how difficult it can be trying to think of an answer. I don't mind people copying others work as it's just a sign of their weakness and not of being 'bad'. Some people who have never done anything wrong in their life cheat for good reasons: 1. Their parents - who think they are boffin. 2. Their friends - are smarter than them. 3. teachers - they don't want to seem stupid. There is one type of cheating at school that I loathe, idea-snatching. In a lesson if we had to write a story, I wouldn't want anyone to copy my idea, as it was my original but in a test I don't really care who does as it seems less important to me. I find that most people would cheat from a friend or allow a friend to cheat because of the empathy for each other during a test as it is hard on both of them. But during some class work, the copier isn't making much of an effort to work it out themselves, so others get upset and worked up about it. This is probably because ideas are more personal than answers. In maths there is almost definitely one answer to a question, where as in English, Art, Music etc., you put more of yourself into your work, it's an original, so you don't want anyone else to get the credit for your work.

176

Cheating in school can be shown many ways. One of the most common ways is test cheating by looking and someone else's answers on their sheet. I think this is wrong as you are not only cheating on a test you are cheating on yourself. By saying someone else answers you not being true to yourself. This is definitely wrong. You can also say someone had cheated in a race or competition. This is also wrong. Although not all cheating is wrong. When a person scrapes past death people say you cheated death. But in school cheating is wrong because it doesn't get you anywhere. If you cheat your friends that means you are using them. That isn't fair either and is also wrong. In the end you will lose all your friend and it won't get you anywhere. If you cheat you feel awful in the long run. You will feel guilty and angry that you actually did cheat. Sometimes although cheating is wrong it can give someone a job

when they pass their exams rather than if they failed they would end up in the streets. I think if cheating is happening in schools and in the system on exams and tests, the system must be flawed because there are ways to prevent cheating. I would say that cheating in school is wrong (morally). But sometimes it can mean the difference between living on the streets or having a well paid job. I am not saying that this happens often but it does. Sometimes people in schools can get very stressed and have problems so cheating can save them from turning to for example, drugs, drink, anorexic. So their needs to be exception to the rule of no cheating. Now in school I think the amount of cheating has decreased due to the help and support offered by schools during and around exam time. So pupils can get their head straight and don't need to cheat. Also people know more about suitable and efficient methods of revising. Regulation in exam halls have become tougher so that you can't cheat by either smuggling in answers in your pencil case or writing them on your bag or hand as all of these are checked when you go into the exam. Cheating in a race is probably more wrong in the sense that the true winner of the race probably worked very hard to get that far. Where as a cheat had worked at nothing except for the plot to plan how to cheat. Where as if you cheat in a test you have done the years worth of work so you are more likely to know the answers to the question in the test. I think the worst kind of cheating is probably cheating on yourself. This affects probably don't wear off for a very long time so cheating on yourself can be a long term situation. Cheating doesn't always effect people this badly. But from hearing thing sayed by people who I know who have cheated. They always feel guilty when they beat someone who had worked very hard and should have come first in the race or got the highest mark in the test. But instead they cam second and the cheat came first. Also cheating can be wrong because if it happens as a regular occurrence people will start to notice you get 78% in a test where as you're predicted mark was only 50% because you hadn't worked very hard people are going to start to wonder why your test mark is so high. So I think cheating isn't wrong in all cases but it shouldn't be encouraged.

178

I think cheating in school is very wrong. I think that if one person takes time and puts effort into their work it should be left as just THEIRS. I think that people who cheat may feel as if their work isn't good enough or up to scratch so they may use a person they class as clever to do their work for them. I think cheating off of another person is worse than say taking the answers into an exam because then, although you still may not be using you own knowledge but a books, another person isn't taking your knowledge from you. Sometimes I feel people cheat because they think they can't do the work and if this is the case I think they need more permanent help than the occasional cheating. The way I look at cheating is that you can't do it forever, so even if you do it all through your school years one day they'll be no one to do it for you e.g., university/ work. I think cheating should be tolerated more than it is because there must be a reason for the person to be doing it although sometimes I think its a case of they can't be bothered to do it themselves. I think working with your friends is very different to cheating and one person isn't always doing the work, it's more of a group effort. My final paragraph is this. Cheating is very wrong but there must be a reason for people to do it and I think, although flattering to person who's work is being copied, it should be dealt with patiently rather than just being told off or failed. I think it goes deeper than just copying a few words down.

179

I don't agree with cheating! It is wrong and can be unfair in certain situation. E.g., copying someone's homework. I feel that if you cheat then you are lazy and haven't put in the work that is necessary. You just can't be bothered and you think, 'someone at school will help me'. This attitude is so immoral and you will never learn anything. I also think that it makes you a bad person. Not having had the satisfaction of thinking 'yes' I just successfully completed my homework which will bring positive thoughts and vibes. Other forms of cheating include copying someone in an exam. If you do cheat maybe it is because you didn't revise or maybe you didn't have time to do your homework. There is always an alternative and it is up to the individual to take control of what they are doing. If you were to cheat you would feel terrible afterwards as why do it. At the end of the day it is your loss.

180

It really depends on what degree of cheating you are talking about. For example revising a subject and writing a few facts on your arm isn't as bad as actually taking an exam paper or buying an old one, but they are both wrong and I don't agree with it. Most pupils don't realise it but just asking your bested friend for the answer to question 2b is actually cheating of a lower form. This question is really hard to answer. Sorry that I couldn't help you more with your study.

182

My opinion of cheating in school is that it is wrong in most cases but it is up to the individual pupil to decide if they are going to cheat or not. If they are going to cheat then their end result is going to be untrue. e.g., if you were taking an exam or a tests and you cheated by looking at the answers before hand or copying off another person then your mark will not show how well you have done, it will be somebody elses mark. If it was an important exam like SAT's, GCSE's or A levels, then you would have to live with yourself for the rest of your life not knowing how well you could have done and so when it came to your job when you leave school you may get a good job to begin with but you might lose it because you don't have a very good idea oin what you are supposed to be doing because back in school you didn't learn what you were meant to do. So you won't have the knowledge to carry on with the job. At the moment I can't really think of a situation where it is right to cheat in school as you would not gain anything except guilt. But a situation that may not be as bad would be if you were taking part in a quiz or something like that to raise money for a charity or school funds and you had paid but slightly cheated then I don't think that this is too bad because it is a bit of fun and if the other people weren't to know, I don't think they would mind much but if possible it still isn't a very good idea. So my overall opinion would be that cheating is generally wrong in school and even out of school.

183

I do not think that cheating is right but I think that it is only the cheaters fault if they do cheat. What I mean is that the person who cheated is the only one who will feel guilty about it and they will know that if they get a good mark for that test/exam etc., they do not fully deserve it. It is not fair on the person who you cheat on as they probably revised hard for that test/exam but you go and copy their work anyway. The cheater is the only loser and will be the only one to remember what they did for years to come. I am sure that everybody had cheated at least once in their lives but this could be in a small or big way, e.g., cheating on an important exam (e.g., GCSE) or cheating on a game of Monopoly. Although you may win the game or Monopoly, you know that you won it unfairly and it was not right to cheat.

You may even pass the important exam, but if you do you may have to go onto a even bigger and even more important exam (e.g., A level) and get asked some of the same questions that you cheated on and you will not know them. These could even determine whether you pass or fail that even more important exam. Remember 'cheats never prosper!'

184

I think that cheating anywhere, not just school, is wrong. But when the temptation is there, it would be difficult to resist it. For example, if you were doing an exam, and someone offered you the answers, it would be hard to refuse. You can cheat in many ways, like in an exam or when playing games, but cheating has different ranges of seriousness. I think cheating is wrong because it can hurt everyone involved. If someone copies their friend's answers in a test, this hurts the friend because they are the one doing the hard work and it hurts the cheater too because they're not learning what they are supposed to learn. And also the cheater may get caught, so they'll be in trouble. Cheating is about temptation and if it is there it will be difficult for some people to ignore. Although it may seem like a good idea at the time it's not so good in the long run.

185

I think cheating in school is wrong but no one can truthfully say they have never cheated before whether in a test or exam there is always going to be someone who cheats in some way. People shouldn't pass an exam if they copied someone's work or coursework but I don't think there is a way of stopping it, even though if you are caught.....cheating there is a heavy punishment. I think people who are caught cheating should be given another chance, because they will most probably have been scared and won't do it again. I think many people cheat in exams because they haven't revised enough or have gone blank. I know when I have an exam I get very nervous and find it hard to concentrate, this might be the reason that however hard I revise I never seem to get a really good exam result. Of course cheating is a bad thing but like I've said before there is not a lot we can do about it, there is probably someone near to me who is reading this as I'm writing.

186

I think cheating in school is wrong because I think it once done seems if not caught, easy and they might want to do it again. If they continue cheating they won't learn anything and will rely on somebody else doing the work for them. If you cheat in a major exam SATS, GCSE, then you are always lying to the government and your future employer so when you do go for something and your employer asks you to do this, you can't because you cheated and you have no idea. If you were in an exam and you had a mental block and looked at somebody else's paper and you suddenly think 'Oh I get it' and it all comes rushing back to you then this is a form of cheating, maybe not so bad as copying straight from somebody else, but it is cheating. Another form of cheating is writing reminders on yourself sometimes formulas or just words to refresh your mind but it is cheating and shouldn't happen, it's better to use your memory and fail than pass and know you've cheated your way through.

188

It depends what is meant by 'cheating'. I think cheating is: Looking at someone's work whilst in an exam. Taking and copying someone's ideas for a project. Copying from someone if they don't want you to. I don't think that cheating is checking your answers for homework from a

friend who lets you. I think that cheating can also be not doing/handing in homework. This is 'cheating on yourself'. I think that cheating in an exam is wrong. Not for the person that you cheat from because it does not affect their mark. I think it is wrong because if you haven't bothered to revise then copy someone else's answers you get a better mark, which is not what you would have got. If you got a good mark in a maths test you might be moved up a set, then you would have to struggle to keep up. Copying someone else's ideas is wrong because it can mean that two projects the same are handed in and both get a lower mark. It could also be that the other person would have to do something different and may not get as good a mark. If you copy/cheat it is not your work and therefore you do not deserve the mark you receive.

189

Cheating in a major exam such as SATS, GCSE's or A levels is definitely wrong because these are the kind of exams which affect the rest of your life and your career. If you cheat no one will know how much you can actually do or whether you are struggling in certain subjects especially medium subjects. It may be that you need extra tuition or help in certain areas. I don't think reading others' work is always cheating, sometimes it's just like reading a book on the same subject. If you are answering questions in an exam or otherwise and you do not know the answers, then copying from your neighbour is wrong. It is just letting the teacher think you do understand when you don't really. I get annoyed when people copy off me, but I would never tell a teacher, unless it was a major exam, as mentioned above. I think that in an exam a person asks another what a certain answer is, i.e., and the person tells them, then they are both guilty of cheating. There are certain people in my class, who continually copy other, including my work. I suppose it is harmless enough, but I would never do it. I prefer people to know what I really think or am able to do. When people have cheated in extremely important exams that teachers are right to give the 0 or to not accept their work.

190

Yes, I think most forms of cheating are wrong. Copying another person's work in an exam is wrong, it is cheating, it means that you are getting somebody else's results for your exam. If you need to use that knowledge again, you won't be able to. I don't think that helping people with school or homework is necessarily wrong (unless this person copies the whole piece of work). This is just helping someone to understand something. Copying work in class is cheating, it means that the work is not your own. It means that any opinions are not your own (oh, and this one is definitely mine!) and your work is not reliable as a source of reference to you. I think that a lot of people are tempted to cheat. It's very easy to do. But I would hope that these people have enough self-control to resist this temptation. Cheating isn't right. It won't help you get along in school, it hinders you if anything. There are quite a number of different types of cheating. In exams, in class in PE saying for example, that you could run 100m in 5 seconds would make you very fast. This might put you into an event position that you couldn't do. Cheating is wrong. If you cheat then you are cheating your teachers, your friends, your parents but most of all, yourself. It closes doors on your future that would have been open had you learnt what you copied.

191

I personally think cheating in school is wrong. I believe you should achieve due to your own effort and academic ability. You don't gain from cheating because although you may have gained a higher mark in an

exam, you don't have that piece of information that you needn't for the answer stored in your brain. Therefore if that question is asked again, you will be none the wiser and will have to cheat again and so on. There is also the chance that if you do cheat the answer you copy may be incorrect, so you will gain nothing but a bad reputation if you are caught. Cheating is not worth it. For the sake of an extra mark, you could be caught, gaining a bad reputation and may be disqualified. It also isn't fair to copy off somebody because they have put a lot of effort into revision etc., and because you cheated may achieve a lower mark than you. However, I feel cheating is worse when you don't even put the effort into finding the answer and just take somebody else's work. I think it is better to attempt an answer first before considering cheating, and even if you attempt the answer, and can't find it, you shouldn't cheat. I feel however, that if you do work in school which isn't an exam, it is OK to ask someone (a friend) for some help or an answer because the answer isn't going towards a GCSE grade or an A level which may assist you in later life. Cheating can also be a danger, e.g., if you are training to be a doctor and in your exams you copy an answer from somebody on how to do a cardiac resuscitation arrest) for example, if you are not caught, in later life, when you need that knowledge to save a life, because you don't know what to do a person's life may be in danger. However, this is an extreme example.

192

I think cheating in school is wrong because you can get no benefits to yourself for doing it. For example, if you were in an exam to gain a certain qualification and you looked at the answers of the person in front of you, later you discover your results and you've passed, wonderful! But you didn't pass on your own merit, you abused someone else's trust and took their answers. You now have that qualification and get a job because of it, but your employer expects you to be able to answer hard questions, like the ones you cheated on in the exam, because you can't do this you are humiliated and get the sack. Now you are back to square one, the only thing to show for your efforts is a certificate saying you have passed and a guilty conscience. But that is for larger exams, if you cheated on a small French listening test I don't think it would matter although you might be tempted to cheat again. I think you have to be quite a coward to cheat because you should own up and tell someone that you are having difficulty understanding.

194

Is it because it is unfair. When it comes to classes and subjects - if someone in that class cheated and got a very good mark and everyone else didn't cheat and their marks were lower - that would be unfair. So it is wrong. Some people are tempted to cheat and can't resist it - but there are people who are in control of themselves and know that it is wrong. But - there might be a serious situation (or even situations) where the only way to get out of it is to cheat. I'm not sure what but I'm sure there is. That would mainly occur out of school life. It's not just cheating on work but on people - like friends. That is wrong except if there (again) was a very good reason. I don't think cheating gets you anywhere really. It might do in some cases though. When someone cheats and I find out about it with a friend - we will automatically slag that person off - even if he/she was a friend of us. It's just a natural reaction for me. I just find it very annoying - because I'm not the sort of person who cheats (I may have at some times but I think everyone has). We would be friends with that person again in about 10 minutes or so. Cheating, for me has always been a bad thing and probably always will be - so Yes, cheating in school is wrong. (I have no more to write above).

196

I think that cheating is wrong, not because you're cheating other people, but yourself. I think it is dishonest. I don't think it is too serious if it's just a little test, but it is still wrong. But if you are in a big exam and you cheat you can get false qualification and lead other people to believe that you're something when you aren't. I think that cheating is also selfish, if other people have worked hard to get where they are and then cheats just copy their work and then take the credit. Some other people don't think cheating is a serious matter until they get found out and this is when they regret doing it. I don't know how people who cheat can live with the guilt on their conscience. Also some people cheat once and these are the people who feel guilty but people who cheat repetitively are just selfish.

197

I think cheating in school is wrong but there are a lot of temptations everyday. Sometimes people cheat without really knowing it like copying someone's homework when you have forgotten it. This is a sort of cheating because you are taking somebody's work but people do it all the time. In class you sometimes overhear other people conversations and you get a really good idea from them. The you might use it but no one really cares because it's not in a test. I think cheating in tests is the one that everybody is aware of because teachers are always stressing it and there is a lot of pressure from your parents, teachers, friends, etc. to do well. It is a really big temptation to look over to another person's paper and I think you do not because you want to cheat, but because you forget things and you panic. This is wrong but in a school where everyone wants and needs to do well you feel left behind if you totally fail an exam. Cheating in tests is the only type of cheating that I feel sure is totally wrong. The others like copying homework, copying ideas you do because you don't want to let yourself down. If you sat down and thought about it, copying someone's homework is wrong because if you get A's by copying you are bound to get a A for your report which will deceive everybody but yourself. This could get you into trouble if you fail a test but then of course you would cheat. On the whole, cheating is wrong, but everyone does it as one time without knowing it is wrong. I think if people didn't 'accidentally' cheat then our school would be more realistic and we would improve far quicker.

199

I think that it depends what type of cheating you mean because I think that if someone forgot to do their homework or something like that then I wouldn't mind if they copied mine because I don't think that that's cheating, or if it was just like a 10 question mini test or something, smaller than I wouldn't really think of that as cheating, if someone looked in a text book or something. If it was a big test or a November test, I would think of it as cheating because the marks you get are put on your report and it's not fair on everyone else if someone cheats because some people might try really hard and not do very well and some people might cheat and do really well and it isn't fair. Also if people cheat then the teachers will think that they know and understand the work, when they probably don't and so they'll never really learn anything. Also if someone cheats then if they get caught the person who was copying from might get into trouble as well when they had nothing to do with it. Another way of cheating is when people are doing coursework which I think is wrong because you're supposed to do it by yourself and the SAT's are supposed to be quite important so if someone helped someone else do their coursework then I would think of that as cheating.

200

If you were in an exam and you looked at someone else's work I think this would definitely be wrong because you would be getting a higher mark than you should. But if you were playing cards with your friends and you cheated to win, this would be alright. Because its only playing a game with friends and it doesn't affect you. If you were cheating for, example, in a game of netball it wouldn't be right but it wouldn't be as bad as cheating in an exam. If you were in a small test and you waited until the answers were being given out a high mark. This would be cheating, but because the test wasn't particularly important it wouldn't really matter if it were to save yourself from embarrassment at your lower mark. Although it still would be wrong, however, if you looked at someone else's work whilst you were doing the test so as to get higher marks this would be wrong definitely.

201

I have different views on cheating as if you are in an exam or test and you cheat by looking at another person work I do think this is wrong if they don't know you are doing it but if you can copy it I think this is OK as you can always cheat by writing things on your hands or arms than I think this is wrong as it is not fair on anyone else as the have revised. If I saw someone cheating in an exam or test I don't think I would tell a teacher as it is not really fair even though cheating is not fair but sometime people don't have the courage to tell a teacher. If someone asked to copy my homework I would say you but if they didn't ask before using it I would be really mad and would probably class this a cheating if they were not a close friend. Overall I feel everyone has different view on cheating and what it is but I think cheating is really only so in exams as they are important but homework isn't as important.

451

I think cheating, anywhere, is wrong, whether it is in school college or work etc., I think this because some people will work their hardest and may not be able to achieve what they wish. And then a cheater comes along doesn't work at all and then they do achieve what they want. I think this is wrong because it's not fair on the person who worked really hard. It is really hard to explain but it is just really wrong because it's not fair on those who worked hard to achieve their dreams.

453

In school I think that cheating is wrong as you will never learn how to do things for yourself. But in some cases if someone is really desperate and is worried about an exam and can some way cheat, then I think that is OK, but only if you are desperate. But personally I don't think I would ever cheat on an exam or a test as you have to learn for yourself. If you really want to do well in say GCSE's then you've got to do it for yourself and put 100% effort into doing what you know and not what somebody else does. If someone wants to cheat it's up to them it will be their mistake and they need to learn from their mistakes. Cheating is wrong and kids, adults should be taught that.

456

Cheating can be wrong. But in some circumstances it can be all right. If you have forgotten or not been able to do homework for example and you were likely to get in trouble for it then it could be all right to copy it. When you are doing an important piece of coursework or if you are in an exam the it would not be all right to copy as your future could depend on your answers and you shouldn't take the credit for someone else's work. If you

let someone else do all the work in a group then that is again not fair on that person.

461

It depends on what the situation is. If it is an important test then that is definitely wrong because the teachers are trying to find out your level not someone else's who you've copied from. If you are just doing a bit of work in school that isn't very important it is ok as long as the person who you are copying from doesn't mind. If it is just a little test, I don't think it is very important as it doesn't really matter. You might have forgotten something and just need reminding. On the other hand if you cheat all of the time when it comes to your exams you will feel dependent on the other person sitting next to you and could get disqualified. I'm not saying that cheating is wrong but it's also not right. It's just an easy way out. It's not going to get you anywhere in life and if you need to cheat it says something about you. If you get caught cheating in exams it could ruin the rest of your life just because you couldn't be bothered to learn or even think about something that you knew.

463

Cheating in school is wrong, but sometimes people really need to. I think it's wrong to copy other people's work as the other person might have studied hard or worked a lot to be able to get a good mark. But if you have revised hard and are failing in your test, then a look at someone else's work won't hurt too much. Cheating in schools is definitely wrong. In my opinion there is no point to it, I can see why people do it, because 1) they either cannot be bothered to think and do it themselves or 2) they want to do better than they know they can. If you do cheat you are only cheating yourself because you might get a good mark but it will not be YOUR mark so you might as well not have bothered. If you have done your best and you get a bad mark at least it has come from your head rather than someone else's paper. Another down factor is that if you get found out you will never be praised for a good mark you may get in the future because the person who marked the paper may think 'Did this person cheat?' For students who can't cope with not doing well at school may be urged towards cheating because they feel they will let everyone else and themselves down. Often they cannot deal with this. Cheating is wrong but many would disagree even if they do not admit it.

804

I have mixed views about cheating in school. I don't think it's right because it's not your own work. If you get somewhere through cheating, you will always wonder if you'd been intelligent enough in the first place. It's wrong to use your friends work, if you haven't even revised in the first places, that's not fair. It's not fair to your friends. In exams and important things it's not right but I think if it's just classwork it doesn't matter. If you're cheating to get somewhere it's wrong. I think a little help is OK in class, just to help when stuck. Extreme cheating is wrong, but a little help is acceptable.

806

Cheating in school is wrong because it's not what the person's really achieving. It's what the other person you're cheating off is achieving. Everybody cheats in school to get better grades or to stop themselves from being embarrassed with wrong answers. I think people at school should be able to help each other but cheating other people's answers is unfair on the other person.

811

I think cheating in school is only wrong if it is in a A level test of GCSE etc., Cheating is only OK if you are doing it for a very good reason e.g., which I don't know.

812

Cheating in school exams and in important national tests is wrong because they should show your intelligence in certain subjects. My person view is that cheating in classwork or homework is wrong also, except it is acceptable because most students get help from parents or friends. If you get help from a parent or a friend the work you do is not all your own, there are different forms of cheating.

820

Cheating in school is only wrong is it's in a major exam. If you cheat during a lesson, then fair enough, you've done it and that's the end of it. If it's a major exam like a GCSE then you have got to live the rest of your life thinking if I hadn't of cheated what would I have got? So what I am saying is that it is wrong and right, depending on the situation.

821

I think that cheating is not wrong it is wrong in a test a exam, but on the whole you have to cheat to get places. Everyone cheats so you have to. So it is not right to some extent to cheat.

822

I think that cheating should not be allowed in tests because they are meant to show your knowledge. I also think that cheating should be allowed in the class because if people are writing the right answers they will learn them and become more knowledgeable.

823

I do think that cheating is wrong in exams and major tests because they are what counts. But if you cheat in a small test of little things it's OK cause everyone does it.

828

If you cheat in a little test that's not as bad as if you were in an exam. Maybe is you get a friends or family to do a school quiz or homework. Basically cheating is a good thing if you're cutting small corners but if it's anything major then it's bad.

831

you could work in class in two which I think isn't cheating but if you copy someone in an exam or look at the test pages before your start. (if it wasn't cheating I would like to have the test). If someone cheats in cards at a casino and get away with it, it is all right because they make millions.

832

When you are in year 7 and 8 I don't think cheating is wrong because it not so important and if you don't know the answer you could cheat by looking at other work or reading answer books. But I think it is wrong to cheat in exam or in year 10 and 11 but the worse year to cheat in is year 9.

833

Yes, I do think cheating in school is wrong because if people are cheating but some people think cheating is good fun if they cheat they could cheat in tests and in

the exam copying people's work. When the teachers tell to test yourself you look at the answers.

834

No because and Yes because some questions are to see how much you know and some people lose or did not do it so they get a lot of pressure off the teachers so they copy their friends to get them out of trouble.

834

Yes, I think cheating is wrong but sometimes you may have to cheat. You may cheat because you don't want to look small, you may cheat cause you have to win and can't lose. But also cheating can be bad you could cheat on your exam. Then when it comes to the job you won't know what to do cause you cheated.

836

It depends why you cheat.

837

It depends if you cheat for a person it is OK, but if you cheat on an exam it is not OK as you do not know what you can achieve on your own. when you cheat you deceive someone

838

I think that cheating is wrong in some ways but not in others. Cheating because you always do that is wrong, but if you are under so much pressure friends or work or your parents, I think there is not stopping yourself because you just don't want to be the one who got the lowest grade.

839

It depends what you cheat on. It would be ok if you cheat at homework because you do not benefit from that in a big way. If you cheat in a GCSE exam it is not OK because you benefit a lot from it. You are more likely to get into trouble for cheating in a GCSE or a key stage 3 test than you are doing your homework. If you cheat in a GCSE exam you are not going to do the course you take at college.

840

Cheating can be OK sometimes but it depends what you are cheating in. If you are in an exam e.g., GCSE it would be wrong, but if it was an end of module test or a sports game, it would not be as bad because it does not depend on you lifes career. So cheating is OK sometimes it just depends what you're cheating at.

841

It depends on how you cheat. I you have seen a test paper before the test and you find the answers for the test that means you have an unfair advantage over everyone else. If you copy someone work, that means the only work you have done writing it out. If you have a quick mental maths test in you classroom and there is a multiplication table on the wall, you can use it because you have no unfair advantage over anyone else.

842

Sometimes it is, like when you can't be bothered to study but it's OK if you have only had a few days to study.

844

It depends what scenario you are in. In most cases it's immoral and does not you justice. But, if you are in a strict family then you may want to cheat to achieve a high mark to prove themselves to their parents or teachers.

846

Cheating in school is only wrong if you are just being lazy and haven't revised but if you have had problems at home or if it's a matter between life or death then it's OK.

847

I do think cheating is wrong but if the circumstances are right, then I think it could be allowed.

849

Cheating in tests is OK if you don't get caught. But you should know the subject.

850

I think some kinds of cheating are OK for example, cheating in little tests such as German to get your mark up and not stay in a break. I would think nothing of doing that. Cheating in GCSE is not really fair on the people work. work hard and get good grades. I would get people to lend me their coursework if I was behind on it but I would change it so they looked different. I would lend people my work especially if they paid me. Everybody has cheated some time in their life it is something which humans do. Cheating is OK if it doesn't affect other people in a bad way it is a way of getting personal gain.

852

Most sorts of cheating are wrong. E.g., 1. I think copying somebody else's work word for word is wrong, but not if you were to use somebody's work to guide you. E.g., 2. Taking answers into an exam is wrong because exams show what you already know, if you get everything right you give the wrong impression.

853

think in some cases it is such as major exams but people put so much pressure on students today to do well that we resort to cheating. I would say that every student has at least cheated once in their school years, such as looking at their friends work, used books for answers to work copied work, copied off the internet etc. Because we are expected to do well we don't want to do rubbish so we cheat. If no one finds out and we get good results it makes the school look good and the country look good. The government are happy. So I don't think it's really that wrong. Just as long as you don't get caught it's all right.

854

In exams, yes it is wrong but if you're in a lesson and you have to answer questions or you have tasks to do and you say to someone what have you got for question 3 or what's the answer then it's OK. But in an exam your whole life depends on the answers you write and if you copy someone and they've got it wrong and you already know the answer then that's a point you lost. It's also wrong if you cheat by writing the answer on your hand or arm because other people revise and remember so you're putting a disadvantage on the people who work.

855

I think cheating in school is not always wrong because people may call different things cheating such as looking in a textbook for an answer. I think that's not cheating but others may say it is. Cheating in a form of copying someone else's work or writing the answer on your hand pencil case etc., in an exam is wrong and I certainly would definitely call that cheating.

856

I think cheating is wrong but I think I can probably understand why some people do it especially in stressful exams. I've never really thought of copying out of books as cheating, we never heard it been called that before. I think everyone had copied out of books it doesn't seem that wrong to me but I can understand why it is called 'cheating' not I've thought about it!

701

I suppose that whether something is cheating or not depends entirely on the situation in which the cheating takes place and your individual outlook on cheating. Personally in principal I believe cheating such as cheating in tests is wrong as they are supposed to be there to assess you/ However in small test, for example, French vocab tests if you have forgotten to learn the words you will be tested on, or you have learned the wrong ones, since you probably have learned them easily and have done well. Although cheating is wrong, even in these circumstances, I think that many people would have no qualms about cheating as it is acceptable. I certainly feel that cheating in such situations although wrong is easy to do as little harm comes of it. Cheating in exams such as GCSE's or A levels I do not have any problems in deciding that this is definitely wrong as if you pass you could then go into a job using the skill which you have not learned and harm somebody. Often if someone has not done their homework, they will copy someone else's in the morning or at lunch so that they will not get a detention. This is dishonest, but I feel that as long as you do not copy exactly what they have written you are causing no harm to anyone but yourself and in the end that is your decision. I do not feel that looking up a subject in a book and using the information you find is cheating, as that is what the books are there for is it not?! Neither do I believe that asking your parents for help is cheating as you have to learn somehow as long as they don't do the work for you and you learn what they tell you it is acceptable. I think that as long as you don't hurt anyone cheating is OK.

704

I think that copying someone's homework if you have forgotten about it or left it at home is okay because if you understand the work but really did not have time to do it you should not get into trouble. However, if someone cannot be bothered to do work, then it is not right they should copy someone's work, and not get caught or told off. Cheating in an exam is different though. That is definitely wrong. It is not worth cheating because in the end it is you which suffers. Anyone who cheats in an exam such as GCSE's or A levels should really be punished in some way - maybe get suspended. It is completely different from copying homework and should be treated likewise. Stealing money and cheating people that way is probably worse than either of the two above. This is because it means that somebody else suffers and you gain. It is horrible because the feeling you get when you think you are a victim is awful. I think you should get into the same amount of trouble for petty thieving and cheating in major exams. You do not though and that disappoints me.

705

I think cheating in school is wrong in some ways. If it is simply coping someone's homework because you found it hard I don't think it is very serious because I think that everyone does it from time to time. But cheating as in exams (or test) isn't right. It's not fair on the person you are copying from and it certainly won't help you in future exams. Cheating is a bad habit because if you rely on other peoples work instead of doing you own it will not help you when you come to future exams when it will be very hard to cheat. Cheating is quiet easy from time to time but we mustn't rely on it even when we are confused because test/ exams are all designed to let the teachers see how good we are doing but if we cheat we are not going to let the teachers know that really we are confused with the work and need help. If we cheat because we find the work difficult then we should ask a teacher for help even though it is hard to do so. But if we simply can't be bothered to do the work ourselves and so cheat them this is wrong and unfair but we will be the ones who lose out at the end of the day.

706

If someone cheats, for example in a test by looking at someone elses work or using notes than they are cheating themselves. The marks of the other students are not affected so they are not being cheated out of anything, hower the person who cheated has made his/her test invalid and useless. Im sure everybody has cheated at some stage in their life - some more than others but for some it is not as bad as others depending on the guilt after. If I cheated on a test and so got an 'A' grade and I knew someone who worked well/hard and only got a 'B' grade, I would feel bad, however if I hadn't cheated and only got a C' grade I would have felt worse. ... [d14f706 : 17 - 27] wrong as it defys the point of going to school - if your'e going to do this, why go to school at all? I think that cheating when competing is more wrong. IF two people are both trying to get one place, e.g., in a separate science class cheating to beat your opponent is unfair on everyone including yourself as it means you are (or could be) putting yourself where you don't belong. If someone cheated like this and it had affected someone else, I would say something to the teacher but if they had cheated to improve a personal mark/ test score, they have lost out in the long run, as when it comes to GCSEs they won't know the relevant information.

707

I would say that one the whole, cheating is wrong. In the following paragraphs I am going to explain the reasons why I think this. Firstly and probably foremostly, I would say that cheating is wrong because it is cheating yourself. If you copy someones homework down then you are indeed passing someone elses work off as your won, which means you have not actually understood it, or attempted it yourself. It is totally avoiding the point of attending school. The only reason people have for cheating is that they are too lazy to figure it out for themselves. Cheating is not only lying to yourself, but to all the people that surround you and the teachers. These dudes automatically assume you to have understood all of it, thus meaning you will never actually completely understand it as the teacher will probably not recap it. In examinations the student/ person involved will find themselves lacking knowledge in certain places which can only be a hindrance to the marks at the end of the process. (In a roundabout way it comes back to cheating themselves). It is integral in school that students absorb and understand the information that is being subscribed to them. If they cheat (and so miss some if this information) then they will affect the rest of their lives. In conclusions, cheating is wrong. It goes hand in hand with cheating yourself and throwing your life away.

708

Overall cheating in school is wrong. I think that all types of cheating is wrong but some are worse than others. There are of course many different kinds of cheating, from coping someones home work and looking at someones answers in a small in-class test, to cheating in you GCSE's or in a major exam/oral etc. I could never cheat in an exam that is important, for many reasons, firstly what is the point? It's your work that's wanted not a replica of somebody elses. The guilt would stop me from cheating. There are more, but those seem like the most important. Another is the thought that you have to cheat to do well. I have cheat in mini test, and have copied other peoples work, without feeling at all gluity, but afterwards I always find that I wish I hadn't because I should have done it myself. I only do it when I haven't had time, or if, for example a french verb test where we have to read out marks out, when I didn't want to seem thick. I do actually feel quiet strongly against major cheating if that's a good name. I think that it is a waste of time and is also bad for the person that's being copied as they've had to do all the hard work, they however, do have the feeling of pride in their work as it is their work. It isn't I thing to be proud of and I think it is bad, a waste of time and something that should be tried to stop at all oportunies.

710

I sometimes cheat on small test, e.g., French verb tests but it really annoys me when it is a big test and others cheat. If I have bothered to revise then I hope to get a good mark but if other haven't I would expect them to get a bad mark. I hate when you get the results back to find someone else who cheated has done better than you. I think that occasionally copying someones homework is OK but when they copy coursework etc which goes towards our GCSE's then I get really annoyed. I do realise though that when it comes to exams they can't cheat so people are going to see through them.

711

I think that cheating on a major scale - like for instance in an exam or a test is wrong. However, I see nothing wrong in looking at a persons homework or work in order to help you answer the question set. Though it could be argued that this is just another form of cheating, I think that it will help the person as they will hopefully then know the answer for next time. Regular cheating in test is unfair to the person whose work is being copied and in the long run will not help the cheat, when it comes to exams where it is not possible to cheat and so may damage the persons education. In cases like these, the cheat should be isolated in order to prevent cheating and promote the persons own initiative.

712

Cheating in an exam is wrong, as the results give yourself, your family and your teachers a good idea of how well you are doing at school and can eventually determine what job you get and what GCSE and A levels you get. Cheating on homework or on classwork is not so bad because they aren't as important as an exam, and although you will get into trouble if you are caught, it won't be as much as if you were caught cheating on your GCSE's or something. I don't think that cheating in classwork is such a big offence because it probably wont change your life, but it is still wrong and dishonest as your teacher will think that you know how to do the work, when you don't. I think that the worst king of cheating is when you cheat in an exam, especially in an important one, because you could get better or worse marks than you would have achieved if

you'd done the work yourself. You could be put in a group where the work is too easy or too difficult or get an incorrect grade.

709

I think that cheating in exams is wrong as you obviously do not understand or have the knowledge to answer the question yourself therefore you are only cheating yourself to achieve a better mark and therefore receiving praise and people make you feel as though you have accomplished something. Unfortunately, the

way I see it is, you would have gained that mark through someone else's hard revision and knowledge so you have used them and cheated yourself. However, I do think that when you copy someone's homework which you totally understand and just didn't have the time to do yourself there isn't really anything wrong in doing that. The only thing I classify as being wrong with copying homework off someone is when the person copying doesn't understand what they're doing and just doesn't want a detention. Personally I feel that they should ask someone (a friend) about it or better still go and see the teacher.

APPENDIX 6 (iii)

Right respondents

073

Yes. There are many times I have cheated in exams. I have used calculators sometimes. When the teacher is looking away I will look at the answers in my bag. It is always acceptable if done properly with cunning and planning. I have even bribed a French teacher in this school with money and successfully. Even the teacher thought that cheating was fine. I cheat constantly. I do my homework in other lessons and often teal other persons answers.

076

Cheating In school isn't wrong everyone does it if you are in a test then it is different. I do it sometimes but if it was that wrong then everyone would be in deep trouble. I cheat a lot but not on any important aspects at school. If you cheat at school it should be allowed.

135

Cheating is wrong anywhere it's wrong towards other people just as wrong as it is to you. Still school isn't really a place where you can do something really bad.

469

No! cheating in a test helps you boost your grades!
Cheating in SAT gets you into higher sets
Cheating in a job interview gets you a job!
Cheating on a girl friend gets a better time
This stinks!

827

I think cheating in school is a good thing if you feel it is what you have to do but if you have to cheat you obviously do not know how to do the work so you should go over the subject with the teacher again afterwards

APPENDIX 7

Study 4

Questionnaire battery – PARENT version



What is this questionnaire about?

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this project. This project is about the role of the parent in children's schooling.

On the following pages there are questions about home and school life. Some of the questions ask about you and your child's home life. Some ask about your opinions of general school life. If you have more than one child, please read the section below called 'How to answer the questions'.

Your child will also have a questionnaire to complete. It asks questions on the same topics as this one.

Who will see what I have written?

No one, except the researcher (Penny Armstead). There is no request for your name anywhere on this questionnaire. Anything you write cannot be traced back to you. It is confidential and will not be shown to anyone. There is an envelope for you to put your completed questionnaire in and seal.

You do not have to answer any questions, but I would be very grateful if you could take the time to complete the whole questionnaire.

If you have any questions about anything included in this questionnaire, please contact me and I will answer them. You can contact me at:

Penny Armstead
 FREEPOST
 Psychology Department
 University of Plymouth
 Drake Circus
 Plymouth
 PL4 8AA

01752 233157

or

e-mail: parmstead@plym.ac.uk

How to answer the questions

There are 5 sections in the questionnaire. Each of them has slightly different instructions. Please read the instructions carefully before answering the questions.

This questionnaire is designed for parents who have a child who is currently at secondary school (or of secondary school age). Section C in this questionnaire is to be answered about this child and this child only.

How do I return the completed questionnaire?

Place your completed questionnaire in the pre-paid envelope and post it. There is no cost to you for sending this questionnaire back.

A. This section is about you and your family.

Please fill in or circle the following:

About the person filling in this questionnaire:

- I am the mother
- I am the step mother
- I am the father
- I am the step father
- Other (please specify) _____

Marital status

- Both natural parents present in the household
- One natural parent and one step parent
- One natural parent
- Foster family
- Other (please specify) _____

Occupation

My job is _____

My partner's job is: (if applicable) _____

About your children:

I have _____ children at home (please give the total number of children who live with you, including the child for whom you are answering this questionnaire. So if for example, you have children who live with previous partners or other carers, please do not include them).

Please give the following details about your children who live with you (please refer to the above question if you are unsure which children to include).

The child for whom you are answering these questions:

Age _____ male/ female _____ year in school _____

The brother(s) and sister(s) of the child for whom you are answering these questions.

Child a:	Age	_____	male/female	_____	year in school (if applicable)	_____
Child b:	Age	_____	male/female	_____	year in school (if applicable)	_____
Child c:	Age	_____	male/female	_____	year in school (if applicable)	_____
Child d:	Age	_____	male/female	_____	year in school (if applicable)	_____

During term time, the child for whom I am answering these questions lives with me: (please tick only one)

- All of the time
- During the week
- At weekends
- Other (please specify) _____

B. This section asks you about how ACCEPTABLE you think the things are that children do at school and at home.

This section is different to section D below. Below are a series of mini stories. Each one is about a school child doing something at home or at school and why they did it.

In this section you need to **ONLY** think about why they did what they did. Simply tick the response which shows how acceptable you think their overall actions were.

- | | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Mike likes to change his marks as the teacher reads the test answers out. He does this because he is embarrassed that he does not understand the questions. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 2 | Simon found an essay someone else left on one of the computers. He thought it was good, so he made a couple of changes and printed it off. He handed it in as his own work. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 3 | Emily has to spend time training for swimming competitions at the weekend. She always forgets to do her homework on Sunday and ends up copying from her friends. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 4 | Jessica is pleased when her teacher gives them an extra day past the deadline to complete their GCSE coursework. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 5 | Sally is worried that she might get a low mark in her end of year test. She asks her friend if she can copy from her. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |

Reminder: In this section you need to **ONLY** think about why they did what they did.

Simply tick the response which shows how acceptable you think their overall actions were.

- | | | |
|----|---|---|
| 6 | Fred asks his friend what was in the Biology exam he took last week. Fred has to take the same exam this week. He doesn't mind asking because everyone does it. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 7 | Sam always copies the person next to her during lessons. It's easier than working it out for herself. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 8 | Jamie revises for his German spoken test by listening to what the person in front of him says to the teacher and repeating it when it is his turn. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 9 | Everyone changes the answers to a test at least once in their life. This is what Jack and his friends say when they swap their work to mark. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 10 | Jenny smuggled notes in to her practice GCSE exam. She said that it didn't matter because they weren't real exams. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 11 | If Martin has a really important test or exam he gets his Mum to phone the school to say he is ill. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 12 | Ally overheard some friends talking about ideas for a project. She thought the ideas were good and used one for her own project. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |

Reminder: In this section you need to **ONLY** think about **why** they did what they did.

Simply tick the response which shows how **acceptable** you think their **overall actions** were.

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| 13 | Becky finds coursework a drag. She borrows the coursework of a friend from a different school and copies it. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 14 | David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this because it is not a real exam. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 15 | Using a calculator during a maths test when you're not allowed to doesn't bother Amanda. Everyone in her class does it. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 16 | Jonah thinks that copying from friends in exams doesn't do any harm. When you get a job, you never have to use anything that you were taught in school anyway. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 17 | Ben's sister is a few years above him at school. To save time and effort he copies out her old essays and hands them in as his own. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 18 | Tom "thinks smart" during tests. If there are answers on the posters around the room, he writes them on his answer sheet. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 19 | Esther gets her brother to help her with her maths homework. Teachers understand that pupils need help from their family with coursework. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |

Reminder: In this section you need to **ONLY** think about why they did what they did.

Simply tick the response which shows how acceptable you think their overall actions were.

- | | | |
|----|--|---|
| 20 | Shama finds it quicker to ask her parents for the answers to her maths homework than to work the answers out herself. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 21 | If George doesn't have time to do his homework he borrows his friend's and copies it. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 22 | Gillian finds the questions for a French vocabulary test on the teacher's desk. As there is no one around, she makes a note of what the questions are. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 23 | Before a test in class, Anna copies the answers or helpful notes onto a scrap of paper or onto her pencil case. It's a good way to make sure she passes. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 24 | If Nick gets stuck on his GCSE coursework, his Dad gives him some of the answers. Everyone gets help with their coursework. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 25 | Matthew finds it hard to find time to learn things at home, so he keeps books open on his lap during tests at school. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |
| 26 | Ginny carefully chooses where she sits in exams. She likes to be able to spy on the work of others in case she needs an answer to a question. | <input type="checkbox"/> <i>Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Unacceptable.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable in the circumstances.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/> <i>Acceptable anyway.</i> |

Reminder: In this section you need to **ONLY** think about why they did what they did.

Simply tick the response which shows how acceptable you think their overall actions were.

- 27 On a field trip for a piece of coursework, Andy and Jason cannot be bothered to count the number of trees in a wood or find out information about the trees, so they guess the number of trees and write their report on made-up information.
- Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.*
 Unacceptable.
 Acceptable in the circumstances.
 Acceptable anyway.
- 28 Sue and Kate share their revision load. Sue learns the stuff for one subject and Kate learns the stuff for another subject. They make sure that they sit together in the test so that they can check their answers.
- Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.*
 Unacceptable.
 Acceptable in the circumstances.
 Acceptable anyway.
- 29 Keith started revising for an exam the night before and found that there was too much to learn. He made some notes on his arm to copy during the exam.
- Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.*
 Unacceptable.
 Acceptable in the circumstances.
 Acceptable anyway.
- 30 Danielle's sister thinks that homework is a waste of time, so she doesn't do any.
- Totally unacceptable, despite the circumstances.*
 Unacceptable.
 Acceptable in the circumstances.
 Acceptable anyway.

C. About you and your child at home and at school

In this section, you will be asked to answer questions about your child (or if you have more than one child, just one of your children). The child that you answer the questions for must be of secondary school age at the moment. If you have more than one child at secondary school, please answer the questions about the same child. Do not answer some questions about one of your children and other questions about another child. There are no right or wrong answers to these questions.

Please circle the ONE response with which you agree.

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| 1 | I feel that it is very important for my child to get the best possible marks all of the time. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 2 | The position of my child's school in the local league table is not important to me. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 3 | My child is given homework each night. They must sit down and get it done as soon as they come in from school. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 4 | My child is allowed to stay out as late as they feel they want to. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 5 | I support and help my child in all of their school work. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 6 | My child prefers me not to go to parents' evenings. They would prefer it if I did not know how they got on at school. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 7 | I encourage my child to spend a long time learning things for tests they have in class. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 8 | It does not bother me if my child fails a class test. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |

9	At parents evenings I feel to blame if my child's grades are not as good as the teacher says they should be.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
10	If my child does something wrong, I will not punish them.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
11	Our home is always a happy place to be.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
12	It does not bother me if my child gets marks which are <u>not</u> as good as their friends.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13	The school expects parents to encourage pupils to work and study hard. I agree with this view.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
14	It does not matter if my child leaves school at 16 without many GCSEs.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
15	It is important for my child to do very well in their end-of-year tests.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
16	My child finds school a struggle. They do not seem to be able to settle down in class.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
17	The people in my family are good friends with each other.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
18	Families should discuss lots of things, however, the views of children are not as important as the views of adults.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

19	The marks that my child gets at school are important because they show how well they will do in their career.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
20	There is more to life than taking exams.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
21	My child's homework must be done on time.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
22	Playing harmless pranks at school is part of growing up.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
23	If my child needs to talk about a problem, I am always there to listen.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
24	Doing well at school is not as important to me as long as my child has lots of friends.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
25	There are some subjects at school which I really want my child to do well in.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
26	I do not push my child to do well. I allow them to set their own work pace.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
27	If my child does something wrong at school, I will tell them off when they get home.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
28	My child is only young once. I do not mind if they are not at the top of the class.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
29	My child has opinions about many things, which are interesting to hear.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

30	If my child is unhappy at school, I do not force them to go.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
31	My child does what they are told.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
32	If my child does something wrong, I will not tell them off.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
33	My child is confident that they will do well at school.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
34	The education of children should be left to the teachers at school. Parents should not get involved.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
35	My child does not 'play-up' very often.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
36	If someone makes a mistake at home, I don't get annoyed with them.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
37	If my child does something wrong at school, the school should be able to deal with it, without involving the family.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

D. This section asks you about your opinions of things that children do at school and at home.

Below are a series of mini stories. This section is different to section B above. Each one is about a school child doing something at home or at school and why they did it.

In this section you need to **ONLY** think about what they did. It is important that you do not judge why they did it.

Simply circle the response which shows how serious you think their action was.

1	Before a test in class, Anna copies the answers or helpful notes onto a scrap of paper or onto her pencil case. It's a good way to make sure she passes.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
2	If George doesn't have time to do his homework he borrows his friend's and copies it.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
3	Danielle's sister thinks that homework is a waste of time, so she doesn't do any.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
4	David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this because it is not a real exam.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
5	Jenny smuggled notes in to her practice GCSE exam. She said that it didn't matter because they weren't real exams.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
6	Sally is worried that she might get a low mark in her end-of-year test. She asks her friend if she can copy from her.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
7	Mike likes to change his marks as the teacher reads the test answers out. He does this because he is embarrassed that he does not understand the questions.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious

Reminder: In this section you need to **ONLY** think about what they did. It is important that you **do not judge why** they did it. Simply circle the response which shows how serious you think their action was.

8	On a field trip for a piece of coursework, Andy and Jason cannot be bothered to count the number of trees in a wood or find out information about the trees, so they guess the number of trees and write their report on made-up information.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
9	Gillian finds the questions for a French vocabulary test on the teacher's desk. As there is no one around, she makes a note of what the questions are.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
10	Tom "thinks smart" during tests. If there are answers on the posters around the room, he writes them on his answer sheet.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
11	Using a calculator during a maths test when you're not allowed to doesn't bother Amanda. Everyone in her class does it.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
12	If Martin has a really important test or exam he gets his Mum to phone the school to say he is ill.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
13	Sam always copies the person next to her during lessons. It's easier than working it out for herself.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
14	Simon found an essay someone else left on one of the computers. He thought it was good, so he made a couple of changes and printed it off. He handed it in as his own work.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious

Reminder: In this section you need to **ONLY** think about what they did. It is important that you **do not judge why** they did it. Simply circle the response which shows how serious you think their action was.

15	Ginny carefully chooses where she sits in exams. She likes to be able to spy on the work of others in case she needs an answer to a question.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
16	If Nick gets stuck on his GCSE coursework, his Dad gives him some of the answers. Everyone gets help with their coursework.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
17	Esther gets her brother to help her with her maths homework. Teachers understand that pupils need help from their family with coursework.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
18	Jonah thinks that copying from friends in exams doesn't do any harm. When you get a job, you never have to use anything that you were taught in school anyway.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
19	Ally overheard some friends talking about ideas for a project. She thought the ideas were good and used one for her own project.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
20	Jamie revises for his German spoken test by listening to what the person in front of him says to the teacher and repeating it when it is his turn.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
21	Emily has to spend time training for swimming competitions at the weekend. She always forgets to do her homework on Sunday and ends up copying from her friends.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious

Reminder: In this section you need to **ONLY** think about what they did. It is important that you **do not judge why** they did it. Simply circle the response which shows how serious you think their action was.

22	Keith started revising for an exam the night before and found that there was too much to learn. He made some notes on his arm to copy during the exam.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
23	Sue and Kate share their revision load. Sue learns the stuff for one subject and Kate learns the stuff for another subject. They make sure that they sit together in the test so that they can check their answers.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
24	Matthew finds it hard to find time to learn things at home, so he keeps books open on his lap during tests at school.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
25	Shama finds it quicker to ask her parents for the answers to her maths homework than to work the answers out herself.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
26	Ben's sister is a few years above him at school. To save time and effort he copies out her old essays and hands them in as his own.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
27	Becky finds coursework a drag. She borrows the coursework of a friend from a different school and copies it.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious
28	Everyone changes the answers to a test at least once in their life. This is what Jack and his friends say when they swap their work to mark.	Very Serious	Serious	Not very serious	Not at all serious

Reminder: In this section you need to **ONLY** think about what they did. It is important that you **do not judge why** they did it. Simply circle the response which shows how serious you think their action was.

- | | | | | | |
|----|---|--------------|---------|------------------|--------------------|
| 29 | Jessica is pleased when her teacher gives them an extra day past the deadline to complete their GCSE coursework. | Very Serious | Serious | Not very serious | Not at all serious |
| 30 | Fred asks his friend what was in the Biology exam he took last week. Fred has to take the same exam this week. He doesn't mind asking because everyone does it. | Very Serious | Serious | Not very serious | Not at all serious |

E. This section asks questions about your child's progress at school

Name of school attended (optional) _____

Number of years at this school _____

Which subject do you think your child most enjoys at school?

Which subject do you think your child finds the easiest at school?

Which subject do you think your child enjoys the least at school?

Which subject do you think your child finds the hardest at school?

For the following subjects, how do you think your child is progressing? Please place a cross in the box corresponding to where you feel your child is in their class.

For English, my child's ability is at the:

Lower end of the class	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table>											Upper end of the class

For Maths, my child's ability is at the:

Lower end of the class	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table>											Upper end of the class

For Science, my child's ability is at the:

Lower end of the class	<table border="1" style="display: inline-table; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> <td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td> </tr> </table>											Upper end of the class

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire. Please place it in the pre-paid envelope and send it to the researcher.

APPENDIX 8

Study 4

Questionnaire battery – CHILD version



What is this questionnaire about?

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this project. This project is about you and your family and you and school life.

On the following pages there are questions about your home and school life. One of your parents will also have questions to answer. The questions they are answering are **different** to yours, but they are also about school and home.

Who will see what I have written?

No one, except the researcher (Penny Armstead).

- ☺ There is no place for your name anywhere.
- ☺ This means that no one will know which questionnaire is yours.
- ☺ You do not have to show your questions to anyone in your family.
- ☺ Your questionnaire will not be shown to anyone.
- ☺ Anything you write will not be shown to anyone.
- ☺ There is an envelope for you to put your finished questionnaire in so that other people **cannot** read it.

You do not have to answer any of the questions, but I would be grateful if you could take the time to complete all of the questions.

If you have any questions about these questions then you can contact me at:

*Penny Armstead
FREEPOST
Psychology Department
University of Plymouth
Drake Circus
Plymouth
Devon
PL4 8AA*

01752 233134

or

e-mail: parmstead@plymouth.ac.uk

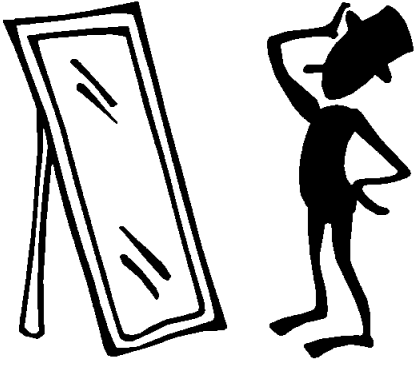
How do I answer the questions?

There are 4 different kinds of questions each with their own instructions. All of them need you to tick boxes. Read the instructions before answering the questions.



What do I do with the questionnaire when I have finished it?

You can either give it straight to Penny (the researcher) or you can post it back to her. You should have an envelope with the address already written on it. You do not need a stamp. Simply post the envelope.



This section is all about you

1. Which school do you go to?
(you do not have to answer this question if you do not want to)

2. Are you :

Male or Female

3. How old are you? _____

4. Which year are you in at school? _____



These questions ask about you and your family

Read each question and tick the answer which you think best matches you and your family.



- | | | | | | |
|----|---|-----------------------|--------------|-----------------|--------------------------|
| 1 | My family feels that it is very important for me to get the best possible marks all of the time. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 2 | Where my school is in the league tables is not important to my family. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 3 | I am given homework each night. I must sit down and get it done as soon as I come in from school. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 4 | In our family, the children are allowed to stay out as late as they feel they want to. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 5 | My family support and help me in all of my school work. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 6 | I prefer my family not to go to parents' evenings. I do not want them to know how I get on at school. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 7 | I am encouraged to spend a long time learning things for tests I have in class. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 8 | It does not bother my family if I fail a class test. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 9 | At parents' evenings my family feel that they are to blame if my grades are not as good as the teacher says they should be. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 10 | If I do something wrong, my family will not punish me. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| 11 | My home is always a happy place to be. | Strongly agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly disagree |

12	My family is not bothered if I get marks which are <u>not</u> as good as my friends.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13	My family expect me to work and study hard.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
14	It does not matter to my family if I leave school at 16 without many GCSEs.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
15	My family feel that it is important for me to do very well in my end-of-year tests.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
16	My family know that I find school a struggle. I do not seem to be able to settle down in class.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
17	The people in my family are good friends with each other.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
18	Families should discuss lots of things, however, in my family, the views of children are not as important as the views of adults.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
19	My family think that the marks that I get at school are important because they show how well I will do in my career.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
20	My family feels that there is more to life than taking exams.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
21	My family say that my homework must be done on time.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
22	My family feels that playing harmless pranks at school is part of growing up.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
23	If I need to talk about a problem, my family is always there to listen.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
24	In my family, doing well at school is not important as long as I have lots of friends.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

25	There are some subjects at school which my family really want me to do well in.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
26	My family does not push me to do well. They allow me to work at my own pace.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
27	If I do something wrong at school, my family will tell me off when I get home.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
28	I will only be young once. My family do not mind if I am not at the top of the class.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
29	I have opinions about many things that my family think are interesting to hear.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
30	If I am unhappy at school, my family does not force me to go.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
31	At home, I do what I am told most of the time.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
32	If I do something wrong, my family do not tell me off.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
33	My family is confident that I will do well at school.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
34	The teaching of children should be left to the teachers at school. My family thinks that parents should not get involved.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
35	At home I do not 'play-up' very often.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
36	If someone makes a mistake at home we do not get annoyed with them.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
37	If I do something wrong at school, the school should be able to deal with it, without telling my family.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree



These questions are about exams.

What is an exam?

For these questions, exams are: S.A.T's, GCSEs, 'end-of-year tests', tests that have the marks put on reports that are sent home, tests that decide which group you will be in for a subject.

For each question, tick the answer which is most like you

1	Feeling nervous while taking an exam stops me from doing well.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
2	In a subject where I have been doing badly, my fear of a bad mark makes my work even worse.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
3	When I can't do a difficult item at the beginning of an exam, it tends to upset me so that I can't do even easy questions later on.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
4	I work best under pressure, like when the piece of work is very important.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5	When I am not ready for an exam, I get upset and can't even do well on the stuff I do know about.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6	The more important the exam the less well I seem to do.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
7	While I may (or may not) be nervous before taking an exam, once I start, I seem to forget to be nervous.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
8	Feeling nervous while taking an exam helps me to do better.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
9	During exams, I get stuck on questions to which I know the answers, even though I might remember them as soon as the exam is over.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

10	I find that my mind goes blank at the beginning of an exam, and it takes me a few minutes before I can get started.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
11	When I start an exam, nothing stops me concentrating.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
12	In subjects where the marks are based mainly on the results of one exam, I seem to do better than other people.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13	I am so tired from worrying about an exam, that I find I almost don't care how well I do by the time I start.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
14	Time goes too quickly for me in an exam and this makes me do worse than the rest of the group.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
15	I look forward to exams.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
16	Although staying up all night to revise does not work for most people, I find that if I need to, I can learn lots of stuff just before an important exam.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
17	I find myself reading exam questions without understanding them, and I must go back over them so that they will make sense.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree



These are mini stories about things that people do at school.

When you answer them, think only about what you and your friends have done in the year that you are *now in*.

For **each** question you need to tick **3** boxes.

- You need to tick a box for how like **you** the person in the story is.
- You need to tick a box for how like **your friends** the person in the story is.
- You need to tick a box for how like **the people in your class** the person in the story is.

Below is an example that I have filled in ... As you can see, I have said that Jim is **like me sometimes**. I have said that Jim is **like my friends often**. I have said that Jim is **like the people in my class always**.

1 *Jim doesn't like going outside at break. He waits until the teacher goes to the staff room before going back into the classroom.*

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Never</i>
<i>Jim is like me ...</i>			✓	
<i>Jim is like my friends ...</i>		✓		
<i>Jim is like the people in my class ...</i>	✓			

Some of the stories talk about tests and exams ...

What is an exam?

For these questions, exams are: S.A.T's, GCSEs, 'end-of-year tests', tests that have the marks put on reports that are sent home, tests that decide which group you will be in for a subject.

What is a test?

In a test lesson, you are not supposed to speak to anyone and the mark that you get is used by your teacher to check your progress in school. The tests are a series of problems or questions which you have to answer in lesson time.



Here are the questions for you to answer.

1 Before a test in class, Anna copies the answers or helpful notes onto a scrap of paper or onto her pencil case.

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Never</i>
<i>Anna is like me ...</i>				
<i>Anna is like my friends ...</i>				
<i>Anna is like the people in my class ...</i>				

2 If George doesn't have time to do his homework he borrows his friend's and copies it.

	<i>Always</i>	<i>Often</i>	<i>Sometimes</i>	<i>Never</i>
<i>George is like me ...</i>				
<i>George is like my friends ...</i>				
<i>George is like the people in my class ...</i>				

- 3 Danielle's sister thinks that homework is a waste of time, so she doesn't do any.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Danielle's sister is like me ...				
Danielle's sister is like my friends ...				
Danielle's sister is like the people in my class ...				

- 4 David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this because it is not a real exam.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
David and Ian are like me ...				
David and Ian are like my friends ...				
David and Ian are like the people in my class ...				

- 5 Jenny smuggled notes in to her practice GCSE exam. She said that it didn't matter because they weren't real exams.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Jenny is like me ...				
Jenny is like my friends ...				
Jenny is like the people in my class ...				

- 6 Sally is worried that she might get a low mark in her end of year test. She asks her friend if she can copy from her.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Sally is like me ...				
Sally is like my friends ...				
Sally is like the people in my class ...				

- 7 Mike likes to change his marks as the teacher reads the test answers out. He does this because he is embarrassed that he does not understand the questions.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Mike is like me ...				
Mike is like my friends ...				
Mike is like the people in my class ...				

- 8 On a field trip for a piece of coursework, Andy and Jason cannot be bothered to count the number of trees in a wood or find out things about the trees, so they guess the number of trees and write their report on made-up information.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Andy and Jason are like me ...				
Andy and Jason is like my friends ...				
Andy and Jason is like the people in my class ...				

- 9 Gillian finds the questions for a French vocabulary test on the teacher's desk. As there is no one around, she makes a note of what the questions are.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Gillian is like me ...				
Gillian is like my friends ...				
Gillian is like the people in my class ...				

- 10 Tom "thinks smart" during tests. If there are answers on the posters around the room, he writes them on his answer sheet.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Tom is like me ...				
Tom is like my friends ...				
Tom is like the people in my class ...				

- 11 Using a calculator during a maths test when you're not allowed to doesn't bother Amanda. Everyone in her class does it.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Amanda is like me ...				
Amanda is like my friends ...				
Amanda is like the people in my class ...				

- 12 If Martin has a really important test or exam he gets his Mum to phone the school to say he is ill.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Martin is like me ...				
Martin is like my friends ...				
Martin is like the people in my class ...				

- 13 Sam always copies the person next to her during lessons. It's easier than working it out for herself.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Sam is like me ...				
Sam is like my friends ...				
Sam is like the people in my class ...				

- 14 Simon found an essay someone else left on one of the computers. He thought it was good, so he made a couple of changes and printed it off. He handed it in as his own work.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Sam is like me ...				
Sam is like my friends ...				
Sam is like the people in my class ...				

- 15 Ginny carefully chooses where she sits in exams. She likes to be able to spy on the work of others in case she needs an answer to a question.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Ginny is like me ...				
Ginny is like my friends ...				
Ginny is like the people in my class ...				

- 16 When Nick got stuck on his GCSE coursework, his Dad gave him some of the answers.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Nick is like me ...				
Nick is like my friends ...				
Nick is like the people in my class ...				

- 17 Esther gets her brother to help her with her maths homework because teachers understand that pupils need help from their family with coursework.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Esther is like me ...				
Esther is like my friends ...				
Esther is like the people in my class ...				

- 18 Jonah thinks that copying from friends in exams doesn't do any harm. When you get a job, you never have to use anything that you were taught in school anyway.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Jonah is like me ...				
Jonah is like my friends ...				
Jonah is like the people in my class ...				

- 19 Ally overheard some friends talking about ideas for a project. She thought the ideas were good and used one for her own project.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Ally is like me ...				
Ally is like my friends ...				
Ally is like the people in my class ...				

- 20 Jamie revises for his German spoken test by listening to what the person in front of him says to the teacher and repeating it when it is his turn.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Jamie is like me ...				
Jamie is like my friends ...				
Jamie is like the people in my class ...				

- 21 Emily has to spend time training for swimming competitions at the weekend. She always forgets to do her homework on Sunday and ends up copying from her friends.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Emily is like me ...				
Emily is like my friends ...				
Emily is like the people in my class ...				

- 22 Keith started revising for an exam the night before and found that there was too much to learn. He made some notes on his arm to copy during the exam.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Keith is like me ...				
Keith is like my friends ...				
Keith is like the people in my class ...				

- 23 Sue and Kate do their revision together. Sue learns the stuff for one subject and Kate learns the stuff for another subject. They make sure that they sit together in the test so that they can check their answers.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Sue and Kate are like me ...				
Sue and Kate are like my friends ...				
Sue and Kate like the people in my class ...				

- 24 Matthew finds it hard to find time to learn things at home, so he keeps books open on his lap during tests at school.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Matthew is like me ...				
Matthew is like my friends ...				
Matthew is like the people in my class ...				

- 25 Shama finds it quicker to ask her parents for the answers to her maths homework than to work the answers out herself.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Shama is like me ...				
Shama is like my friends ...				
Shama is like the people in my class ...				

- 26 Ben's sister is a few years above him at school. To save time and effort he copies out her old essays and hands them in as his own.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Ben is like me ...				
Ben is like my friends ...				
Ben is like the people in my class ...				

- 27 Becky finds coursework a drag. She borrows the coursework of a friend from a different school and copies it.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Becky is like me ...				
Becky is like my friends ...				
Becky is like the people in my class ...				

- 28 Everyone changes the answers to a test at least once in their life. This is what Jack and his friends say when they swap their work to mark.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Jack is like me ...				
Jack is like my friends ...				
Jack is like the people in my class ...				

- 29 Jessica was pleased when her teacher gave them an extra day past the deadline to complete their GCSE coursework.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Jessica is like me ...				
Jessica is like my friends ...				
Jessica is like the people in my class ...				

- 30 Fred asks his friend what was in the Biology exam he took last week. Fred has to take the same exam this week. He doesn't mind asking because everyone does it.

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Never
Fred is like me ...				
Fred is like my friends ...				
Fred is like the people in my class ...				



These questions are about tests

What is a test?

In a test lesson, you are not supposed to speak to anyone and the mark that you get is used by your teacher to check your progress in school. The tests are a series of problems or questions which you have to answer in lesson time.

For each question, tick the answer which is most like you.

1	When I start a test, nothing stops me concentrating.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
2	Time goes too quickly for me in a test and this makes me do worse than the rest of the group.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
3	I find myself reading test questions without understanding them, and I must go back over them so that they will make sense.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
4	While I may (or may not) be nervous before taking a test, once I start, I seem to forget to be nervous.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5	The more important the test the less well I seem to do.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
6	During tests, I get stuck on questions to which I know the answers, even though I might remember them as soon as the test is over.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
7	I find that my mind goes blank at the beginning of a test, and it takes me a few minutes before I can get started.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
8	I look forward to tests.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
9	Although staying up all night to revise does not work for most people, I find that if I need to, I can learn lots of stuff just before an important test.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

10	I work best under pressure, like when the piece of work is very important.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
11	Feeling nervous while taking a test stops me from doing well.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
12	I am so tired from worrying about a test, that I find I almost don't care how well I do by the time I start.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13	When I can't do a difficult item at the beginning of a test, it tends to upset me so that I can't do even easy questions later on.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
14	When I am not ready for a test, I get upset and can't even do well on the stuff I do know about.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
15	Feeling nervous while taking a test helps me to do better.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
16	In subjects where the marks are based mainly on the results of one test, I seem to do better than other people.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
17	In a subject where I have been doing badly, my fear of a bad mark makes my work even worse.	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree

APPENDIX 9

Study 4

Changes made to the wording of the Achievement Anxiety Test (Watson, 1988)

APPENDIX 9

Changes made to the wording of the Achievement Anxiety Test (Watson, 1988)

Original AAT wording	AAT wording used in study 4
Nervousness while taking an exam or test hinders me from doing well	Feeling nervous while taking an exam stops me from doing well.
In a course where I have been doing poorly, my fear of a bad grade cuts down my efficiency	In a subject where I have been doing badly, my fear of a bad mark makes my work even worse.
When I am poorly prepared for an exam or test, I get upset and do less well than even my restricted knowledge should allow	When I am not ready for an exam, I get upset and can't even do well on the stuff I do know about.
The more important the examination the less well I seem to do	The more important the exam the less well I seem to do.
During exams or tests, I get a mental block on questions to which I know the answers, even though I might remember them as soon as the exam is over	During exams, I get stuck on questions to which I know the answers, even though I might remember them as soon as the exam is over.
I find that my mind goes blank at the beginning of an exam, and it takes me a few minutes before I can function	I find that my mind goes blank at the beginning of an exam, and it takes me a few minutes before I can get started.
I am so tired from worrying about an exam, that I find I almost don't care how well I do by the time I start the test	I am so tired from worrying about an exam, that I find I almost don't care how well I do by the time I start.
Time pressure on an exam causes me to do worse than the rest of the group under similar conditions	Time goes too quickly for me in an exam and this makes me do worse than the rest of the group.
I find myself reading exam questions without understanding them, and I must go back over them so that they will make sense	I find myself reading exam questions without understanding them, and I must go back over them so that they will make sense.
When I don't do well on a difficult item at the beginning of an exam, it tends to upset me so that I get a mental block on even easy questions later on	When I can't do a difficult item at the beginning of an exam, it tends to upset me so that I can't do even easy questions later on.
I work most effectively under pressure, as when the task is very important	I work best under pressure, like when the piece of work is very important.
While I may (or may not) be nervous before taking an exam, once I start, I seem to forget to be nervous	While I may (or may not) be nervous before taking an exam, once I start, I seem to forget to be nervous.
Nervousness while taking a test helps me to do better	Feeling nervous while taking a exam helps me to do better.
When I start a test, nothing is able to distract me	When I start an exam, nothing stops me concentrating.
In courses in which the total grade is based mainly on one exam, I seem to do better than other people	In subjects where the marks are based mainly on the results of one exam, I seem to do better than other people.
I look forward to exams	I look forward to exams.
Although 'cramming' under pre-examination tension is not effective for most people, I find that if the need arises, I can learn material immediately before an exam even under considerable pressure, and successfully retain it to use on the exam	Although staying up all night to revise does not work for most people, I find that if I need to, I can learn lots of stuff just before an important exam.
I enjoy taking a difficult exam more than an easy one	I enjoy taking a difficult exam more than an easy one
The more important the exam, the better I seem to do	The more important the exam, the better I seem to do

APPENDIX 10

Study 4

Skill levels and the sub-major group structure of SOC2000

(from Standard Occupational Classification 2000, vol1, p6)

APPENDIX 10

Skill levels and the sub-major group structure of SOC2000 (from Standard Occupational Classification 2000, vol1, p6)

Skill Level	Sub-major groups of:
Level 4	11 Corporate managers
	21 Science and technology professionals
	22 Health professionals
Level 3	23 Teaching and research professionals
	24 Business and public service professionals
	12 Managers and proprietors in agriculture and services
	31 Science and technology associate professionals
	32 Health and social welfare associate professionals
Level 2	33 Protective service occupations
	34 Culture, media and sports occupations
	35 Business and public service associate professionals
	51 Skilled agricultural trades
	52 Skilled metal and electrical trades
Level 1	53 Skilled construction and building trades
	54 Textiles, printing and other skilled trades
	41 Administrative occupations
	42 Secretarial and related occupations
	61 Caring and personal service occupations
	62 Leisure and other personal service occupations
	71 Sales occupations
	72 Customer service occupations
	81 Process, plant and machine operatives
	82 Transport and mobile machine drivers and operatives
	91 Elementary trades, plant and storage related occupations
	92 Elementary administration and service occupations

APPENDIX 11

Study 4

Principle components analysis for the 'Like me', 'Friends' and 'Class' measures of cheating

Principle components analysis for the 'Like me', 'Friends' and 'Class' measures of cheating

The scenario grouping was tested using principle components analysis. The seven scenario groups were chosen by the researcher based on the kinds of reasons and behaviours that emerged from Studies 1, 2 and 3 (Chapters 3, 4 and 5). The group composition of the scenarios was based on the reasons for cheating given within the scenarios. Whilst it was hypothesised that the relationships between the items were in accordance with those set out by the researcher, there was no evidence to support this. No explicit reference was made to draw respondents' attention to the fact that each scenario was comprised of a behaviour and the reason for cheating. Subjecting the data to factor analysis enabled an exploration of the relationships between scenarios. Each question type ('Like me', 'Friends', 'Class') was analysed separately as the previous analyses identified that respondents perceived them differently.

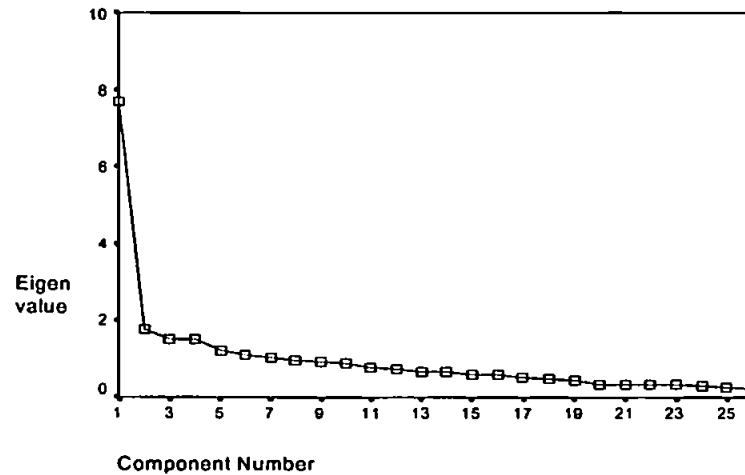
'Like me' data

The 'Like me' data were non-uniformly skewed (some scenarios were positive and some were negative). F-max was above 4. Together, these violations, according to Howell (1992) indicate transformation is required. However, transformation did not improve the distribution of the data. Classical item analysis, as advocated by Kline (1994) as a method of reducing the initial item pool before factor analysis was not employed. This was because only one scenario did not have a significant item-total correlation (Martin) and there was only one scenario with an item-total correlation below .3 (Ben). All other item-total correlations were highly significant at $p < .01$. Reliability analysis was also not helpful in reducing the item pool further. All cronbach alpha coefficients were above .8 regardless of the number of scenarios included! Whilst .8 is a very respectable correlation and indicates high internal consistency, it is probable that the statistic is inflated. This may be a reflection of two factors. Firstly, the variance of the scenarios was small and secondly, it may be possible that the scenarios were perceived by respondents to be paraphrases of one another, thus falsely inflating the alpha co-efficient.

The factorability of the data were assessed using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (.844) and Bartlett's test of sphericity ($p < .01$). Whilst both of these measures indicated factorability, anti-image covariances for one scenario was only just above .5 (Jenny, .503). This item was discarded.

Seven factors were identified with eigenvalues above 1.0. However, inspection of the scree plot suggested only 4 factors accounting for 47% of the variance (see figure 1).

Figure 1. Scree plot for the 'Like me' principle components analysis.



Simple structure for 4 factors was therefore achieved through oblimin rotation (factors related). Factor 1 was labelled a general factor and contained 14 items, 13 of which were pure (loaded only onto factor 1). Factor 2 was labelled 'time'. The three items loading onto this factor were related to not having time to complete set work. All three items were pure loadings. Factor 3 was labelled work avoidance, with four items loading (three pure). Factor 4 was labelled coursework and homework. Items were related to assessments completed in the home. Three of the five items loading on this factor also mentioned the authority figures of parents and teachers. Only one item on this fourth factor was not a pure loading item. The pattern matrix is given in table 1. Varimax rotation was conducted for completeness, however, whilst the factor structure was the same as for the oblimin rotation, the number of pure loading items was far fewer, making interpretation harder. Item labels in table 2 are the names of the people in the scenarios.

Table 1. Factor loadings for oblimen rotation principle components analysis ('Like me')

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Anna	.423			
David	.584			
Tom	.463			
Sam	.587			
Amanda	.596			
Jamie	.714	-.322		
Jack	.479			
Jonah	.662			
Keith	.565			
Matthew	.632			
Fred	.571			
Ginny	.481			
Sally	.391			
Mike	.407			
Emily		.645	.319	
George		.758		
Danielle		.727		
Simon			.672	
Becky			.648	
Gill	.314		.434	
Sue	.441		.385	
Nick				.757
Esther				.616
Ally				.659
Shama				.499
Jessica				.652
Andy	.357			.382

Table 2. Pure sample scenarios reflecting the 'Like me' factor structure

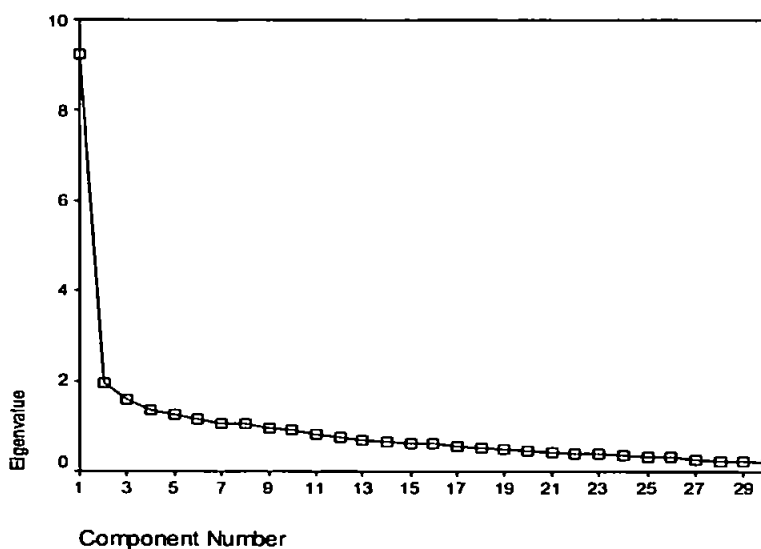
Factor 1 General	Factor 2 Time	Factor 3 Work avoidance	Factor 4 Coursework and homework
David and Ian sit together in tests and pass each other the answers. They say it is OK to do this because it is not a real exam.	Danielle's sister thinks that homework is a waste of time so she doesn't do any.	Simon found an essay someone else left on one of the computers. He thought it was good so he made a few changes and printed it off. He handed it in as his own work.	Esther gets her brother to help her with her Maths homework. Teachers understand that pupils need help from their family with coursework
Tom "thinks smart" during tests. If there are answers on the posters around the room, he writes them on his answer sheet.	If George doesn't have time to do his homework, he borrows his friends and copies it.	Becky finds coursework a drag. She borrows the coursework of a friend from a different School and copies it.	If Nick gets stuck on his GCSEW coursework, his Dad gives him some of the answers. Everyone gets help with their homework.

'Friends' data

The data for the 'Friends' question type were, as the 'Like me' data, non-normal. All of the scenarios bar one (Jessica) were positively skewed and f-max was above 4. Transformation of the data did not improve the distributions. Item-total correlations were all highly significant with only one item falling below .4. Therefore, no items were discarded at this stage of the analysis. As before, reliability analysis did not identify any items for deletion. Factorability of the matrix was confirmed (KMO = .879, Bartlett's test of sphericity <.01). All the anti-image covariances were well above .5. Therefore all 30 items were used in the oblimen principle components analysis. Simple

structure was not achieved as the rotation component matrix failed to converge. Convergence was also not achieved using a varimax rotation. Eight eigenvalues were obtained that were above 1, accounting for 62% of the variance. However, once again, inspection of the scree plot (figure 2) indicated that the slope of the component line levelled out after 4 factors, accounting for 47% of the variance in the data.

Figure 2. Scree plot for the 'Friends' principle components analysis



The component matrix indicated that there was one general factor, which was supported by the high variance accounted for by the first component (31%). The effect of rotation is to 'disperse' the general factor into its component parts.

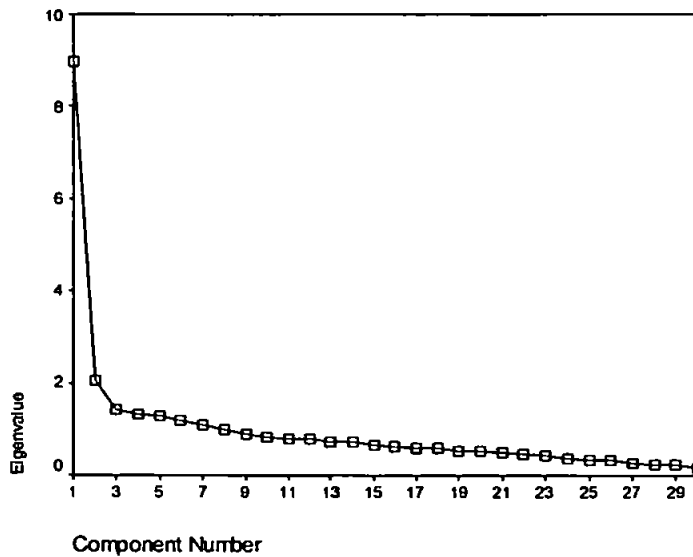
Table 3. Unrotated component matrix for the 'Friends' scale

Scenario	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
ANNA	.527			
GEORGE	.624	-.436		
DANNY	.481	-.535		
DAVID	.515	-.477		
JENNY	.514		.319	
SALLY	.494	-.356	.390	
MIKE	.472			
ANDY	.608			
GILL	.544			
TOM	.553			
AMANDA	.524	.370		
MARTIN	.554	-.386		
SAM	.629		-.309	
SIMON	.544			
GINNY	.607			
NICK	.593			
ESTHER	.622			
JONAH	.564			-.327
ALLY	.576			
JAMIE	.370	.442		
EMILY	.733			
SUE	.593			
MATTHEW	.492			-.413
SHAMA	.535			
BEN	.469		.401	-.442
BECKY	.450		.375	-.412
JACK	.545		.311	
JESS	.453			.331
FRED	.526			.326
KEITH	.566			

'Class' data

Whilst these data had a more normal distribution than the other two question types ('Like me' and 'Friends'), the data for the 'Class' question type were once again, non-normal. However, this time, all scenarios bar two were positively skewed (suggesting the data set was more 'symmetrical' than the others) and the f-max statistic was 2.1 (below maximum of 4). Item-total correlations were highly significant and above .4 for all scenarios except one. Factorability was achieved (KMO = .848, Bartlett's test of sphericity <.01). Anti-image covariances were above .5. An oblimin rotation principle component analysis failed to converge. However, the varimax rotation converged after 13 iterations. As with the 'Like me' data seven factors were identified with eigenvalues above 1 (accounting for 58% of the variance). However, inspection of the scree plot (figure 3) suggested only 4 factors, with the first component explaining 29% of the variance (total variance explained = 46%).

Figure 3. Scree plot for the 'Class' principle components analysis



With four factors specified rotation converged in 21 iterations. Twenty of the 30 items loaded on more than one factor.

The rotated structure was interpreted with 11 scenarios loading on the first factor. This factor was labelled a general factor. However, 8 of the items related to the involvement of another person in the cheating. Factor 2 comprised of eight scenarios which was labelled 'lack of interest'. These scenarios described characters who cheated through laziness or because factors other than education were more important to them. Factor 3, labelled 'test and exam copying' was comprised of 7 scenarios where the characters cheating by some form of copying. The final factor, factor 4 was comprised of 4 scenarios and was labelled 'work avoidance'. These scenarios depicted cheating that involved using short-cuts or getting someone else to do the work. This combination of factor titles suggested that for some scenarios respondents took into account the behaviour (work avoidance) and for others, the reason (lack of interest). The rotated component matrix is given in table 3. Sample items are given in table 4.

Table 3. Factor loadings for varimax rotation principle component analysis ('Class').

Scenario	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Fred	.591			
Jessica	.602			
Jamie	.570			
Esther	.580			
Gill	.451	.322		
Amanda	.475			.391
Tom	.524	.390		
Ginny	.404	.358		
Nick	.564	.312		
Shama	.348		.406	
Jack	.503		.402	
Sam		.613		
Simon		.487		
Jonah		.680		
Danielle		.431	.570	
Andy	.311	.566		
Martin		.641	.336	
Ally	.318	.549		
Emily	.421	.548		
Anna			.520	
Jenny			.623	
Sally			.691	
George		.462	.598	
Keith		.321	.339	
David		.382	.594	
Mike	.336		.466	
Matthew				.669
Ben				.753
Becky				.706
Sue	.465			.375

Table 4. Pure sample scenarios reflecting the 'Class' factor structure.

Factor 1 General (or involvement of another person)	Factor 2 Lack of interest	Factor 3 Test and exam copying	Factor 4 Work avoidance
Esther gets her brother to help her with her Maths homework. Teachers understand that pupils need help from their family with coursework	Simon found an essay someone else left on one of the computers. He thought it was good so he made a few changes and printed it off. He handed it in as his own work.	Before an in-class test, Anna copies the answers or helpful notes onto her pencil case. It's a good way to ensure that she passes.	Ben's sister is a few years above him at school. To save time and effort he copies out her old essays and hands them in as his own.
Fred asks his friend what was in the Biology exam he took last week. Fred has to take the same exam this week. He doesn't mind asking because everyone does it.	Sam always copies the person next to her during lessons. It's easier than working it out for herself.	Jenny smuggled notes into her practice GCSE exam. She said it didn't matter because they weren't real exams.	Becky finds coursework a drag. She borrows the coursework of a friend from a different School and copies it.

APPENDIX 12

Study 4

Adolescent data:

The means and standard deviations for each scenario as a function of question type

APPENDIX 12

Adolescent data

The means and standard deviations for each scenario as a function of question type.

	Like me		Like my friends		Like the people in my class	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Anna	1.27	.53	1.63	.65	2.04	.75
George	1.80	.68	2.32	.69	2.60	.77
Danny	1.31	.59	1.68	.71	2.25	.78
David	1.37	.63	1.62	.74	1.62	.74
Jenny	1.05	.30	1.16	.42	1.48	.60
Sally	1.19	.41	1.54	.67	1.87	.63
Mike	1.55	.63	1.89	.72	2.21	.69
Andy	1.77	.70	1.94	.65	2.28	.72
Gill	1.27	.52	1.38	.59	1.74	.74
Tom	2.42	.92	2.47	.86	2.65	.85
Amanda	1.40	.62	1.58	.68	1.96	.72
Martin	1.04	.20	1.47	.67	1.96	.76
Sam	1.61	.59	1.94	.72	2.39	.80
Simon	1.16	.41	1.32	.58	1.58	.70
Ginny	1.22	.45	1.39	.61	1.78	.73
Nick	1.72	.71	1.86	.66	2.08	.72
Esther	2.11	.82	2.20	.67	2.36	.72
Jonah	1.21	.50	1.46	.68	1.87	.75
Ally	1.85	.67	2.03	.56	2.27	.69
Jamie	1.69	.76	1.82	.78	2.06	.74
Emily	1.61	.62	1.99	.70	2.23	.65
Keith	1.14	.42	1.36	.61	1.73	.62
Sue	1.25	.50	1.38	.59	1.65	.66
Matthew	1.15	.36	1.25	.51	1.58	.70
Shama	1.62	.68	1.73	.63	2.01	.67
Ben	1.20	.45	1.30	.53	1.58	.63
Becky	1.15	.39	1.22	.48	1.47	.62
Jack	1.82	.66	1.94	.69	2.23	.70
Jess	2.80	1.01	2.89	.96	3.05	.92

APPENDIX 13

Study 4

Parental data:

Descriptive statistics for the parental measures of cheating scenarios

APPENDIX 13

Parental data

Descriptive statistics for the parental measures of cheating scenarios

	Severity			Acceptability			
	Mean	SD	Skewness	Mean	SD	Skewness	
Anna	3.3	.62	-.34	Anna	3.4	.56	-.51
George	2.9	.68	-.34	George	3.4	.54	-.13
Danielle	3.2	.60	-.54	Danielle	3.3	.62	-.59
David	3.3	.61	-.24	David	3.5	.55	-.31
Jenny	3.5	.54	-.61	Jenny	2.8	.89	-.18
Sally	3.3	.58	-.35	Sally	3.5	.60	-.82
Mike	3.2	.61	-.52	Mike	3.4	.60	-.58
Andy	2.5	.65	.55	Andy	3.1	.53	-.20
Gillian	3.2	.7	-.62	Gillian	3.3	.56	-.27
Tom	1.9	.73	.40	Tom	3.4	.60	-.37
Amanda	2.9	.64	.08	Amanda	2.2	.78	.33
Martin	3.5	.53	-.47	Martin	1.8	.67	.89
Sam	3.3	.61	-.67	Sam	2.9	.7	-.30
Simon	3.4	.69	-.67	Simon	2.0	.88	.56
Ginny	3.3	.64	-.61	Ginny	3.7	.55	-1.6
Nick	2.4	.73	.36	Nick	2.0	.62	.56
Esther	1.8	.65	.76	Esther	3.5	.57	-.72
Jonah	3.3	.59	-.58	Jonah	3.5	.52	-.24
Ally	2.0	.64	.16	Ally	3.4	.61	-.72
Jamie	2.3	.71	.38	Jamie	3.5	.54	-.52
Emily	3.1	.64	-.26	Emily	3.4	.61	-.63
Keith	3.4	.56	-.32	Keith	3.2	.7	-.77
Sue	3.3	.56	-.04	Sue	3.0	.7	-.18
Matthew	3.5	.57	-.40	Matthew	3.5	.52	-.24
Shama	3.0	.67	-.46	Shama	2.3	.74	.47
Ben	3.3	.63	-.55	Ben	3.2	.67	-.28
Becky	3.3	.66	-.54	Becky	3.0	.78	.03
Jack	3.1	.68	-.36	Jack	3.5	.53	-.29
Jessica	1.9	.84	.60	Jessica	3.4	.73	-1.05
Fred	2.4	.78	.14	Fred	3.2	.69	-.42

APPENDIX 14

Study 4

Means, standard deviations and t statistics for the three psychometric scales

APPENDIX 14

Means, standard deviations and t statistics for the three psychometric scales

Scale	Group	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig.
Parental scale (Child)	Low	37.2	2.5	-20.9	79	<.01
	High	48.2	2.2			
Parental scale (Parent)	Low	32.3	1.5	-21.7	78	<.01
	High	40.7	1.9			
Exam anxiety	Low	31.8	3.9	-18.5	78	<.01
	High	47.1	3.5			

APPENDIX 15

Study 4

Correlation matrix for the range of variables for inclusion in regression analyses

Correlation matrix for the range of variables for inclusion in regression analyses

	Me	Friend	Class	Acc	Sev	Sex	Year	Sch	M occ	F occ	Teach	Child	Parent	Exam
Me	1.0	.802	.449				.185						-.199	.281
Friend	.802	1.0	.550							-.230				.228
Class	.449	.550	1.0											
Acc				1.0	.737					-.214			.316	
Sev				.737	1.0					-.201		.168	.308	
Sex						1.0								
Year	.185						1.0					-.393		
School								1.0						
Mother									1.0	.298	.310			
Father		-.230		-.214	-.201				.298	1.0				
Teacher									.310		1.0			
Child					.168		-.393					1.0	.252	
Parent	-.199			.316	.308							.252	1.0	
Exam	.281	.228												1.0

Significant relationships as tested by Pearson product-moment correlation $p < .05$.

APPENDIX 16

Study 4

Figures depicting the total mean scores for the five measures of cheating

APPENDIX 16

Figures depicting the total mean scores for the five measures of cheating in study 4

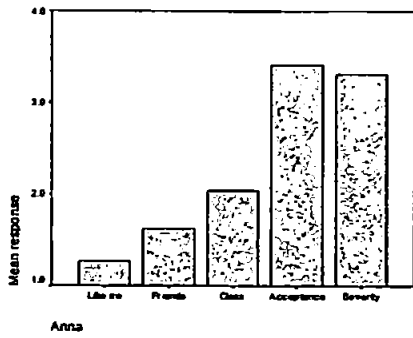


Figure 1. Scenario means for 'Anna'

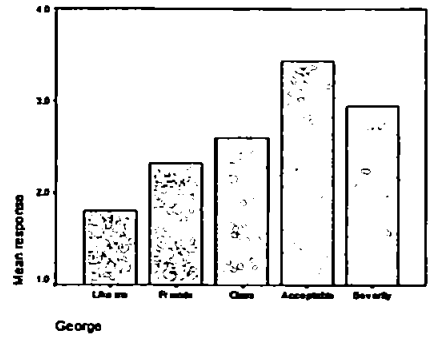


Figure 2. Scenario means for 'George'

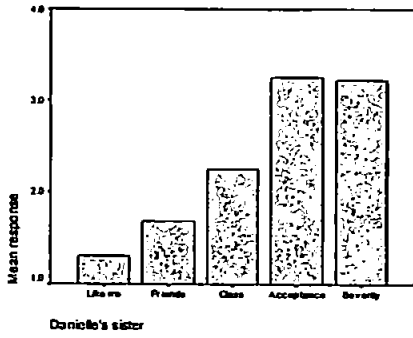


Figure 3. Scenario means for 'Danielle'

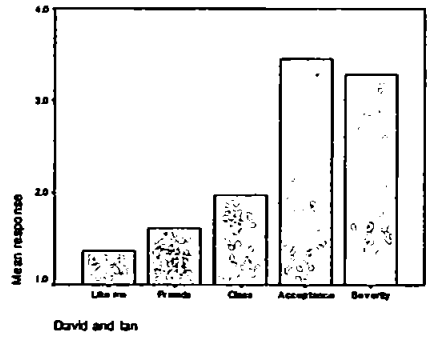


Figure 4. Scenario means for 'David & Ian'

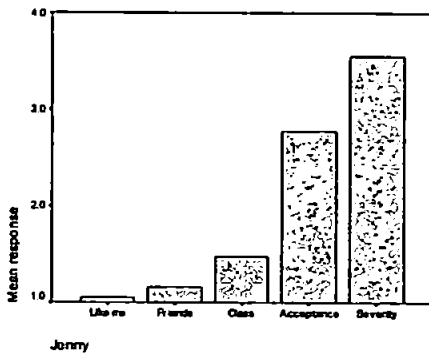


Figure 5. Scenario means for 'Jonny'

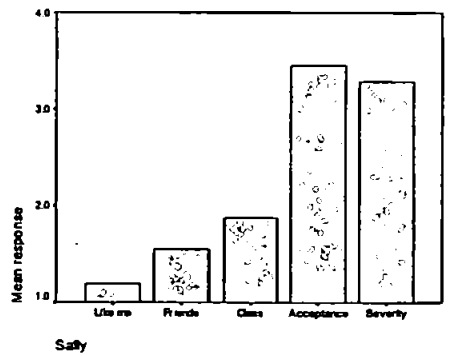


Figure 6. Scenario means for 'Sally'

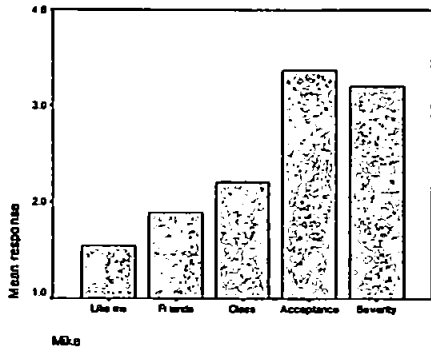


Figure 7. Scenario means for 'Mike'

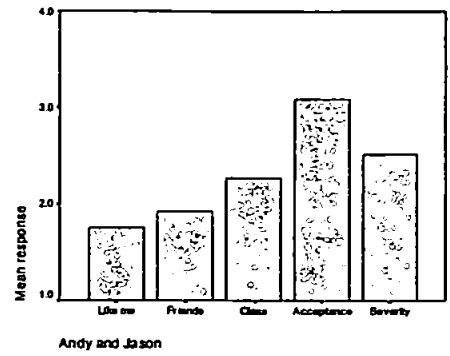


Figure 8. Scenario means for 'Andy & Jason'

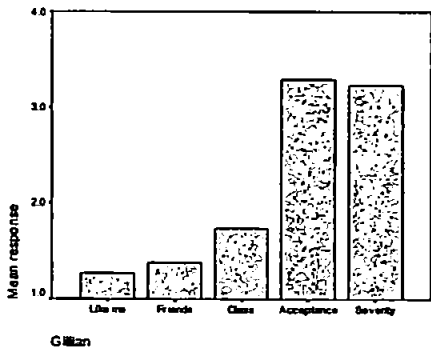


Figure 9. Scenario means for 'Gillian'

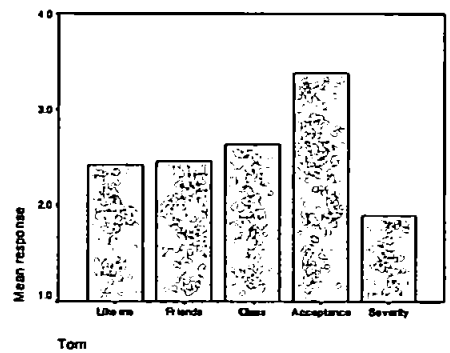


Figure 10. Scenario means for 'Tom'

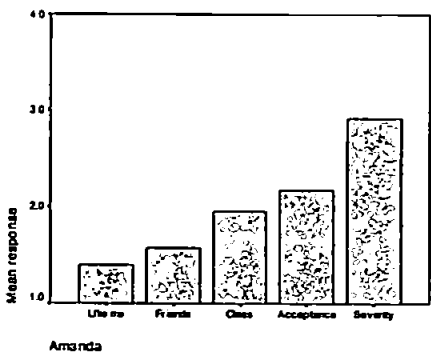


Figure 11. Scenario means for 'Amanda'

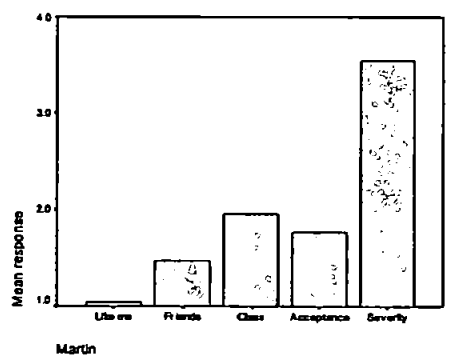


Figure 12. Scenario means for 'Martin'

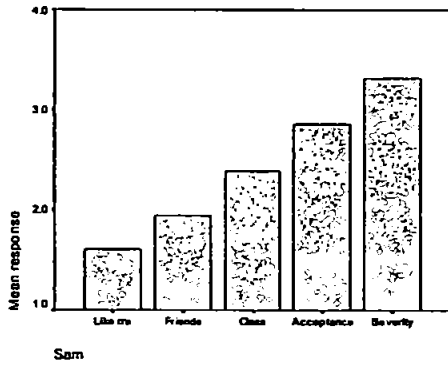


Figure 13. Scenario means for 'Sam'

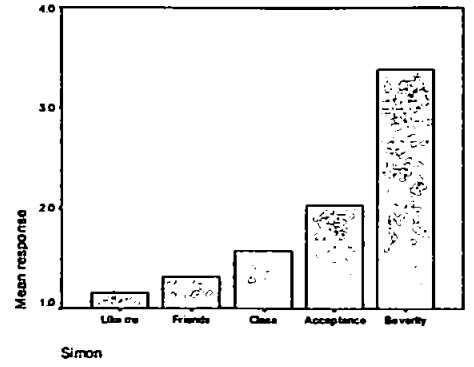


Figure 14. Scenario means for 'Simon'

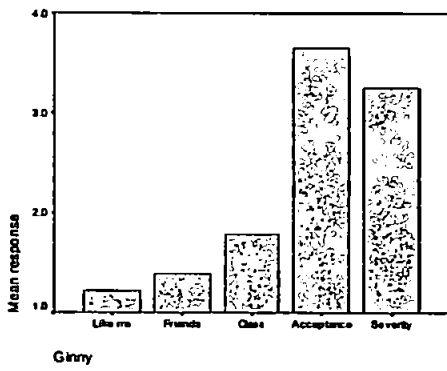


Figure 15. Scenario means for 'Ginny'

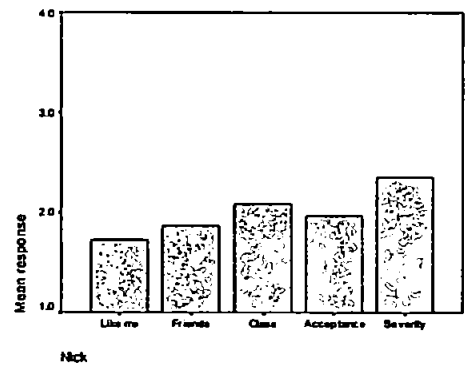


Figure 16. Scenario means for 'Nick'

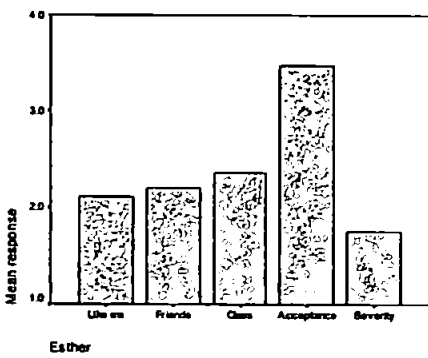


Figure 17. Scenario means for 'Esther'

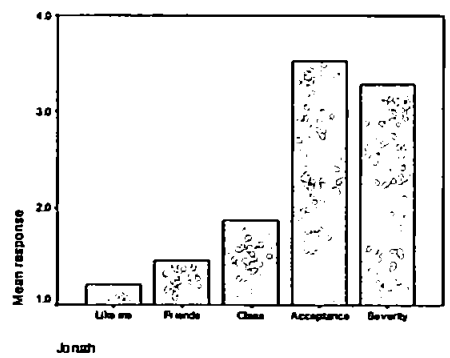


Figure 18. Scenario means for 'Jonah'

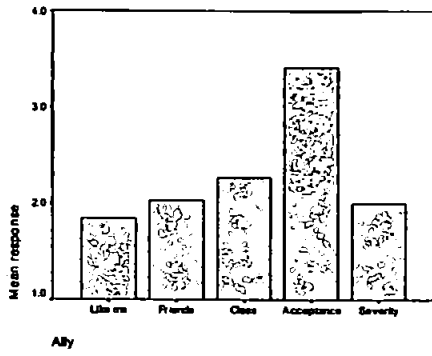


Figure 19. Scenario means for 'Ally'

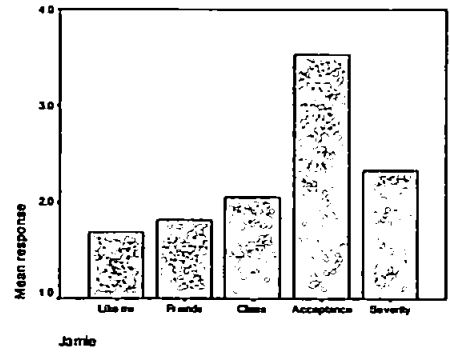


Figure 20. Scenario means for 'Jamie'

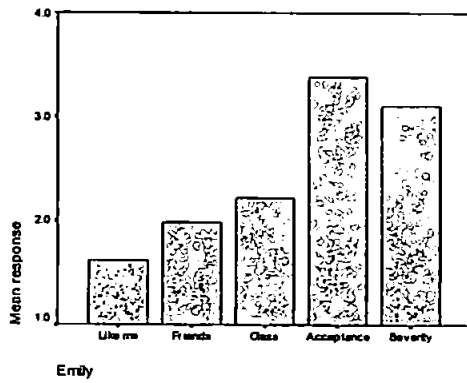


Figure 21. Scenario means for 'Emily'

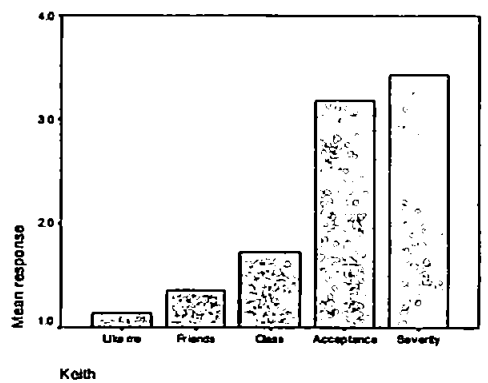


Figure 22. Scenario means for 'Keith'

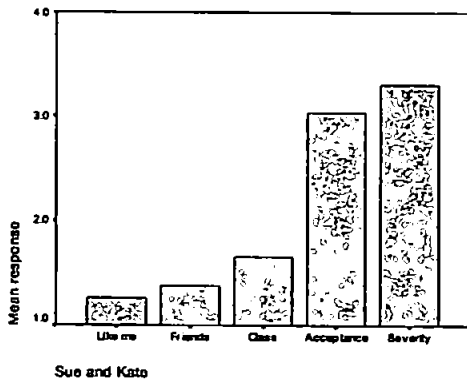


Figure 23. Scenario means for 'Sue & Kate'

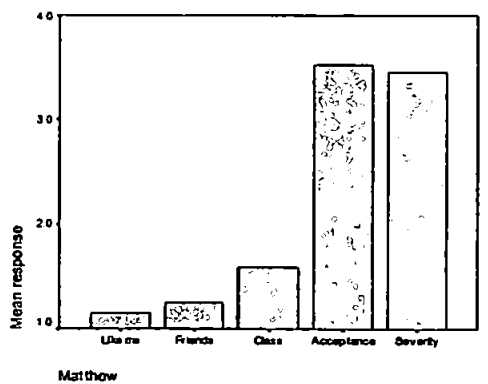


Figure 24. Scenario means for 'Matthew'

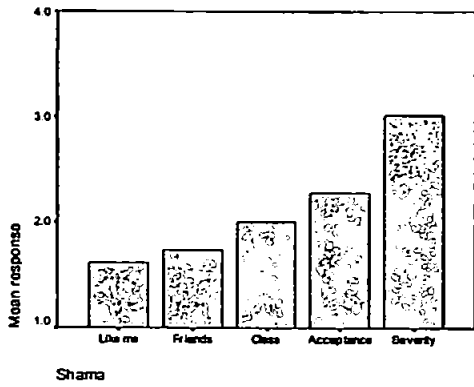


Figure 25. Scenario means for 'Shama'

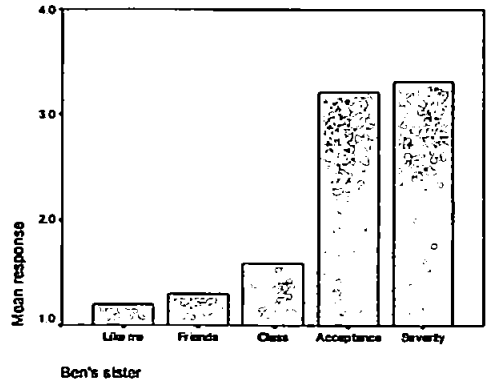


Figure 26. Scenario means for 'Ben'

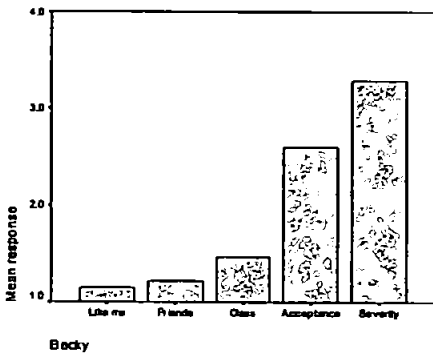


Figure 27. Scenario means for 'Becky'

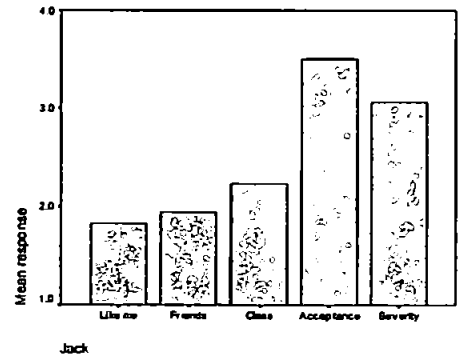


Figure 28. Scenario means for 'Jack'

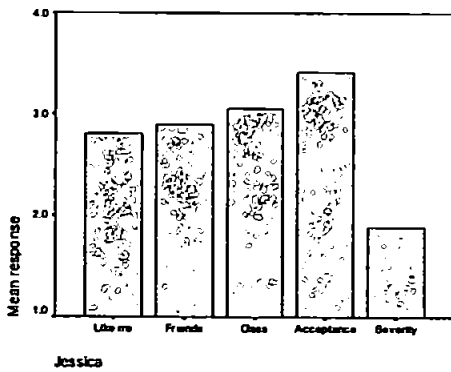


Figure 29. Scenario means for 'Jessica'

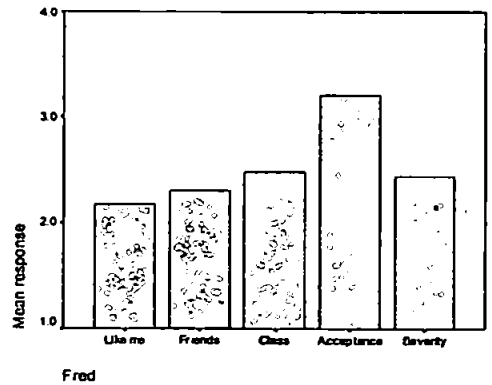


Figure 30. Scenario means for 'Fred'

APPENDIX 17

Study 5

Questionnaire used with teacher respondents

Thank you for agreeing to respond to this short questionnaire. This questionnaire is about general teacher perceptions of cheating **only in years 7 to 11**. It is the final study for a doctoral dissertation on student cheating. Your views and opinions are important. Please answer all of the questions.

This questionnaire is confidential and anonymous. Please use the freepost envelope provided to return the completed questionnaire to the researcher.

If you would like to discuss the questionnaire with Penny Armstead, the researcher, before or after you complete it, you can contact her at: University of Plymouth, Drake Circus, Plymouth, PL4 8AA. Tel: 01752 233157. E-mail: parmstead@plym.ac.uk

The school where you teach (please tick one):

Co-educational

- Comprehensive
 Grammar
 Private

Single Sex Male

- Comprehensive
 Grammar
 Private

Single Sex Female

- Comprehensive
 Grammar
 Private

Religious affiliation of your school (if any) : _____

About you. Are you: Male or Female

What is your main teaching subject

How long have you been a secondary school teacher?

What is the title of any non-teaching role that you hold within the school (e.g., key stage 3 co-ordinator)

1. In your time as a teacher, do you think that the prevalence of cheating has increased, decreased or stayed the same? Place a cross on the line to represent where your opinion lies.

Large decrease

Stayed the same

Large increase

--	--	--

2. What is the reason(s) for your answer to the question above?

3. What, in your opinion prompts, causes or influences students to cheat?

What, in your opinion, prompts causes or influences students not to cheat?

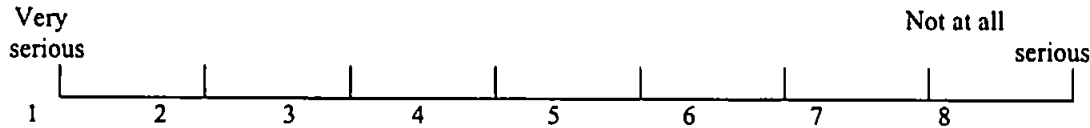
1	1
2	2
3	3

4. Please fill in the table below with a Y for yes and an N for No.

[If your school does not stream the year groups, respond for high ability and low ability students] Please do not fill in 'Q5' until you get to question 5. Whilst Y and N are rather blunt ways of measuring responses to these behaviours, please only use Y or N. However, it is appreciated that responses can be dependent upon other factors.

Types of cheating	Q5	In a year 7 bottom set would you consider this to be cheating?	In a year 7 top set would you consider this to be cheating?	In a year 9 bottom set would you consider this to be cheating?	In a year 9 top set would you consider this to be cheating?	In a year 11 bottom set would you consider this to be cheating?	In a year 11 top set would you consider this to be cheating?
1. Copying from another student							
2. Asking another student for the answers to questions							
3. Looking at the work of others							
4. Using material which has come directly from a text book (or other source) and presenting it as the student's own							
5. Marking a piece of work and changing the answers							
6. Lying to a teacher							
7. Not following the rules of sporting games							
8. Getting help from family or friends with work							
9. The teacher providing greater help than the student should be given							
10. Sitting back and letting others in the group do the work whilst sharing in the final marks							

5. In general, how serious to you think the behaviours in the previous table are? Please go back and fill in the grey column labelled Q5. Please use the following scale:



6. Please place a 1 next to the situation in which you think cheating occurs most frequently, a 2 next to the 2nd most frequent situation and a three next to the 3rd most frequent cheating situation and so on up to 5. Please do not assign tied ranks

In-class tests	Homework	Exams (SAT/GCSE)	Classwork	Coursework
----------------	----------	------------------	-----------	------------

In which situation is cheating the most serious? Please place a 1 next to the situation in which you think cheating is most serious, a 2 next to the 2nd most serious cheating situation and a 3 next to the 3rd most serious cheating situation and so on up to 5. Please do not assign tied ranks

class tests	Homework	Exams (SAT/GCSE)	Classwork	Coursework
-------------	----------	------------------	-----------	------------

In your opinion, which year group cheats most frequently? Please assign ranks to the year groups with a 1 for the year group that in your opinion cheats most frequently and so on to a 5 for the year group that in your opinion cheats least frequently. Please do not assign tied ranks.

Year 7	Year 8	Year 9	Year 10	Year 11
--------	--------	--------	---------	---------

Please briefly give your answer to the following question: **Is cheating in secondary school wrong?**

Agree Disagree

Students today feel more pressured to achieve and are more likely to cheat as a result

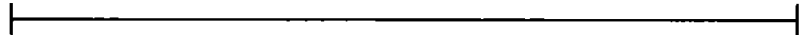


In your opinion, will the following situations lead to an increase or decrease in cheating? Place a mark on the line which is closest to your opinion.

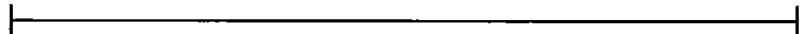
I think this will affect the likelihood of cheating by students, parents and/or staff....

Decrease Increase

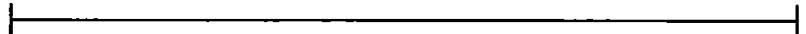
Able students being entered for higher exams even if their teacher does not agree



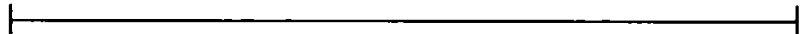
An increased amount of student testing for student performance and league table information



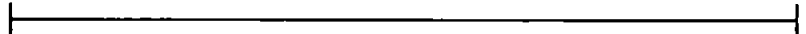
Performance management that puts pressure on teachers to get the statistics or outcomes they need



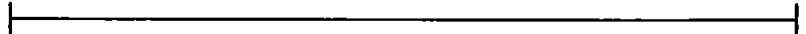
Telling a student that they are capable of slightly more than their achievements suggest, as a way of increasing performance



Parents taking an interest in the work that their children bring home



Borderline pass/fail students being targeted to improve pass rates



Students who are struggling, being encouraged to get extra tuition before SAT's/ GCSE's



**Thank you for participating.
Please complete your voucher choice details overleaf**

£2 Voucher choice

Please indicate your first and second choices

- WH Smith**
- Woolworths**
- Early Learning Centre**
- Waterstones**
- Boots**
- Threshers**

Do not forget to enclose your address sticker!

Thank you for participating. Your help is greatly appreciated.

APPENDIX 18

Study 5

Number of yes and no response given by teachers as a function of ability/year group

Number of yes and no response given by teachers as a function of ability/year group

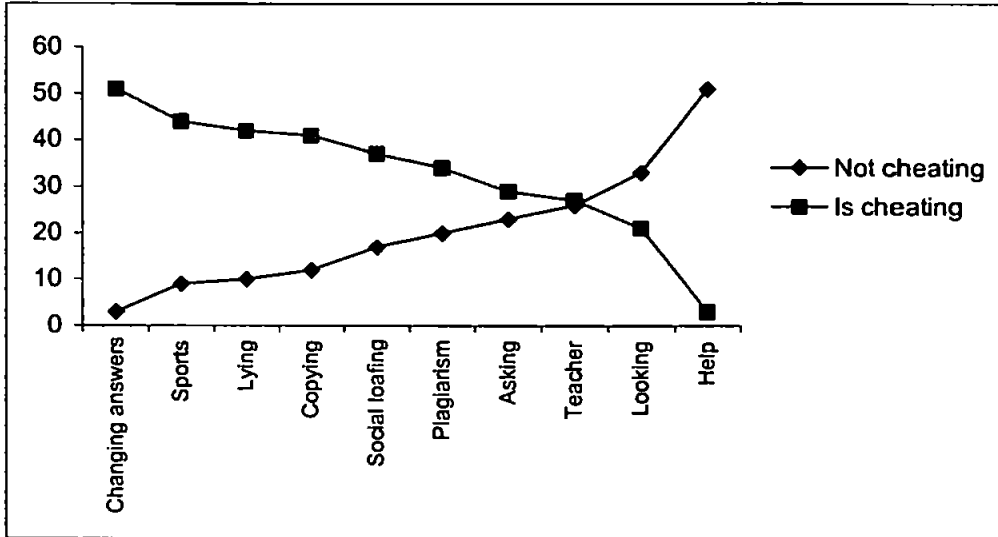


Figure 1. Year 7 (bottom)

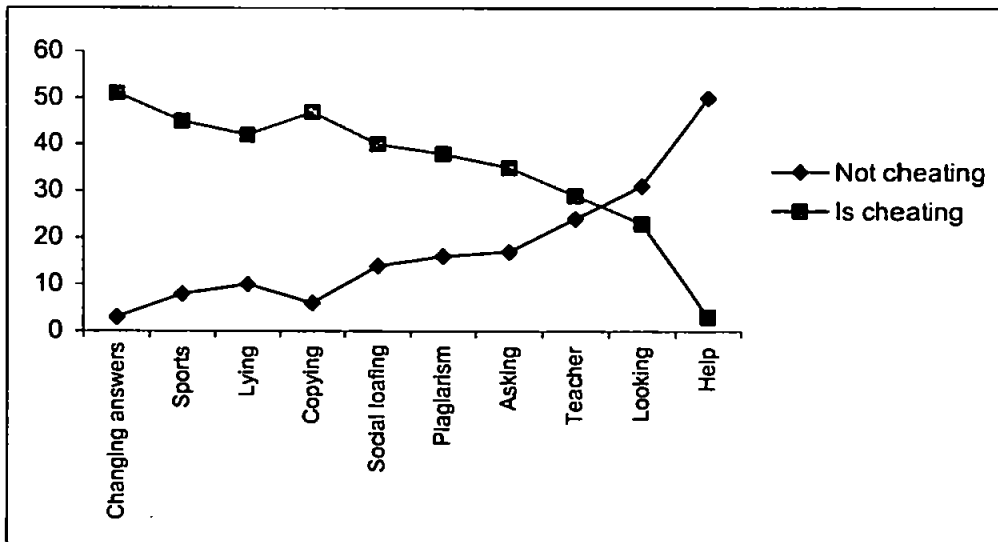


Figure 2. Year 7 (top)

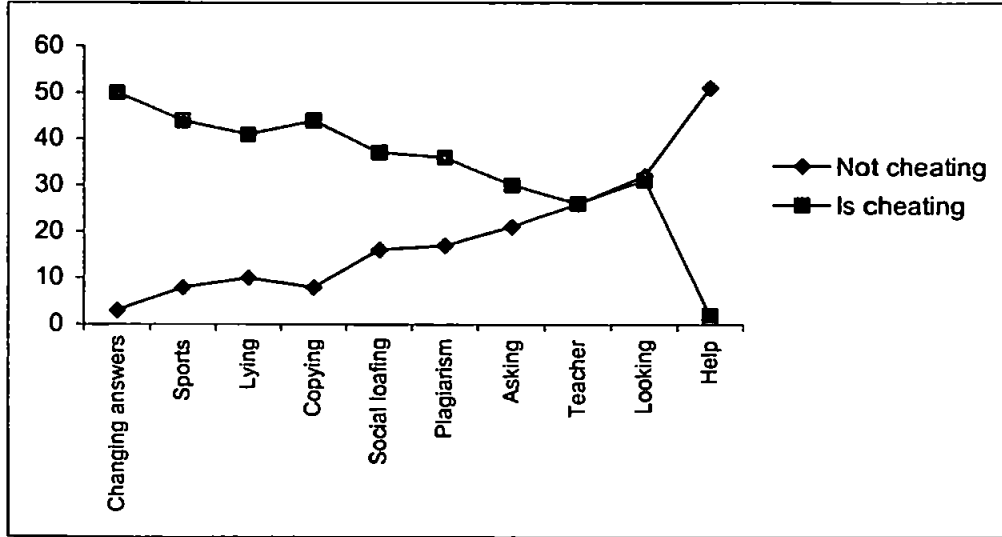


Figure 3. Year 9 (bottom)

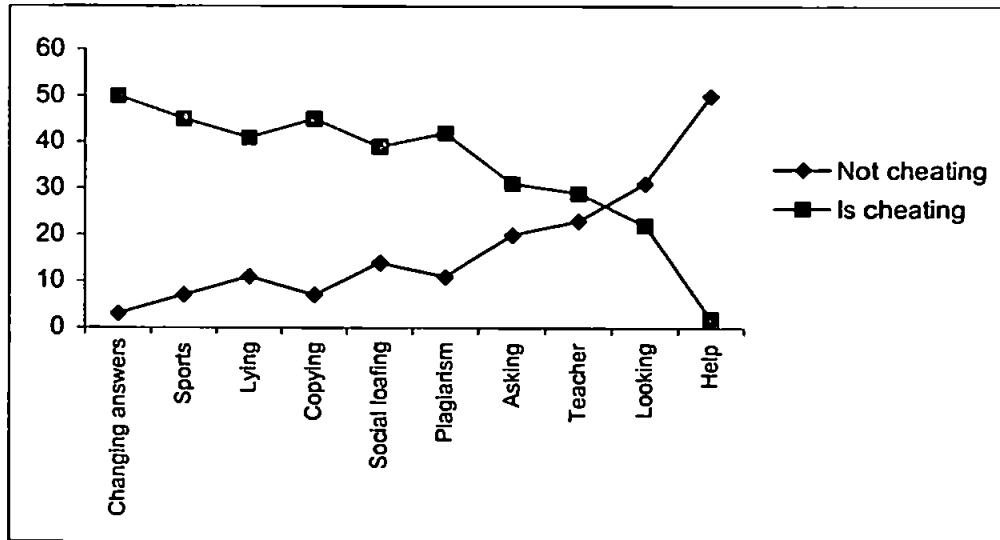


Figure 4. Year 9 (top)

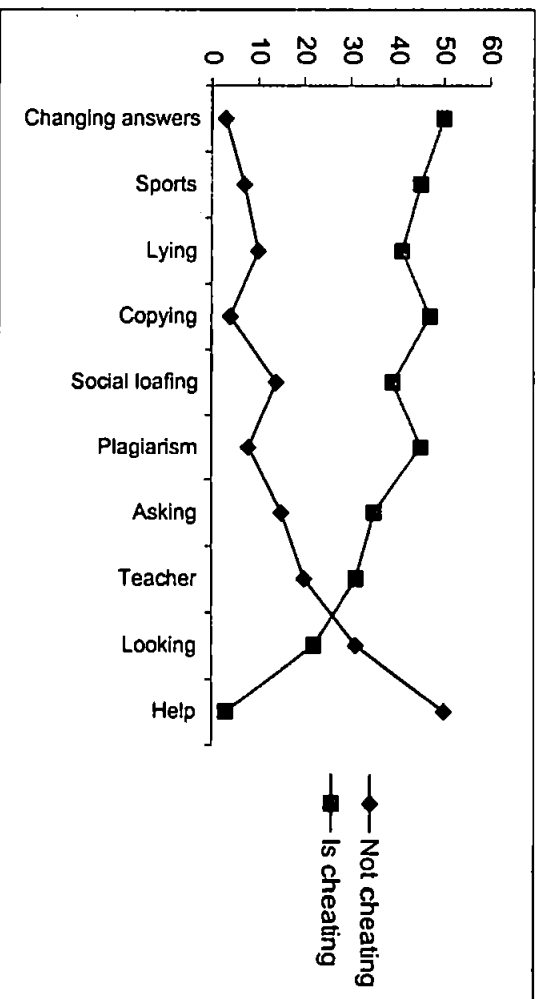


Figure 5. Year 11 (bottom)

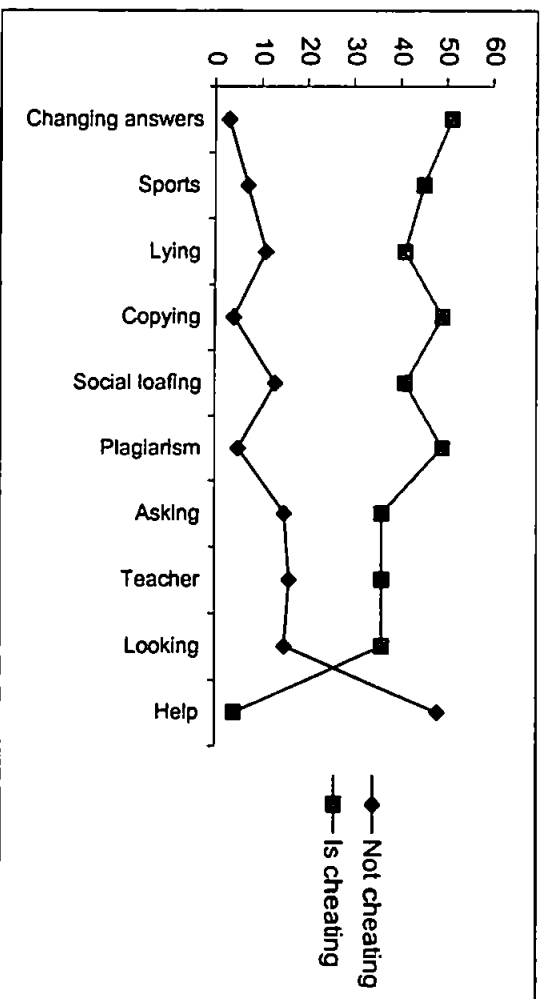


Figure 6. Year 11 (top)

APPENDIX 19

Study 5

**Figures depicting the number of 'not cheating' responses across all year/ability groups as a function of
behaviour**

Figures depicting the number of 'not cheating' responses across all year/ability groups as a function of behaviour

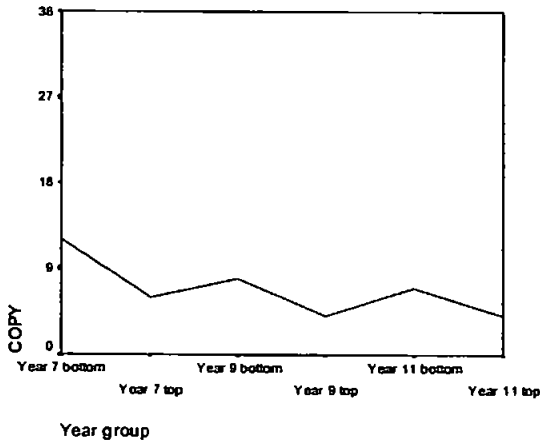


Figure 1. Copying work

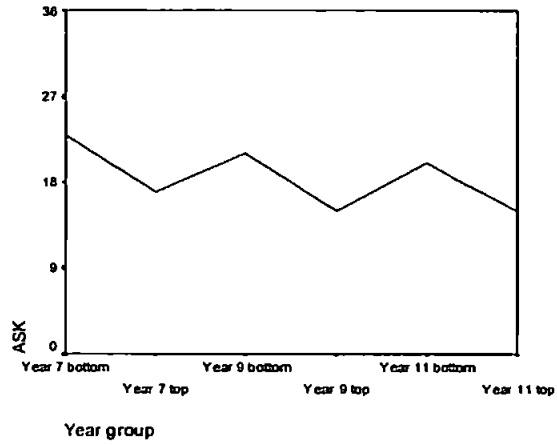


Figure 2. Asking for answers

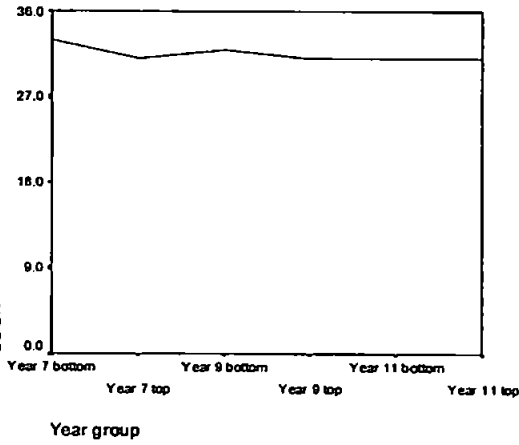


Figure 3. Looking at the work of others'

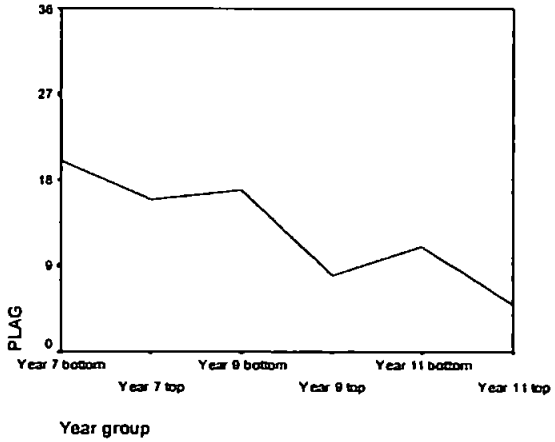
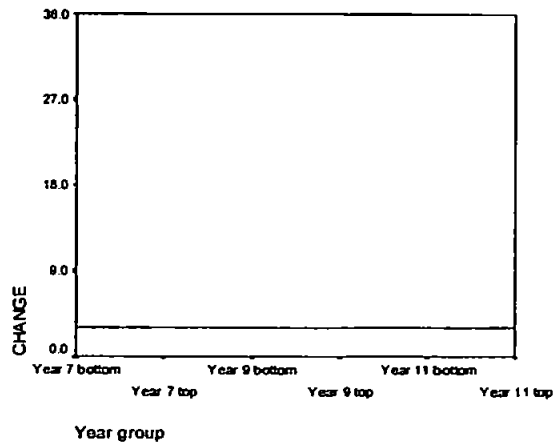


Figure 4. Plagiarism

Figure 5. Changing answers



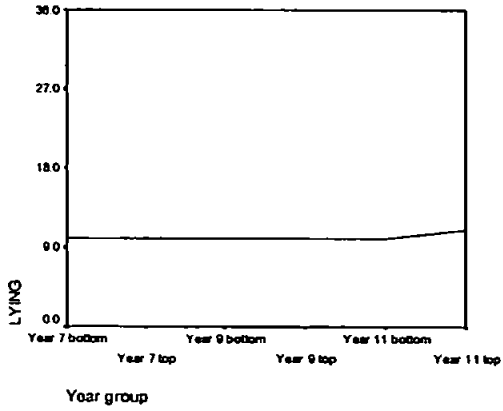


Figure 6. Lying to a teacher

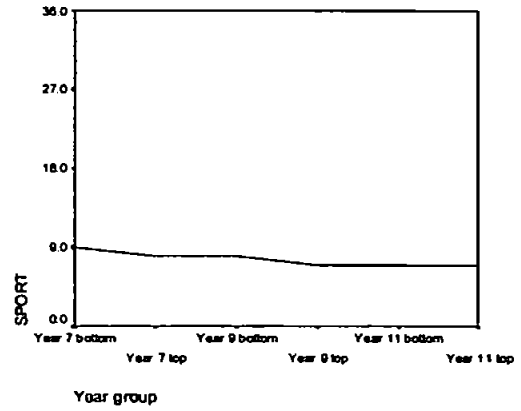


Figure 7. Breaking sporting rules

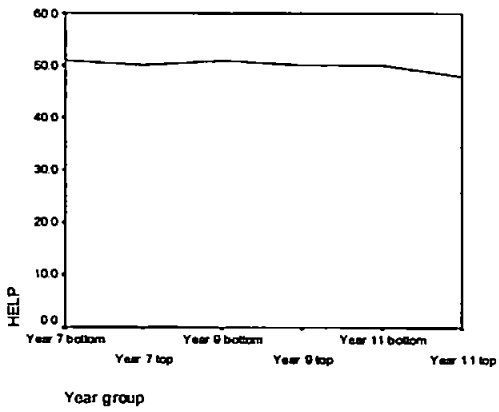


Figure 8. Help from friends and family

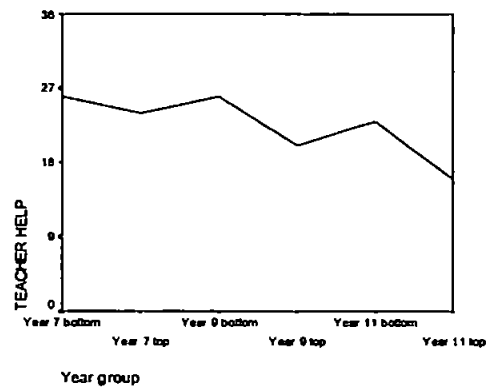


Figure 9. Extra help from teachers

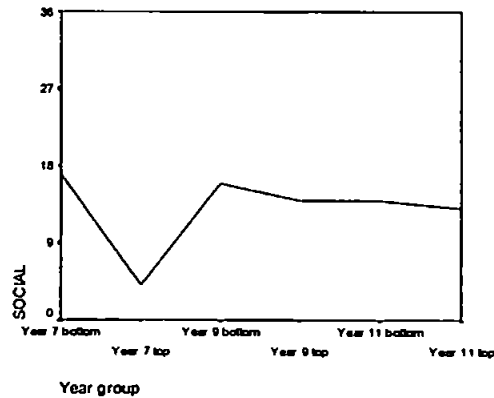


Figure 10. Social loafing in group work

APPENDIX 20**Study 5****Prompts, causes and influences of cheating**

- (i) Prompts, causes and influences to cheat ... page 682**
- (ii) Prompts, causes and influences NOT to cheat ... page 685**

APPENDIX 20 (i)

Prompts, causes and influences to cheat

No.	Reason
001	1 Wanting to impress others. 2 Wanting higher marks. 3
002	1 Fear. 2 Laziness. 3 Pressure for targets from parents/teachers and government.
003	1 Peer pressure. 2 Parental pressure. 3 Teacher pressure.
004	1 Pressure to do well. 2 Laziness. 3 Fear of underachieving.
005	1 Desire to be seen to do well. 2 Less worried about consequences of being caught. 3 Crowded classrooms.
006	1 Opportunity. 2 Pressure to succeed. 3 Competition with fellow students.
007	1 Fear of failure. 2 Lack of preparation. 3 Lack of checking.
008	1 Pressure to do <u>too</u> well. 2 Not revising before a test. 3 Not understanding the work.
009	1 Fear of failure. 2 Laziness. 3 Amoral.
010	1 Lack of knowledge. 2 Laziness. 3 Lack of detailed checking by teacher.
011	1 Greater opportunity because of less rigid types of testing. 2 Knowledge that they can put pressure on teachers not to fail them. 3
012	1 Laziness. 2 Ease of cheating. 3 Fear of getting into trouble
013	1 To achieve at a higher level in examinations 2 Short cut to learning. 3 Fear of failure.
014	1 Not having done h/w. 2 Not having revised for test. 3 Lack of confidence. 4 Fear of failure.
015	1 Opportunity with coursework. 2 Internet usage. 3 Pressure on students to achieve grades.
016	1 Personal desire not to fail. 2 External pressure to succeed (peers, parents etc.). 3 Laziness!
017	1 Laziness. 2 Desire to be praised/seen to be doing well. 3 Lack of attention when work is set – don't understand task.
018	1 Desire for success. 2 Increase in high stakes assessment. 3
019	1 Parental pressure/Peer pressure. 2 Anxiety about under-achieving/setting. 3 Failure to prepare.
020	1 Desire to do well/impress teacher + parents etc. 2 Fear of failure. 3 Lack of preparation.
021	1 Home conditions. 2 Academic ability. 3 Peer group pressure.

022	1 Lack of preparation. 2 Lack of confidence. 3 Need to do well.
023	1 Lack of revision for tests – wants to appear if they had revised as asked. 2 Want to achieve at the same standard as their peer group. 3 Can't be bothered thinking for themselves, will copy others' answers.
024	1 The one example I can think of involved stealing coursework because student was behind with work. 2 3
025	1 Not wanting to appear ignorant. 2 Wanting to pass exams. 3 Not enough time to do work properly.
026	1 Laziness 2 Fear of punishment e.g. detention. 3
027	1 Being lazy. 2 Not wanting to come last. Peer group pressure 3 Not wanting to get into trouble.
028	1 Fear – of not achieving (parental pressure) 2 Not wanting to look silly and showing they haven't revised (guilt). 3 To show that they can without being caught.
029	1 Peer pressure - <u>to look good</u> 2 Fear of failure! 3
030	1 Cannot do the work 2 Lazy. 3
031	1 Expectation of them from others. 2 Too lazy to learn. 3
032	1 Wish to be seen to do well. 2 'Fear' of failure. 3 Laziness.
033	1 Pressure to succeed. 2 Coursework (opportunity). 3 Easy to do!
034	1 Lack of confidence in their own ability. 2 Poor organisation. 3 Not to be seen to fail in front of peers/parents.
035	1 Anxiety to do well. 2 3
036	1 Pressure from parents/ teachers. 2 To keep up with the group. 3 Fear of being 'told off'.
037	1 Too much pressure. 2 Ease/opportunity for cheating. 3 If they are unsure of what is expected of them.
038	1 Laziness. 2 Fear of parents/expectations. 3 Arrogance that they will get away with it.
039	1 Pressure to show peers & teachers are capable. 2 Pressure from home. 3 Laziness.
040	1 Panic. 2 Sudden realisation that they haven't done enough. 3 Laziness.
041	1 Lack of ability. 2 Lack of comprehension of tasks set. 3 Lack of understanding or agreement that cheating is wrong.
042	1 Not understanding work. 2 Lack of teacher control. 3 Pressure to score.
043	1 Laziness. 2 Lack of confidence. 3 Lack of support/time.
044	1 Laziness. 2 Poor time management to deadlines. 3
045	1 Pressure from parents/teachers etc. 2 Low self-esteem and ambition. 3 Peer pressure – 'street cred'.
046	1 Bravado. 2 Ignorance. 3 Chance to be seen in a better light.

047	1 Fear of failure. 2 Lack of understanding of work. 3 Buck system.
048	1 External pressures. 2 Unwillingness to do a re-test. 3 Laziness.
049	1 Not having done the work when due. 2 3
050	1 Lack of confidence. 2 Lack of effort. 3 Fear of failure.
051	1 Fear of failure. 2 Peer pressure – lazy. 3 High expectations.
052	1 Fear of not doing well. 2 Pressure – lack of time, bad organisation. 3 Laziness – taking the easy route.
053	1 Have not done the work – panic! 2 Wish to get a higher mark. 3 Think their neighbour must know better
054	1 To get good results with little/no effort. 2 To avoid getting moved down a set. 3 To avoid being 'shown up' – many pupils reluctant to address own poor performance/progress.
055	1 Lack of confidence in their ability. 2 Fear of being wrong. 3 Fear of looking silly/getting a poor score.

APPENDIX 20 (ii)

Prompts, causes and influences NOT to cheat

No.	Reason
001	1 Wanting to achieve for self. 2 3
002	1 Morality. 2 Diminishes self esteem. 3 Fear of being caught.
003	1 Self confidence. 2 Academic ability. 3 Not caring if they succeed or not.
004	1 Work ethic. 2 Fear of being caught. 3
005	1 Honesty. 2 Clear warnings before the test or exam. 3 Spaced out desks.
006	1 Not given opportunity. 2 Teacher/parent training. 3 May get caught.
007	1 Integrity. 2 Good organisation and preparedness. 3 Knowing they're likely to be found out.
008	1 Punishment. 2 Letting the pupil know they are only cheating themselves. 3 Confidence in own abilities.
009	1 Fear of being caught. 2 Moral principles. 3
010	1 Fear of getting caught. 2 Honesty. 3 The knowledge that teacher checks work.
011	1 Knowledge that standards in tests/examinations are absolute. 2 3
012	1 Fear of getting caught. 2 Respect for teachers and parents. 3 Not afraid of hard work.
013	1 Desire to achieve for oneself. 2 Lack of opportunity. 3 Fear of being caught.
014	1 Morality – sense of. 2 Fear of being caught. 3
015	1 Moral reasons – wrong. 2 Organisation of examinations and coursework organisation. 3 Teachers alert – to internet answers.
016	1 Morals recognising right/wrong. 2 Fear of being caught and punished. 3 Personal pride in own achievements.
017	1 Conscientious student. 2 Fear of punishment/being caught. 3 Mature attitude – they know it won't help in the long term.
018	1 Risk of being caught. 2 Integrity. 3
019	1 Self esteem. 2 Pride in own work. 3 Realistic expectations.
020	1 Ability in the subject – no need to cheat. 2 Desire to do well on own merits. 3 Threat of punishment.
021	1 Parental support. 2 Value of doing. 3 Desire to succeed on ability.
022	1 Self respect. 2 Respect for the system. 3 Preparation.

023	1 Losing marks if found cheating. 2 Shame of being discovered. 3 Not given the chance to cheat eg. Isolated during a test, no equipment on desk during test.
024	1 Children are in this respect surprisingly moral. 2 3
025	1 They know or understand the work. 2 Misguided sense of honesty. 3
026	1 pride in their <u>own</u> work. 2 basic principles of honesty 3
027	1 Conscience 2 Repercussions 3
028	1 Fear of being caught 2 Too much guilt. 3 Sense of justice.
029	1 Home background 2 Teacher's influence regarding fair play. 3
030	1 Brainy. 2 Not lazy. 3
031	1 Moral upbringing. 2 Fear of getting caught 3
032	1 'Fear' of consequences 2 Sense of fair play 3 No need!
033	1 Self-respect 2 Fear of being caught 3 Interest in the work!
034	1 Part of educational culture. 2 Fear of being caught 3 Determination to show own ability.
035	1 Strict control by teacher 2 3
036	1 Sanctions if found out. 2 Being given work at their level. 3
037	1 Clear guidelines about conduct of the test. 2 Reminder of consequences. 3 Sense of honour.
038	1 Fear of getting caught. 2 Fear of repercussions for their grades. 3 Peer pressure.
039	1 Personal reward/satisfaction. 2 College rewards. 3 Willingness to show teacher & peers they are fully capable.
040	1 Sense of right & wrong. 2 Want to "do it properly". 3 To achieve through <u>their own ability/end</u> .
041	1 Good preparation for the task in hand . 2 Enjoyment of work. 3 Ability and confidence.
042	1 Fear of discovery. 2 Home background. 3 Indifference to results.
043	1 Conscientiousness. 2 Confidence. 3 Expectations of others (adults).
044	1 Ethics. 2 Fear of getting caught. 3
045	1 Ethos of school. 2 High self-esteem. 3 Need to succeed (qualifications-wise).
046	1 Fear. 2 Disgrace. 3 Honesty.
047	1 Clear supervision. 2 Clear guidelines re. cheating. 3 Confidence in own knowledge.

048	<p>1 Reduction of factors dependent on test results (e.g. general standard of work will also be a factor in set changes).</p> <p>2 Awareness of consequences.</p> <p>3</p>
049	<p>1 Self-esteem.</p> <p>2 Pride in own work.</p> <p>3 Sense of fair play.</p>
050	<p>1 Confidence.</p> <p>2 Competitiveness.</p> <p>3 Hardworking.</p>
051	<p>1 Morals.</p> <p>2 Self-belief.</p> <p>3 Revision.</p>
052	<p>1 Pride/confidence in their own work.</p> <p>2 Fear of consequences if found out.</p> <p>3 Realisation that nothing is gained in the long run.</p>
053	<p>1 Hard work so know the answer.</p> <p>2 Fear of the consequences.</p> <p>3 Sense of honour.</p>
054	<p>1 At ks4 many pupils feel more responsibility for own learning – wish to know the reality of their performance.</p> <p>2 Many pupils in years 8/9 are complacent i.e. don't care what grades they achieve.</p> <p>3</p>
055	<p>1 Teacher/pupil relationship that it's ok to be wrong.</p> <p>2 Self-confidence.</p> <p>3</p>

APPENDIX 21

Study 5

Content analysis of the question 'Is cheating in school wrong' for the teacher respondents

Content analysis of the question 'Is cheating in school wrong' for the teacher respondents

Group 1. Cheating is wrong and it reflects on the moral character

Yes! Students need to learn early on that cheating in any form is unacceptable in life.

Yes. Secondary school is the last place before pupils enter the real world. If they are cheating they are not going to be productive in society.

Yes. It devalues education.

Yes. If a student has not got the self-discipline to do his/her own work – they are going to 'get by' socially as well.

Yes, as children may take the attitude into adulthood.

Yes. Cheating is always wrong.

Yes if it is a substitution for progression and/or can instil an attitude of laziness/poor effort/poor organisation for future studies/life.

Yes – cheat now will continue through late career.

Cheating, at all levels, has got to be discouraged and students made to realise that it never 'pays'.

Cheating in any circumstance is wrong.

Totally and it is actively discouraged in ***** – certainly within the MFL Dept.

Group 2. Cheating is wrong when it occurs in certain contexts with various detrimental effects

Yes – if we define 'cheating' as presenting some work as if you understand it when you do not.

Yes, if the student is trying to get a reward for something that's not their work.

Yes. "dishonestly gaining profit or advantage".

Yes, as it doesn't help individuals to make their own progress.

Yes if it affects a student's future or another student's position.

Yes, in formal assessments in class or at national exam levels.

I believe cheating in secondary school to be wrong if it is done because the student is unwilling to use his own brain.

Yes, particularly if the student is placed in an inappropriate class because of it.

Yes because children don't learn if they cheat.

Yes. The individual child should work independently, unless specified.

Group 3. Cheating can be wrong depending on the circumstances and reasons for cheating are important

Depends on the definition, working smart is ok; learning from others is ok, taking things which aren't is wrong. (*sic*).

Yes – if related to examinations and tests. The rest of the answer depends on your definition of 'cheating' – and to what end cheating is directed.

Yes. (some of the actions in Q4 may be productive in certain circumstances – and so wouldn't be cheating).

Cheating is wrong. Many of the activities that you describe as cheating in a different context would be considered as ok – e.g. use of text book would depend upon the test (or text) as to whether copying is cheating.

Depends on your definition – seeking help from peers or parents is not cheating – but taken to a greater degree it is.

This depends on the type of cheating and the definition of cheating. Also on factors and circumstances in which the cheating takes place. According to my own definition of cheating, yes it is wrong.

This is v. Subject specific. In English you can't pass someone else's literacy standard off as your own – too much teacher knowledge.

It is simply not an issue. So much learning today is co-operative and whole-class based.

It depends if you cheat all the time – who are you cheating???

Yes. Asking for help on how to approach a task means that you should never need to cheat.

By definition yes – but it depends on your definition of "cheating"

Yes – it does not show child's ability + knowledge. Nevertheless helping each other (if this is cheating) can be useful in certain circumstances.

Your definition of cheating is different from mine. Sharing classwork/discussing how to do things is ok. Cheating in tests, exams & coursework is wrong.

Given the pressure to raise achievement at GCSE and A-level it is inevitable. Yes of course it is wrong.

Yes cheating is wrong but the reasons for this behaviour need to be explored.

Yes, but we need to consider why students cheat and try to address this.

Yes, it is. It is wrong because it may hide students' lack of comprehension or abilities and exacerbate a difficult situation – it is wrong because it promotes laziness.

APPENDIX 22

Study 5

Reasons given by teacher respondents for a perceived no change in cheating frequency

APPENDIX 22

Reasons given by teacher respondents for a perceived no change in cheating frequency

Reasons given for a perceived no change in cheating frequency	Item score	Subject
I have no evidence that subjects more open to 'cheating' are improving faster than subjects dependant upon a final examination, (e.g. maths).	45	Maths
From observations.	49	Other
I know how much cheating went on when I was at school.	49	Other
Unable to find the room to sit one pupil /desk for school exams	49	Maths
I have not noticed a difference in the conduct of my assessments	49	Languages
No real <u>evidence</u> to show any change.	49	Other
I've not been teaching long.	50	Science
Experience, marking scripts.	50	Humanities
?	50	Science
Children in many ways are the same.	50	Humanities
In maths I don't recognise a change.	50	Maths
Observation of students.	50	Humanities
Observation of students and frequency/prevalence with which h/w is copied etc.	50	Science
Have only taught for 18 months – have had about the same number of cheating incidents every term.	50	Languages
Cheating isn't something I've really encountered much – not easy to do in English.	50	English
There isn't a lot of prevalence of cheating in my subject – nature of the subject makes it obvious if students have cheated.	50	English
I have not encountered anything to suggest a change has taken place.	50	Maths
I don't think I have had enough experience to be able to say what it was like compared to now.	50	Science
I came across a similar number of cases of cheating now as I did when I first started teaching.	50	Science
Because children cheat very rarely, if ever.	50	Humanities
I have seen no evidence to	50	Maths
In my opinion, the occasions when cheating can take place has neither decreased or increased.	50	English
I have seen no evidence of any change.	50	Other
Never been a serious problem – low level concern that has always been there – no indication of change.	50	Science
There has always been some students who under pressure of deadlines etc will resort to copying etc.	50	Other
Monitoring and observation of student tasks and tests.	50	English
No increase/decrease of incidents to investigate	50	Humanities

a. The prevalence of cheating is a function of the standards of the institution I have taught in a stable college for 30 years.	50	Science
b. The community of the college has remained largely the same - rural. I left secondary school 8 years ago - I remember peers cheating then, equal to the pupils that I am aware cheat now.	50	Humanities
Although the seriousness of the offence may now be greater (more tasks are assessed for examination purposes) the nature of young people has not significantly changed.	50	Maths
Because of what I have seen in the classroom and in invigilation.	50	Humanities
I have no evidence to suggest that any change has taken place in that time for better or worse.	50	Maths
Cheating observed has neither increased nor decreased.	51	Humanities
I'm basing this on my class and this is because they are given the same opportunities in & out of assessments.	51	Languages
We were much more sly about cheating in our days so although they may try more now they don't succeed.	51	Other
If we are talking about cheating in a class test, then I have always been aware of one or two students looking over their shoulder. In an exam, I have never caught a student cheating.	52	Languages

APPENDIX 23

Study 6

The survey used to test the decision model for understanding

This questionnaire is for people who are currently at secondary school
or who are taking their GCSE's this Summer.

- Q. What is this questionnaire about?
A. What you think about cheating in school.

I have already asked people your age what they think about cheating in school. The people who told me what they thought about cheating said lots of *different* things. Some people thought that cheating was wrong. Some people thought that cheating could be both right and wrong. Some people thought that cheating was right.

This questionnaire is a mixture of all the comments that people told me about cheating. I need you to help me work out how to use the comments that I got from those people. I am not going to ask you whether or not you have cheated.

What I would like you to do is tell me what **YOU** think about the comments made by other people.

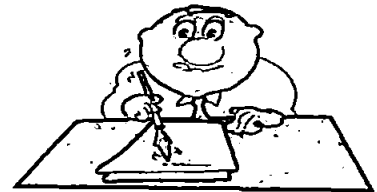
Some of the questions ask you to imagine that you had to cheat.
Some of the questions ask you to imagine that someone had cheated from you.
Some of the questions ask for your opinion about something to do with cheating.

There are no right or wrong answers to these questions. No two people give the same set of answers because everyone is different. All you have to do is tick the boxes to say what you think. If there is no box that says exactly what you think, choose the one that is closest to what you think.

There is no space on this form for you to write your name. This is because what you write is confidential. No one apart from the researcher will see what you have written.

It would be very helpful however, if you could tell me whether you are male or female and what year you are in school.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Female | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 7 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Male | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 8 |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 9 |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 10 |
| | <input type="checkbox"/> Year 11 |



When you have finished this questionnaire, place it in the envelope provided and give it to the person in charge. They will post it for you.

If you have any questions about this questionnaire you can ask the person in charge. If they cannot answer your question then please contact the researcher:

Penny Armstead
University of Plymouth
Drake Circus
Plymouth
PL4 8AA

01752 233157

parmstead@plym.ac.uk

Thank you for your help

School work means any work that you do for school. For example, it could be classwork, homework, coursework, tests, exams, GCSE's, A-levels

1. Which of the following things do you think should be called causes of cheating on school work?

- | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----|----|
| • Stress and worry | Yes | No |
| • Teachers wanting you to do well | Yes | No |
| • Parents wanting you to do well | Yes | No |
| • Being lazy | Yes | No |
| • Not being very clever at a subject | Yes | No |
| • Not being very well organised | Yes | No |

2. Imagine that you had to cheat. Which assessment would you choose to cheat on? Read the choices first.

Tick three that you would cheat on:

Tick 3
only

Homework	<input type="checkbox"/>
GCSE's	<input type="checkbox"/>
Classwork	<input type="checkbox"/>
Exams	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coursework	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tests	<input type="checkbox"/>
A-Levels	<input type="checkbox"/>
Games	<input type="checkbox"/>

Tick the three that you wouldn't cheat on:

Tick 3
only

Games	<input type="checkbox"/>
A-levels	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tests	<input type="checkbox"/>
Coursework	<input type="checkbox"/>
Exams	<input type="checkbox"/>
Classwork	<input type="checkbox"/>
GCSE's	<input type="checkbox"/>
Homework	<input type="checkbox"/>

3. Now imagine again that you had to cheat. Which type of assessment would you choose to cheat on this time? Read the choices first and then pick three that you imagine you would cheat on.

A small test	<input type="checkbox"/>	Major homework	<input type="checkbox"/>
Important classwork	<input type="checkbox"/>	A minor exam	<input type="checkbox"/>
A test that had the marks recorded	<input type="checkbox"/>	A little test that was not recorded	<input type="checkbox"/>
Unimportant coursework	<input type="checkbox"/>	A big spelling test	<input type="checkbox"/>

Tick any
3 from
this box

Turn
over



4. Imagine that you had to give a reason why it was OK to cheat, which two reasons would you give?

This time
only tick
2 things

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> I understood the work | <input type="checkbox"/> I didn't understand the work |
| <input type="checkbox"/> I couldn't be bothered to do the work | <input type="checkbox"/> My friends cheated too |
| <input type="checkbox"/> I made an effort to understand the work before I cheated | <input type="checkbox"/> My friends said if I helped them to cheat, then they would help me |
| <input type="checkbox"/> I don't cheat very often so this time it's OK | |

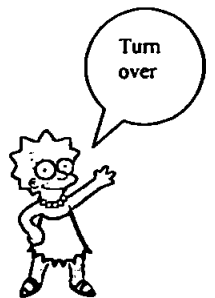
5. Now look again at the reasons that were used to say that cheating was OK. Imagine that someone had given you these reasons for their own cheating. Which two reasons would you NOT accept from that person. In other words, which two reasons do you dislike the most?

This time
only tick
2 things

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> I understood the work | <input type="checkbox"/> I didn't understand the work |
| <input type="checkbox"/> I couldn't be bothered to do the work | <input type="checkbox"/> My friends cheated too |
| <input type="checkbox"/> I made an effort to understand the work before I cheated | <input type="checkbox"/> My friends said if I helped them to cheat, then they would help me |
| <input type="checkbox"/> I don't cheat very often so this time it's OK | |

6. Please indicate which statements you agree or disagree with?

- | | | |
|--|-------|----------|
| • Tests in school are for your benefit so you can see where you need to improve. | Agree | Disagree |
| • At school everybody cheats sometimes. | Agree | Disagree |
| • If you cheat in school there is a risk that you will be caught. | Agree | Disagree |
| • Other people cheat in my school. | Agree | Disagree |
| • It is not a good idea to cheat because it may go wrong. | Agree | Disagree |
| • Getting a good education is more important than cheating. | Agree | Disagree |
| • If a person's friends cheat then that person is more likely to cheat. | Agree | Disagree |
| • If someone cheats and gets away with it, they are more likely to cheat again. | Agree | Disagree |



7. For **YOU** do you think that cheating can have the following **benefits**?

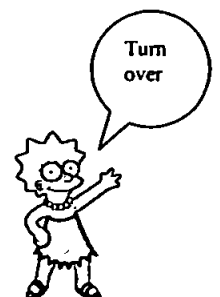
	Yes, cheating usually does have this benefit	No, cheating usually does not have this benefit
• You can get better marks.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• You can get into a higher group.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating is a way to help you learn things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating can mean that you don't have to work as hard.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating can stop you worrying about failing a test.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating can get you the career that you want.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. For **YOU** do you think that cheating can have the following **negative consequences**?

	Yes cheating usually has this consequence	No, cheating usually does not have this consequence
• Cheating can get you into a set that is too high and you end up with work you can't do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating can make you think you are more clever than you really are.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating can stop you from learning things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating can stop you from succeeding in GCSE's and A-levels.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating can get you a bad name with your friends.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Cheating can be addictive. Once you start you can't stop.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. Imagine that someone had cheated from **you**. Would **YOU** **feel** the following?

	Yes I usually would feel this way	No, I usually would not feel this way
• The cheater had done no wrong to you personally.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The cheater had taken away your sense of effort.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The cheater had taken away your sense of achievement.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The cheater might get you into trouble.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The cheater had taken your place in a higher set.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The cheater had helped you to learn.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The cheater was not being unfair to you.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



The next three questions ask you to imagine that you know someone who 1) had never cheated, 2) had cheated a lot and 3) had cheated occasionally.

10. Imagine that you knew someone who had never cheated. Which words would you use to describe them? You can choose as many words as you wish

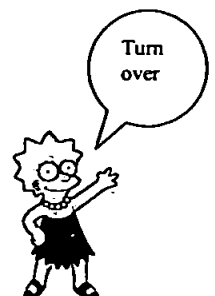
- | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sad | <input type="checkbox"/> Happy | <input type="checkbox"/> Nasty | <input type="checkbox"/> Nice |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Stressed | <input type="checkbox"/> Unstressed | <input type="checkbox"/> Lucky | <input type="checkbox"/> Unlucky |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Loyal | <input type="checkbox"/> Untrustworthy | <input type="checkbox"/> Unconfident | <input type="checkbox"/> Confident |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hard working | <input type="checkbox"/> Lazy | <input type="checkbox"/> Not worried | <input type="checkbox"/> Worried |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Clever | <input type="checkbox"/> Not very clever | <input type="checkbox"/> Bright | <input type="checkbox"/> Dull |

11. Imagine that you knew someone who cheated a lot. Which words would you use to describe the person? You can choose as many words as you wish

- | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sad | <input type="checkbox"/> Happy | <input type="checkbox"/> Nasty | <input type="checkbox"/> Nice |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Stressed | <input type="checkbox"/> Unstressed | <input type="checkbox"/> Lucky | <input type="checkbox"/> Unlucky |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Loyal | <input type="checkbox"/> Untrustworthy | <input type="checkbox"/> Unconfident | <input type="checkbox"/> Confident |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hard working | <input type="checkbox"/> Lazy | <input type="checkbox"/> Not worried | <input type="checkbox"/> Worried |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Clever | <input type="checkbox"/> Not very clever | <input type="checkbox"/> Bright | <input type="checkbox"/> Dull |

12. Imagine that you knew someone who cheated occasionally. Tick the words which you would use to describe that person. Choose as many words as you wish.

- | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Sad | <input type="checkbox"/> Happy | <input type="checkbox"/> Nasty | <input type="checkbox"/> Nice |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Stressed | <input type="checkbox"/> Unstressed | <input type="checkbox"/> Lucky | <input type="checkbox"/> Unlucky |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Loyal | <input type="checkbox"/> Untrustworthy | <input type="checkbox"/> Unconfident | <input type="checkbox"/> Confident |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hard working | <input type="checkbox"/> Lazy | <input type="checkbox"/> Not worried | <input type="checkbox"/> Worried |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Clever | <input type="checkbox"/> Not very clever | <input type="checkbox"/> Bright | <input type="checkbox"/> Dull |



13. Imagine that you were going to cheat, which of the following things do you think would stop you from cheating?

- | | | | |
|--|-----|----|----------|
| • Teachers keeping an eye out for cheaters | Yes | No | Possibly |
| • Having separate desks during tests and exams | Yes | No | Possibly |
| • Having parents who would help you revise | Yes | No | Possibly |
| • The assessment was very very important | Yes | No | Possibly |
| • Having your paper ripped up if you were caught cheating | Yes | No | Possibly |
| • Being given a mark of zero if you were caught cheating | Yes | No | Possibly |
| • Being able to chat to a sympathetic person if you felt stressed about exams or tests | Yes | No | Possibly |
| • Being given tips on how to revise for tests | Yes | No | Possibly |
| • Being told what topics were going to come up in the test or exam | Yes | No | Possibly |

14. Which ONE of the following statements do you feel most reflects your views about cheating. Pick ONE only:

- Cheating is wrong because it can cause all kinds of trouble and can have bad consequences.
- Cheating is wrong because it stops you from having an education and from learning.
- Cheating is wrong because it stops you from having an education and it can get you into trouble.
- Cheating can be wrong, but it can also be right depending on the reason for the cheating.

Thank you very much for taking the time to fill in this questionnaire. Please check that you have answered all of the questions.

Put your completed questionnaire into the envelope and give it to the person in charge.



APPENDIX 24

Study 6

Raw scores for each question in the survey relating to study 6

APPENDIX 24

Raw scores for each question in the survey relating to study 6

1. Which of the following things do you think should be called causes of cheating on school work?

Causes of cheating	Yes
Parents wanting you to do well	15
Stress and worry	13
Not being very clever at a subject	12
Being lazy	8
Teachers wanting you to do well	6
Not being very well organised	5

2. Imagine that you had to cheat. Which assessment would you choose to cheat on?

Would cheat on

Assessment	No. of respondents
Homework	18
Classwork	17
Games	15
GCSE's	2
Coursework	2
Tests	2
A-Levels	2
Exams	1

Would not cheat on

Assessment	No. of respondents
GCSE's	17
A-levels	16
Exams	8
Tests	6
Coursework	6
Games	2
Classwork	2
Homework	1

3. Now imagine again that you had to cheat. Which type of assessment would you choose to cheat on this time?

Assessment type	No. of respondents
A small test	16
A little test that was not recorded	16
Unimportant coursework	9
A minor exam	7
Important classwork	3
A test that had the marks recorded	3
Major homework	3
A big spelling test	3

4. Imagine that you had to give a reason why it was OK to cheat.

Most acceptable reasons for cheating	No. of respondents
I didn't understand the work	12
I made an effort to understand the work before I cheated	11
I understood the work	5
I don't cheat very often so this time it's OK	4
My friends cheated too	3
My friends said if I helped them to cheat, then they would help me	2
I couldn't be bothered to do the work	1

5. Now look again at the reasons that were used to say that cheating was OK. Imagine that someone had given you these reasons for their own cheating. Which reasons would you NOT accept from that person?

Most unacceptable reasons for cheating	No. of respondents
I couldn't be bothered to do the work	13
My friends cheated too	9
I don't cheat very often so this time it's OK	8
I understood the work	5
My friends said if I helped them to cheat, then they would help me	3
I made an effort to understand the work before I cheated	1
I didn't understand the work	0

6. Please indicate which statements you agree or disagree with?

Angel and devil arguments	Agree
Tests in school are for your benefit so you can see where you need to improve.	17
At school everybody cheats sometimes.	10
If you cheat in school there is a risk that you will be caught.	19
Other people cheat in my school.	17
It is not a good idea to cheat because it may go wrong.	18
Getting a good education is more important than cheating.	19
If a person's friends cheat then that person is more likely to cheat.	6
If someone cheats and gets away with it, they are more likely to cheat again.	16

7. For YOU do you think that cheating can have the following benefits?

Positive consequences	Yes, cheating usually does have this benefit
You can get better marks.	18
Cheating can mean that you don't have to work as hard.	16
You can get into a higher group.	13
Cheating can stop you worrying about failing a test.	10
Cheating can get you the career that you want.	3
Cheating is a way to help you learn things.	2

8. For YOU do you think that cheating can have the following negative consequences?

Self-injury consequences	Yes cheating usually has this consequence
Cheating can stop you from learning things.	20
Cheating can get you into a set that is too high and you end up with work you can't do.	18
Cheating can stop you from succeeding in GCSE's and A-levels.	16
Cheating can get you a bad name with your friends.	14
Cheating can make you think you are more clever than you really are.	13
Cheating can be addictive. Once you start you can't stop.	12

9. Imagine that someone had cheated from you. Would YOU feel the following?

Harming others consequences	Yes I usually would feel this way
The cheater had taken away your sense of achievement.	17
The cheater had taken away your sense of effort.	15
The cheater might get you into trouble.	15
The cheater had taken your place in a higher set.	14
The cheater had done no wrong to you personally.	9
The cheater was not being unfair to you.	5
The cheater had helped you to learn.	1

10. Imagine that you knew someone who had or had not cheated. Which words would you use to describe them? You can choose as many words as you wish

Adjective	Non-cheater	Infrequent	Frequent
Sad	0	7	8
Stressed	1	14	15
Loyal	15	4	0
Hard working	19	3	0
Clever	12	3	0
Happy	11	2	2
Unstressed	11	3	2
Untrustworthy	1	5	14
Lazy	0	9	18
Not very clever	1	3	12
Nasty	0	0	8
Lucky	5	2	3
Unconfident	1	13	14
Not worried	8	5	4
Bright	14	3	1
Nice	13	4	0
Unlucky	1	2	6
Confident	16	4	2
Worried	2	10	13
Dull	2	4	7

11. Imagine that you were going to cheat, which of the following things do you think would stop you from cheating?

Methods of preventing cheating	Yes	No	Possibly
Having your paper ripped up if you were caught cheating	18	0	2
Being given a mark of zero if you were caught cheating	18	0	2
Being told what topics were going to come up in the test or exam	16	0	4
The assessment was very very important	15	3	2
Teachers keeping an eye out for cheaters	13	0	7
Having separate desks during tests and exams	13	2	4
Being given tips on how to revise for tests	11	2	7
Having parents who would help you revise	10	5	5
Being able to chat to a sympathetic person if you felt stressed about exams or tests	5	3	12

12. Which ONE of the following statements do you feel most reflects your views about cheating.

Respondent type	No. of respondents
Cheating is wrong because it can cause all kinds of trouble and can have bad consequences.	8
Cheating is wrong because it stops you from having an education and from learning.	5
Cheating is wrong because it stops you from having an education and it can get you into trouble.	6
Cheating can be wrong, but it can also be right depending on the reason for the cheating	1