2017

Morality, Cheating and the Purpose of Public Education

Joshua Trent Kline
Lehigh University

Morality, Cheating, and the Purpose of Public Education

by

Joshua T. Kline

Presented to the Graduate and Research Committee

Of Lehigh University

In Candidacy for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

In

Educational Leadership

Lehigh University

May 2, 2017

Approved and recommended for acceptance as a dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.

_____
Date

_____
Dissertation Director

_____
Accepted Date

Committee Members:

_____
Dr. Floyd Beachum
Program Director,
Associate Professor,
Educational Leadership

_____
Dr. Michael Behe
Professor,
Biochemistry

_____
Dr. Craig Hochbein
Assistant Professor,
Educational Leadership

_____
Dr. Jill Sperandio
Associate Professor,
Educational Leadership

Acknowledgments

First and foremost I would like to thank my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ who gave Himself to redeem me, and makes all things possible through His strength. I would also like to thank my loving wife Meghan, who has been a rock of stability for me throughout this long journey. I thank my wonderful children, Noah, Hannah and Eliana for their patience and understanding during the many times I was not able to play, read or just spend time with you.

I thank the Lord for my wonderful parents, who are such a great example of the love of Christ. Thank you for instilling a love of learning in me, and encouraging me to think critically. Thanks also to Becky for proof reading, Rachel for sharing your mutual dissertation struggles, and Justin for your unwavering support and prayer.

Thanks to my good friends and brothers: George, Pete and Jeff for your encouragement, wisdom and prayer during this process. Thanks to my family at Grace Gospel for all of your prayers. A big thanks also goes out to all of my colleagues who helped me through this process.

Finally thanks to Dr. Beachum for chairing my committee and helping me through this process. Your insight and guidance was extremely valuable and appreciated. Thanks to Dr. Hochbein for your help in forming the idea for this study and also your insight into how to pull it all together. Thanks to Dr. Sperandio for great suggestions and for helping me to mold my study into its final form. Special thanks to Dr. Fu for all of your help with statistics and for the long phone conversations as we tried to find a way to put all the pieces of this puzzle together. And last but not least, special thanks to Dr. Behe for agreeing to be on my committee; it was a privilege to work with you.

Table of Contents

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Chapter 3 Design and Methodology

Chapter 5 Discussion

List of Figures

List of Tables

Abstract

What is, or should be the goal of public education in the U.S.? David Labaree (1997) proposes that since the inception of public education in America, three alternative goals have emerged and these goals are at the root of the conflicts that have arisen over the "why" question of education. He labels these goals: democratic equity, social efficiency and social mobility. Each goal is laudable in its own right, and although sometimes these goals can align together toward shared outcomes, fundamentally they represent fundamentally different outcomes.

The logic behind this study was that, depending on which of the three educational goals is dominant; the relationship between moral reasoning and cheating could be expected to differ predictively. As moral reasoning increases, the democratic equity goal would predictively lead to a decrease in cheating. This is because education is seen as a public good meant for the benefit of all, and so the focus of education is not on individual achievement.

From the social mobility perspective the outcome would be exactly the opposite of the equity goal. Seen as a private good, education is focused on the advancement of the individual through the accumulation of educational credentials. The growth in moral reasoning is overshadowed by the need to achieve in the upwardly mobile students, and so cheating would be expected to increase.

From the social efficiency perspective, the growth in moral reasoning would arguably play little if any role in the relationship with cheating, due to this goal's focus on marketable skills and the maintenance of the status quo.

The purpose of this study was to seek to examine the practical outworking of Labaree's (1997) theory by measuring which of these three goals is reflected by the behavior and attitudes of students as they relate to moral development and cheating. Additionally this study provides further insight on the relationship between student moral development and cheating. The results of the study support social efficiency as being the dominant goal, and democratic equity as being the least influential.

Keywords: Moral development, cheating, purpose of education

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

Background

As economic concerns increase and U.S. academic achievement lags behind several other developed nations (Chappell, 2013; Labaree, 2010), it seems only natural to ask some probing questions about our public education system. In an age where fundamental institutions and long held beliefs are being questioned, why should the educational system itself be exempt? Given the huge influence it wields and the vast amount of public and private funds it consumes, understanding exactly what the educational system should be achieving and how it should be going about it, would seem to be central to any conversation about the future of America. Anya Kamenetz (2014), an education reporter for NPR captures this sentiment when she writes:

> No matter what you think you know about education, what's clear right now is that the old blueprints are out the window. The economy isn't creating jobs the way it once did. Technology has forever altered how we communicate and has challenged the meaning of knowledge itself. The cost of college has risen more than any other good or service in the U.S. economy since 1978. There's increasing evidence that qualities like creativity, communication, collaboration and persistence matter most, yet our school system remains pegged to standardized tests that just take in reading and math. Education has to become something more than regurgitating the past. But what? (Kamenetz, 2014)

In order to answer the question of what our educational system should look like, it is necessary to ask an even deeper and more foundational question, “what is, or should be

the goal of public education in the U.S.?" According to David Labaree (1997) any attempt to shape or reform the U.S. educational system must begin at this foundational level. Labaree (1997) states that,

> The central problems with American education are not pedagogical or organizational or social or cultural in nature but are fundamentally political. That is, the problem is not that we do not know how to make schools better but that we are fighting among ourselves about what goals schools should pursue. Goal setting is a political, and not a technical problem. It is resolved through a process of making choices and not through a process of scientific investigation. The answer lies in values (what kind of schools we want) and interests (who supports which educational values) rather than apolitical logic. (p. 40)

Labaree (1997) proposes that since the inception of public education in America, three alternative goals have emerged and these goals are at the root of the conflicts that have arisen over the "why" question of education. He labels these goals: democratic equity, social efficiency and social mobility.

A Review of Labaree's Three Goals

According to Labaree (1997) the goal of democratic equality is rooted in the idea that schools should prepare students to be moral and competent participants in a democratic (or republican in the case of the U.S.) form of government. This goal can literally be traced back to the very beginning of public education in the U.S., as it was believed that the ability to read (especially the Bible) was essential to good citizenship (Massachusetts Passes," n.d., Ryan, 2008). In order for, as Abraham Lincoln (1863) said, "government of the people, by the people and for the people" to exist, the individuals that

compose the society must be able to govern themselves. This implies that a certain standard of morality must be present among the population, and this must be taught to each successive generation.

There is also the notion of political equality imbedded in any form of democratic government, in that the individual is at the mercy of the society's collective political decisions. Subsequently, according the democratic equity view, schools have a responsibility to promote both relative equality and good citizenship. Being the most political of Labaree's (1997) three goals, it has manifested itself in the objectives of citizenship training, equal treatment and equal access. This task is imperative for the survival of a democratic government and is beneficial to all the members of the society. From this perspective, public education is seen as a public good.

Labaree's (1997) social efficiency goal is focused on the economic well being of our society rather than the political theater. From a social efficiency perspective, the goal of the educational system should be to prepare students for entry into the labor market. The health of the economy is dependent on the individual contributions of skilled workers in the society. Because of this, Labaree (1997) argues, "we cannot allow this function to be supported only by voluntary means, since self-interest would encourage individuals to take a free ride on the human capital investment of their fellow citizens while investing personally in a form of education that would provide the highest individual return" (p. 42). It is therefore necessary that all the members of the society invest in the training and education of the entire workforce, rather than leaving it up to the motivation or available resources of the individual. Labaree (1997) also points out that,

> From the social efficiency perspective, society counts on schools to provide the human capital it needs to enhance productivity in all phases of economic life, which means that schools must assure that everyone engages in serious learning-whether they are in college or kindergarten, suburb or inner city, top track or bottom track. In this sense then, social efficiency treats education as a public good, whose collective benefits can only be realized if instruction is effective and learning is universal.

The creation of vocational education programs was born out of the social efficiency goal as well as the educational standard movement, which arose with the *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983) study and continues until today.

From the social mobility perspective, education is seen as a commodity to be acquired in order to gain a competitive advantage in the struggle for desired positions in society. The goal according to Labaree (1997) is to "get more of this valuable commodity than one's competitors, which puts a premium on a form of education that is highly stratified and unequally distributed" (p. 42). Rather than being a public good that is seen as beneficial to all in a society, the social mobility perspective sees education as private good used by individuals as a means of advancing to more desired market positions.

As Labaree (1997) points out, the three goals of education have been in existence to a greater or lesser degree from the very beginning of public education in America. Certain jobs require a core set of skills or knowledge that would eliminate from contention those without the necessary prerequisites. At the same time, as long as

societies exist there will always be those who benefit from being in the proper circles, which can include educational institutions. I will examine the interaction between the goals of education in greater detail below, but it is first necessary to understand the moral aspect of education, because questions of how we *should* educate students, or which goal *should* be encouraged imply a moral standard. The roots of public education in America are most firmly grounded in the goal of democratic citizenship, and from the start this goal has been strongly connected to the moral education of students.

The Moral Education Connection

The framer of the First Amendment Ames Fisher (1800) said, "Our liberty depends on our education, our laws, and habits . . . it is founded on morals and religion, whose authority reigns in the heart, and on the influence all these produce on public opinion before that opinion governs rulers" (p. 23). The founding fathers placed great importance on moral education.[1] They believed a representative democracy required citizens who governed themselves as individuals before they could form a functioning body politic. While they believed that humans were created with moral sense and a conscience to guide behavior, they also believed that for this moral sense to develop and function properly, children required moral training. From the Pilgrims through colonial times, moral education was considered the responsibility of the family and was directly connected to religious instruction (McClellen, 1999). A movement to establish a publicly funded and controlled common method for character instruction through the creation of

[1] The term moral or character education has itself become a source of contention and confusion (Elias 2013) but for this paper I will define moral/character education as teaching moral discernment, moral sensitivity, and moral behavior (Lickona, 1989).

public schools ensued as the Colonies won their independence from Great Britain and continued to expand in both population and territory (Labaree, 2010).

> According to McClellen (1999), "Worried about the ability of the new nation to survive in the face of parochialism and factional disputes, men like Thomas Jefferson, lexicographer Noah Webster, and Philadelphia physician Benjamin Rush proposed the creation of state systems of public schools that would teach 'republican values' and encourage loyalty to the new nation. They placed special emphasis on the teaching of 'virtue,' which they defined roughly as the willingness to set aside purely selfish motives and work for the good of the larger society. No longer inclined to trust the haphazard efforts of families and communities, they sought a more systematic education that would promote larger loyalties. (p. 12-13)

It is also interesting to note that literacy (which was already widespread in the United States) was a precursor to this common school movement rather than an outcome (Labaree, 2010).

These new public "common" schools would be operated according to a largely non-sectarian protestant worldview due in large part to the population demographics throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Public school moral education programs were based on protestant approved textbooks (such as McGuffey's *Readers*), the reading of the King James Bible, and female teachers of good character (McClellen, 1999; Howard, Berkowitz & Schaeffer, 2004). What constitutes good moral values and how they relate to the individual is not universally agreed upon however, and this was a

source of early conflict between Protestants and Roman Catholics in America. McClellen (1999) writes,

> The early Protestant supporters of public schools were insistent on the connections between morality and religion, and they clearly saw the public school as a way to spread the general tenets of Protestant Christianity. Yet in order to prevent state aid to Catholic education, they were compelled to expand the religious neutrality of the public school. (p. 45)

This move toward neutrality in order to preempt the unwanted advances of minority doctrinal differences would have a profound effect on the secularization of the public school system and the declining role of character education in the twentieth century (Beach, 1992).

Before considering this move toward secularization, it is important to understand why the strong connection between moral education and religion (especially theistic religion) exists. In order for moral values and duties to *really* exist (ontologically) they must be objective. Objective values and duties are not dependent on individual beliefs or opinions; they apply to all people regardless of their assent to them. On this view the only way to ground objective morality is in a transcendent moral lawgiver, which is to say God. As, Craig (2013) states,

> "If God does not exist, then morality is just a human convention, that is to say, morality is wholly subjective and non-binding. We might act in precisely the same ways that we do in fact act, but in the absence of God, such actions would no longer count as good (or evil), since if God does not exist, objective moral values do not exist. Thus we cannot truly be good without God."

Therefore, for the theist it makes no sense to speak of character education, or morality in the absence of God. According to Craig (2013) God's moral nature is what Plato called the "Good". This moral nature is revealed to people in the form of divine commands, from which we derive our moral obligations (right and wrong), and God holds all people morally accountable for their actions (Craig, 2013). According to the theist, in the absence of God, talk of good and bad, or right or wrong is on the same level as debating about the best flavor of ice cream. Everyone can have his or her own opinion, but no right answer exists, because the *best* flavor of ice cream does not *really* exist.

For the theist, the lack of objective morality would place humans on the same level as animals, and people would be bound to the same law of survival of the fittest that governs nature. Equality, justice, and the rights to life and liberty do not exist in the animal world. Such things are moral concepts that only apply to persons, and they must be ontologically grounded in something other than subjective human opinion, otherwise they are merely an illusion. As the Enlightenment inspired Declaration of Independence states, these rights are endowed by God and are to be protected by governments subjected to the will of a moral people.

An overwhelming majority of people in the United States, regardless of their approach to moral education, agree that a relationship exists between moral education and preparing a student to become a democratic citizen. (Howard et al., 2004; Labaree, 1997) However, various groups disagree with the theistic position on the necessity of objective morality and moral epistemology. By the early twentieth century a group known as the progressives emerged with a radically different vision for character education in American public schools.

Even though by the late nineteenth and early twentieth century most schools had moved away from explicitly religious programs of character education, the theistic view of objective morality still highly influenced instruction. This traditional form of character education consisted of teaching specific moral virtues (often in the form of codes of conduct) and the inculcating of particular moral character traits through a peer reinforced community environment. (Beach, 1992; McClellen, 1999; Howard et al., 2004) "The Boy Scouts and their oath is a classic traditional character education approach of specifying a list of virtues, then creating a community environment that imbues youth with the virtues and reinforces them through formal instruction, visuals (e.g., posters), positive peer culture, and ceremonies" (Howard et al., 2004, p. 192).

Progressives however, viewed this method of character education as indoctrination that produced questionable results. Citing the studies published from 1928-1930 by Hugh Harthshorne and Mark A. May, (which drew into question the effectiveness of didactic character education) progressives championed a new method of character education directed at preparing students for the new challenges of the modern world. (Beachum & McCray, 2005; McClellen, 1999; Howard et al., 2004) Led by theorists such as John Dewey, the progressives believed that the modern era offered a chance for unparalleled social and moral progress, if only Americans would break free of the oppression of tradition and work for a just and equal society through the application of reason and science (McClellen, 1999). According to McClellen (1999),

> "Rejecting the notion that schools should teach specific moral precepts or encourage particular traits, progressive educators hoped to cultivate in students both a quality of open-mindedness and a general ability to make moral judgments.

> Their model for ethical behavior was the disinterested expert, the professional who brought both a spirit of inquiry and a high level of competence to the solution of problems" (p. 57).

Ethical behavior is situational in nature for the progressives, and ascriptions of good vs. bad or right vs. wrong are determined by social consequence free from any arbitrary authoritative absolutes (Sanger, 2008). Progressives sought to ground morality in human reason by invoking the writings of Enlightenment philosophers such as Emmanuel Kant, and critical thinking became the purely secular standard for moral decisions. Proponents of traditional character education saw this move as unsuccessful, and continued to assert that making morality based on human reason equated to making morality subjective, and thus relative.

The progressive movement to secularize character education came at a time when the national trend was toward an increased separation of church and state in public schools. The continued resolve by Protestants to disallow public funding of Catholic schools during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, eventually led down a path of legal theory and precedent that according to McClellen (1999), "constructed a wall of separation between church and state that was far higher than anything the authors of the Constitution had imagined" (p. 44). Increasing restrictions on state aid to private schools made defending the traditional place of Protestant Christianity in public schools more difficult (McCellen, 1999). McCellen (1999) states,

> "This effort to protect nonsectarianism was not, of course, the only force involved in the secularization of schools, but it clearly was the original source and it accelerated the process from the mid-nineteenth century to the present. By the

> mid-twentieth century the public school had become so devoid of religious content that even many Protestant groups who had been its strongest defenders now turned against it, finding themselves in the end closer to the Catholic position on religion and morality than to the nonsectarianism that their forbears had done so much to create." (p. 45)

This separation was finalized in a sense at the federal level when the Supreme Court ruled that school prayer was illegal in (*Engel v Vital)* 1962, and Bible-reading was illegal (*School District of Abington Township, Pennsylvania v Edward Lewis Schemp* 374 U.S. 203) 1963.

During the second half of the twentieth century, especially in the 1960s and 1970s further cultural changes were occurring which led to a retreat from moral education in public schools (Beachum & McCray, 2005). With the increased atmosphere of cultural, racial and political tension many in education sought an attempt to preserve a fragile peace by adopting neutral positions on controversial issues or by avoiding them altogether (Beachum & McCray, 2005; McClellen, 1999). This peacekeeping effort had the effect of elevating tolerance and cultural relativism while at the same time undermining traditional authority (Valk, 2007; McClellen, 1999). This was a low point in the history of moral education in America's public schools. As McClellen (1999) states, "what had for more than three centuries been a central responsibility of the school had now become both peripheral and problematic" (p. 78).

In an attempt to revive moral education, three new approaches emerged between the mid-1960s and the late 1990s: values clarification, cognitive developmentalism and a feministic model centered on the ethic of caring (Beachum & McCray, 2005). The values

clarification model was based on teachers using value neutral methods such as describing moral dilemmas designed to assist students in forming and refining their own values. Students were encouraged to clarify their own feelings in response to these scenarios, rather than to speak of right and wrong in an ultimate sense (Valk, 2007). This nondirective approach to character education led to persistent charges that it encouraged moral relativism (McClellen, 1999). Other critics questioned the possibility of being truly value free, (to be value free is to value being value free, and is therefore not a neutral position), and accused value clarification proponents of liberal moral indoctrination (McClellen, 1999).

Striving to overcome the challenge of moral relativism, Lawrence Kohlberg presented a cognitive-developmental approach in which children progressed through six stages of moral reasoning, which were grouped into three levels. Kohlberg believed that children progressed through these stages by working through the cognitive conflict encountered during debate over difficult ethical dilemmas. Kohlberg's goal was to develop moral judgment in students without indoctrinating them with a specific set of values (Beach, 1992; McClellen, 1999; Valk, 2007). Developing a naturalistic basis for morality has proven to be very difficult and Kohlberg's cognitive-developmental approach has been criticized for its moral assumptions (Rest, Narvaez, Thoma, & Bebeau, 2000; Valk, 2007). Kohlberg seems to pick justice or fairness as arbitrary starting points rather than arguing to justice or fairness, thus failing to provide a basis on which to ground his model. Kohlberg's work, (like that of Rawls's veil of ignorance or Kant's categorical imperative) provides an epistemological framework for arriving at moral decisions, but fails to show an ontological base for morality (Kohlberg, 1973).

The feministic approach developed as a result of a perceived masculine bias in Kohlberg's model because it failed to accurately represent the moral development of girls and women (Howard et. al., 2004). According to Valk (2007), " Feminists felt his 'lifeboat ethics' developmental approach was too male oriented, too individually centered, and ignored both the emotional and relational aspects necessary for a 'caring approach to morality' (p. 276-277). Proponents of traditional moral education again criticized this model for grounding character education in a feminist moral agenda (Valk, 2007). As Valk (2007) states, "Moral therapists, in replacing theology with psychology as the framework for understanding the moral life, grounded it in personal well-being" (p. 277). Thus the feministic approach fails to avoid the same charge of moral relativism that is directed at both Kohlberg's cognitive developmentalism and the values clarification model. Various attempts to arrive at a widely accepted model of moral education have been ongoing since Kohlberg, but none have been able to achieve broad or lasting acceptance. In spite of the ongoing discussion of what moral education should look like, many in America are calling for an increased focus on moral education in public schools to counter a perceived decline in societal morals (Beachum, McCray, Yawn & Obiakor, 2013; de Ruyter, Steutel, 2013).

The connection to moral education (while central to the democratic equity goal) also extends to the social efficiency and social mobility goals, albeit in a less direct manner. The social efficiency goal grew in importance during America's economic growth during the industrialization of the mid-nineteenth century. At the same time concern was growing that the prosperity would lead to greed and selfish ambition on a scale that could endanger the future of the young country. In order to prevent the

potential temptations brought on by prosperity, proponents of common schools such as Horace Mann looked to the schoolhouse. Mann (1957) wrote in 1848, "it may be an easy thing to make a Republic, but it is a very laborious thing to make Republicans; and woe to the republic that rests upon no better foundations than ignorance, selfishness, and passion" (p. 52). Virtue is necessary not only for political survival, but also economic survival. Moral integrity is not just a commodity sought by employers, but rather a necessary foundation for a free market capitalist economic system. Freedom cannot exist in the absence of virtue, (both individual and corporate) and a free market cannot exist if the members of the market all endeavor to lie, cheat and steal their way to prosperity. If the market cannot self-regulate, then that regulation must come from the government and the market will cease to be free, and will ultimately collapse.

While moral education is positively related to both the democratic equity and social efficiency goals, it has a negative relation to social mobility. Social mobility, in viewing education as a means to an end, rather than a mean unto itself leads to a Machiavellian view of education where the ends justify the means. Labaree (1997) states,

> When they see education through the lens of social mobility, students at all levels quickly come to the conclusion that what matters most is not the knowledge they learn in school but the credentials they acquire there. Grade, credits, and degrees-these become the objects to be pursued. The end result is to reify the formal markers of education and displace the substantive content. Students learn to do what it takes to acquire the necessary credentials, a process that may involve

learning some of the content matter (at least whatever is likely to be on the next test) but also may not. (p. 55-56)

The Influence of the Social Mobility Goal

The social mobility goal views the whole educational endeavor in a fundamentally different manner than the democratic equity or social efficiency goals. Rather than seeing education as a public good that is beneficial to society as a whole by producing the educated citizens necessary to sustain the nation's political and economic well being, social mobility views education as a private good for the benefit of the individual student. This market based notion of an educational system created to meet the demands of it's consumers has become so central that neither of the other two goals can be advanced without attaching them to some added advantage that will be provided to students (Labaree, 1997). It is this aspect of privatization that denotes the central difference between the social mobility goal and the other two.

While the democratic equity and social efficiency goals have fluctuated in the degree to which they have shaped public education since its inception, the social mobility goal has been a slowly growing force. According to Labaree (1997), "the history of American educational change is less a story of pendulum swings than of steady evolutionary growth in the influence of one goal- social mobility- both in conjunction with and at the expense of the others" (p. 59). Because of the appeal to individuals, the social mobility goal can be used to promote ideals from both the democratic equity and social efficiency perspectives. When opinions or priorities eventually change and a new educational agenda rises to the forefront the public focus shifts, while the privatized concept of education as a good to be consumed continues its relentless growth. In order

to illustrate this steady rise of social mobility at the expense of the other goals, it is instructive to look at the influence of the social mobility goal both in conjunction with, and in opposition to the democratic equity and social efficiency goals.

Social mobility and democratic equality. In a true democratic republic, all citizens have an equal voice in the government, all citizens are seen as equal in the eyes of the law and there are no "hard" class distinctions to permanently relegate a citizen to a particular social or economic status. While the starting point might not be equal, the opportunity for success is not predetermined. By ensuring all citizens have equal access to education, the democratic equity goal is not only interested in providing for shared values and patriotism, but also in creating a meritocratic venue where the natural talents and abilities of all students can be developed for the benefit of the whole. As Horace Mann (1957) said, "Education, then, beyond all other devices of human origin, is the great equalizer of the conditions of men- the balance wheel of the social machinery" (p. 87).

It is in the creation of this equally accessible merit-based system that the democratic equity and social mobility goals find their common bond (Labaree, 1997). While the former is focused on the development of skills and ability for the political benefit of the whole, the latter shifts the focus to the individual. Education is seen as a way to advance socially and economically through the accumulation of gateway credentials that allow access to exclusive positions within the society. The meritocratic view of education has played a major role in shaping both the structure and function of the American educational system, and the goals of educational reformers throughout its development. For the educational reformer, although this meritocratic schooling creates

inequality within the system (which I will discuss below), it does take a step in the direction of democratic equity by basing educational rewards on achievement rather than on gender, race or class (Labaree, 1997). Systemically, the age based self-contained classroom, standard graded curriculum, simultaneous instruction and individual performance based evaluation which constitute the common format of modern schools are all grounded in the meritocratic mentality of education (Labaree, 1997).

While the social mobility view finds common ground with democratic equity on the meritocratic structure of education, the perspective from which each views this structure is distinct. Social mobility views the meritocracy from a private rather than a public perspective and from an economic rather than a political one. To this end, the social mobility goal works in opposition to the democratic equity goal. School is not about learning for the sake of acquiring knowledge for the benefit of the society, but rather for the benefit of self. Thus the desired outcome is not the maximized education of the masses, but rather an opportunity to differentiate the individual on a playing field that is perceived to be equal. It is to this end that the social mobility goal advocates for a merit-based system that, while allowing for expanded access, ultimately leads to inequality in the interest of differentiation. According to Labaree (1997),

> Meritocracy is much more visible in the upper levels of the stratified structure of schooling than in the lower levels. It is in the gifted programs, the advanced placement tracks, the wealthy suburban high schools, and the elite universities that competitive achievement is most intense, but, in the remedial classes, the vocational track, the poor inner-city high schools, and the open-admission colleges, the urge to compete is weaker, and the struggle for academic

> achievement is relaxed. Students from the lower and working classes see the possibility of social mobility through education more as a frail hope than a firm promise, since the experience of their families and friends is that the future is uncertain and the relevance of education to that future is doubtful. As a result, they are less likely to delve headlong into the meritocratic fray within education, often looking at educational achievement as a lost cause or a sucker's game (p. 57).

An additional outgrowth of the competitive social mobility meritocracy is credentialism. By gaining access to better schools, receiving higher grades, and earning additional degrees students are able to build up credentials that distinguish them from fellow students and can be exchanged like a commodity in the economic and social markets. With so much potentially at stake for those who succeed in the high stakes game of education, the virtue of democratic equality is a casualty of the need for individual success. As Labaree (1997) states, "from the perspective of democratic equality, schools should make republicans; from the perspective of social efficiency, they should make workers; but from the perspective of social mobility, they should make winners" (p. 66)

Social mobility and social efficiency. The current educational system reflects the positive and negative balance between social efficacy and social mobility. While all students do have an opportunity to rise to high levels educationally and socially, practically social mobility becomes more difficult as social class decreases (Labaree, 1997). The social efficiency goal of education is aimed at meeting the needs of the market, and so combining it with the meritocratic influence of social mobility is both beneficial and unpractical depending on the perspective from which it is viewed. On the

beneficial side, the market structure of America is highly stratified, and so by shaping the educational system to match the market, it is possible to assure that graduates from the educational system can replace the employees leaving the workforce in equal proportion. Just as there are fewer high level jobs available in the market, it is beneficial to have only a proportionate number of students advance to the higher levels of education necessary to qualify for these jobs (Labaree, 1997). In this way social efficiency aligns with social mobility in supporting a system where students are separated into tracts and the prestige of schools differs from one to another. The practical benefit of a stratified educational system is especially attractive from the perspective of the taxpayer. As Labaree (1997) puts it, "as citizens, they can understand the value of education in producing an informed and capable electorate; as consumers, they can understand the value in presenting themselves and their children with selective opportunities for competitive social advantage; but, as taxpayers, they are compelled to look at education as a financial investment- not in their own children, which is the essence of the consumer perspective, but in *other people's children*" (p.62). Furthermore it would be detrimental to the economy to have too many highly skilled workers for the top jobs with no way to differentiate between them, while not having enough workers available and desiring to fill lower level positions (Labaree, 1997).

On the negative side of the union between social efficiency and social mobility is the notion that rather than seeing the educational system as a pathway toward universal improvement, the educational system should function to meet the needs of the marketplace at all levels. To this end vocational programs and tracking allow students to set realistic expectations about their future and acquire the skills necessary to become

self-supporting citizens. Here too the difference between social efficiency and social mobility becomes apparent in that while social mobility leads to a desire to accrue credentials at the expense of learning, social efficiency promotes the need to increase learning at all levels of the workforce (Labaree, 1997). This focus on education at all levels also contradicts the social mobility goal which would allocate more resources to the higher levels at the expense of the lower (Labaree, 1997).

Conflicting Goals

With an understanding of the competing goals of education, it is now possible to return to the question set forth at the beginning of this chapter: "what is, or should be the goal of public education in the U.S.?" If Labaree (1997) is correct there is no way to give a definitive answer to this question due to the competing nature of the social democracy, social efficiency and social mobility goals. While each goal is laudable in its own right, and (as has been shown) goals can align toward shared outcomes, fundamentally they represent mutually exclusive outcomes.

If the democratic equality goal set the agenda of education, competition for economic and social positions would be irrelevant and learning for personal enrichment would become the focus of the system. Alternately, if the social efficiency goal dominated meeting the needs of the job market would be paramount and thus the schools would mirror the existing job market with no real mechanism to allow for social mobility. The moral and political goals of democratic equity (with a few exceptions) do not align with the goals of social efficiency, but each of these goals finds common ground with social mobility. In this way social mobility has become the middle ground and has advanced through the ebb and flow of various equity and efficiency movements.

"Drawing from both poles of the American ideological spectrum and blurring the differences between these two poles" Labaree (1997) states, "this goal establishes the credentials market as a zone of individual enterprise, located between school and economy, where a few students with "merit" can make their way" (p. 71).

The credentialism of social mobility undermines the public nature of education advocated by the equality and efficiency views by making education a consumer driven private good. Credentialism also undermines the learning goals of the other views by shifting the focus of education from what is actually learned to the credentials (in the form of grades and degrees) that are accumulated. From this perspective it is only necessary to learn what will be tested and then only to the degree required to acquire the desired outcome. The intrinsic value of learning is essentially replaced by the anti-educational rationality of gaining the highest academic credentials at the lowest cost of time and energy (Labaree, 1997; Sedlak, Wheeler, Pullin & Cusick, 1986). Labaree (1997) sums up the consequences of this shift:

> By structuring schooling around the goal of social mobility, Americans have succeeded in producing students who are well schooled and poorly educated. The system teaches them to master the forms and not the content (p. 68).

Purpose

According to Labaree (1997), "the biggest problem facing American schools is not the conflict, contradiction, and compromise that arise from trying to keep a balance among educational goals. Instead, the main threat comes from the growing dominance of the social mobility goal over others" (p. 73). In Labaree's (1997) paper, (and as discussed above) there is much anecdotal evidence that can be given to support this

claim, but empirical support is more difficult to produce. One way to produce such data may lie in examining how each goal relates respectively to the moral development of students and their proclivity to engage in, and attitude toward cheating. Based on Kohlberg's cognitive-developmental approach to moral reasoning, research has shown that moral reasoning generally increases as the level of education increases (Thoma & Dong, 2014). Depending on which of the three educational goals is dominant, the relationship between moral reasoning and cheating could be expected to differ predictively.

Table 1

Labaree's Assertion Operationally Defined

Democratic Equity	Social Mobility	Social Efficiency
Morality ↑ / Cheating ↓ Less focus on competition. More focus on citizenship.	Morality ↑ / Cheating ↑ Credentialism As the stakes increase, the pressure to cheat will increase.	Morality ↑ / Cheating = Learning to prepare for career. Less focus on credentials, more focus on actual knowledge and ability. Situational factors for cheating would remain static.

As illustrated in table one, as moral reasoning increases the democratic equity goal would predictively lead to a decrease in cheating. This is because education is seen as a public good meant for the benefit of all, and so the focus of education is not on individual achievement. Rather, the goal of democratic equity is to create informed moral citizens bound together by shared experiences and a sense of community (Labaree, 2010). From the social mobility perspective the outcome would be exactly the opposite

of the equity goal. Seen as a private good, education is focused on the advancement of the individual through the accumulation of educational credentials. The growth in moral reasoning is overshadowed by the need to achieve in the upwardly mobile students, and so cheating would be expected to increase. From the social efficiency perspective, the growth in moral reasoning would arguably play little if any role in the relationship with cheating, due to this goals focus on marketable skills and the maintenance of the status quo.

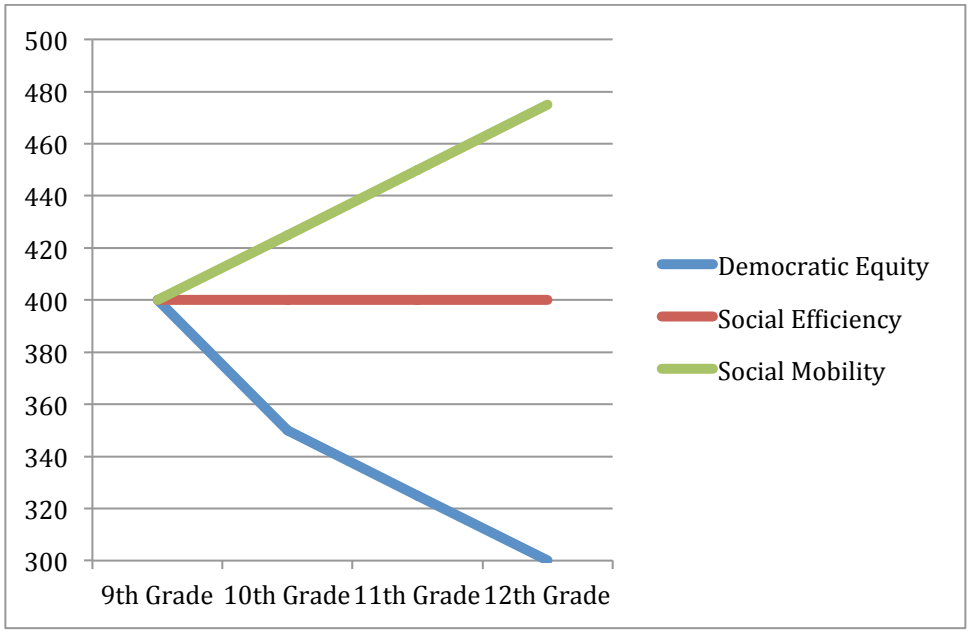

Figure 1. Labaree's three goals in relation to cheating incidences.

Using this framework, the purpose of this study was to seek to examine the practical outworking of Labaree's (1997) theory by measuring which of these three goals is reflected by the behavior and attitudes of students as they relate to moral development and cheating. Additionally this study provides further insight on the relationship between student moral development and cheating.

Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a relationship between student grade point average (GPA), student academic level and/or grade level and student moral development?
2. Is there a relationship between student moral development, academic level and/or grade level and student perceptions of cheating?
3. Is there a relationship between student moral development, academic level, grade level, perception of cheating and student cheating incidences?

Definition of Terms

Character. Moral discernment, moral sensitivity, and moral behavior (Lickona, 1989).

Moral Development. A student's N2 score (derived from the DIT) that is calculated to represent moral development level. The range for the N2 is generally 0-95, although it is possible for scores to be negative (for a further explanation of N2 scores see page 57). (Rest, Thoma, Narvaez & Bebeau, 1997; Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Democratic Equity. Educational goal of preparing students to be moral and competent participants in a democratic form of government (Labaree, 1997).

Social Efficiency. Educational goal of preparing students for entry into the labor market

(Labaree, 1997).

Social Mobility. Educational goal of gaining a competitive advantage in the struggle for desired positions in society (Labaree, 1997).

Credentialism. The competitive process of distinguishing oneself from other students through the acquisition of grades, institutional memberships, or degrees as a means of acquiring economic and/or social benefits (Labaree, 1997).

Cheating Incidences. The number of self-identified times a student has engaged in a specified form of cheating (McCabe, 2003).

Cheating Perceptions. Student attitudes about what actions constitute cheating and which cheating behaviors are considered to be serious offenses (McCabe, 2003).

Academic Track. A student's self-identified level of academic rigor based on their scheduled history, math, science and literature courses.

Grade Level. Academic level based on credits earned, ranging from ninth to 12th grade.

Significance

To date the author is not aware of any studies that have attempted to empirically support Labaree's (1997) assertion that social mobility has risen to become the dominant purpose of American public education. This study will seek to provide empirical support to Labaree's (1997) assertion of the growing dominance of the social mobility goal in education.

Limitations

Due to the complex nature of human behavior and the myriad variables that exist in the educational realm it is not possible to arrive at any definitive connection between educational goals and students cheating relative to their moral development. Additionally, due to the limited time and resources available, several potential limitations to this study arise. First, this study is only interested in the American educational system, which has been influenced by mores and social movements that may not apply to other cultures (Labaree, 2010). This study will also be limited to students in one school, and

while the sample size will be large, it is possible that external factors present in this school or region may impact results and thus limit the ability to generalize the results.

Several potential limitations arise based on the involvement of the students in the study. It is possible that students might not have been completely honest on the questionnaires because of perceived implications. It was necessary to obtain parental consent prior to administering the test due to the age of the subjects. This in combination with students not wanting to participate, or not returning permission forms prior to the survey resulted in a 35% participation rate.

The low participation rate limits the generalizability of the results. However because of the way the study was structured and how the teachers returned the surveys, it is known that the on-level students had the lowest rate of participation across all grade levels. While low on-level participation almost certainly raised the mean N2 score and negatively skewed the data, the results of the study were consistent with prior studies and participation was high enough to limit any threats to validity.

A ninth grade reading level is necessary to reliably complete the DIT (Thoma & Dong, 2014). Some students (especially in the lower academic tracks) may not be at this level. While the correlation between social economic level and academic performance is well documented (Davis-Kean, 2005), this link will not be considered in this study due to student confidentiality.

The short version of the Defining Issues Test was used to assess the student's level of moral development rather than the standard version due to time constraints of the school schedule. The creators of the DIT note that, "shortening the test generally lowers the reliability and power of validity trends. As a rough estimate, going from 6 stories to 3

stories on DIT- 1 costs about 10 points in reliability (Cronbach's alpha), and also about 10 points in correlations with external variables."

Finally, because the DIT preceded the McCabe survey there may be a potential for priming in regard to how the cheating questions are answered. The format of the survey instrument was chosen based on the Williams (2012) study, which did not report any conflict in combining the two instruments. In an effort to maintain confidentiality, rather than randomize which part of the survey is taken first (DIT vs. McCabe) no variations of the survey were used.

CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature

Introduction

This review of the literature is organized into three main sections. The first section will review the philosophical and methodological development of moral education in the US. The second section will focus on studies relating to high school student cheating. The third section will review studies that have explored possible relationships between the level of student moral reasoning and attitudes and behaviors related to cheating.

The Philosophical and Methodological Development of Moral education in the US

From colonial era to the twenty first century. Education is an inherently moral endeavor meant to mold thinking and behavior. To deny this fact would be self-defeating, for even an educational system that declares itself value neutral, values being value neutral. Since the beginning of recorded human history, education of the next generation has been "based on the universally accepted premise that adults know better than children what is proper and are therefore responsible for the acculturation of the children and their care" (Clouse 2001, p. 23). It is not surprising then that moral education has been a major focus and goal of schools since the inception of public education in the United States (McClellen, 1999).

In Colonial times, the Massachusetts Bay School Laws of 1642 and 1647 (the latter being commonly referred to as the "Old Deluder Satan Law") were the first laws to establish public schools ("Massachusetts Passes," n.d., Ryan, 2008). The educational goal of these laws was to teach children to read in order to understand the Bible and the

laws of the Commonwealth. Literacy, it was believed, would thus promote virtue and good citizenship while giving children the tools to resist that "old deluder Satan" ("Massachusetts Passes," n.d., Ryan, 2008). This connection between literacy and virtue was reiterated after the Revolutionary War in the Northwest Ordinance (which was passed by the same Congress that framed the Bill of Rights). The Northwest Ordinance stated, "Religion, morality and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged" ("An Ordinance," n.d., Barton, 2001).

In addition to reading the Bible, moral education texts such as McGuffey's Eclectic Readers (which consisted of collections of stories designed to teach moral lessons) became widely used to supplement the teaching of Biblical values as public schools spread through the US during the 19th century ("Moral education," 2004). According to Ryan (2008), "throughout the 19th and 20th centuries in the US, moral education was a strong mix of Biblical religion and training for good citizenship."

This type of direct moral education, which seeks to inculcate adherence to socially acceptable behavior, has been termed the motivational theory of moral education (Rest, 1979). The idea is to train children about what is socially acceptable and what is not, and to train them to do what is right and good (Rest, 1979). This is one of two theories of moral education, the other being the cognitive theory, which was supported by enlightenment thinkers such as John Locke and Thomas Jefferson. As will be shown below, the motivational theory was the dominant theory in American education until after the Progressive Movement in the early twentieth century, when the cognitive theory rose in prominence (Rest, 1979).

The character education inquiry. This strong religious connection to moral education began to fade in the late 1930's and early 1940's as criticism of instructional methods and effectiveness began to emerge (Clouse, 2001, "Moral education," 2004). The Character Education Inquiry (CEI), a series of studies conducted by Hartshorne and May (1928-1930) to examine the effect of religious education programs on the ethical behavioral choices of students, largely precipitated this change (Clouse, 2001; Hartshorne & May, 1928-1930; Leming, 2008). The CEI came about as a result of a 1922 meeting of the Religious Education Association where a resolution was passed to endorse research aimed at finding out how "religion is being taught to young people and with what effect?" (Hartshorne & May, 1928-1930, p. v). The Institute of Social and Religious Research, established and funded by John D. Rockefeller, agreed to conduct the study at the request of the Religious Education Association (Leming, 2008). The study, which was to be conducted by the Columbia Teachers College, lasted five years (1924-1929) and cost $140,000 (Leming, 2008).

Professor Edward L. Thorndike, the director of the Division of Psychology of the Institute of Educational Research was given immediate supervision of the study (Leming, 2008). According to Leming (2008) Thorndike, (whose work gave rise to the behaviorist view of human learning), is "one of the most influential individuals in American educational history" (p.135). Thordike's emphasis on the measurement of human characteristics became central to behavioral and educational research, and had a great impact on the CEI (Leming, 2008). This influence was manifested through Dr. Hugh Hartshorne (Professor of Religious Education at the University of Southern California) and Dr. Mark May (Professor of Psychology at Syracuse), both former

students of Thorndike at Columbia Teachers College who were hired as co-directors of the study (Leming, 2008).

The CEI incorporated 10,865 students in grades five through eight in 23 communities throughout the US (from both public and private schools) and measured student's willingness to cheat in different situations (Clouse, 2001; Leming, 1993). Under Hartshorne and May, who had shared a common liberal progressive background, the focus of the study shifted from examining the influence of religious education, to the development of standardized tests for use in religious and moral education (Leming, 2008; Setran, 2000). According to Leming (2008):

> As the study evolved, its focus clearly shifted from a case of applied to basic research. That is, instead of a study designed to focus on the practice of character and religious education with a view toward the development of knowledge that would be useful to practitioners, the research focused instead on the fundamental nature of character. Of the final 1,782 pages of text in the three-volume report, only 50 pages, or 3% of the manuscript reported data on the influence of character and religious education programs on youth. (p. 137)

The CEI found no significant difference between children who had participated in religious or moral education focused programs, and those who had not (Clouse, 2001; Leming, 1993). Furthermore, the study found that moral behavior was situation dependent rather than emanating from some "mysterious entity within the child" (Hartshorne and May, 1930, p. 610). Honesty or dishonesty in one situation did not predict the behavior of a child in another situation (Clouse, 2001; Leming, 1993).

The impact of the CEI was to be twofold in nature. First, the CEI marked a shift in moral education from being philosophically driven, to being driven by empirical research in the spirit of Thorndike. According to Leming (2008), "By the time of the Moral education Inquiry the shift toward the use of scientific methods in education and away from metaphysics and philosophy was nearly complete." (p. 136) The CEI seemed to finalize this movement by supporting the rejection of monotheistic notions of transcendent moral absolutes in favor of a Darwinian, subjective and situational morality influenced by the thinking of writers such as Piaget, Dewey and Thorndike (Leming, 2008; Piaget, 1997).

Secondly, there was a distinct change in the methodological attitudes of many proponents of moral education. Although there were contemporary studies which contradicted the CEI's conclusion that direct moral instruction was ineffective, for those who were not supporters of direct instruction the case was closed (Leming, 2008). According to Power, Higgins, & Kohlberg, as cited in (Leming, 2008):

> From a research perspective the deathblow to moral education was delivered by Hartshorne and May's famous research on character...its effect was to debunk the very notion of character itself, thereby pulling the rug out from under the educators. The authors of this assessment supplied evidence to support this claim in the form of an analysis of the number of entries under "character" in the Education Index. They found that between 1930 and 1940 the number of times "character" was cited dropped 85 percent (p.137).

It is interesting to note that according to Smith (1950), those writers who favored the direct approach to moral instruction were never opposed to also employing the indirect

method, however the inverse could not be said to be true. It is also interesting to note that the conclusions of the CEI were based largely on the Platonic idea that to know the good is to do the good. This conclusion is not in accordance with the Biblical protestant beliefs of many of the initial supporters of direct moral instruction through the educational system. While the knowledge of what is good and right is a necessary condition for moral behavior, because of the Biblical support for human free will, knowledge alone is not a sufficient condition for moral behavior.

The progressive influence. The CEI led to a move away from didactic moral education and opened the door for a new indirect method of instruction influenced by progressives such as John Dewey (McClellan, 1999). Dewey (1909) summed up the spirit of this movement by saying,

> The moral has been conceived in too goody-goody a way. Ultimate moral motives and forces are nothing more or less than social intelligence- the power of observing and comprehending social situations, -and social power- trained capacities of control- at work in the service of social interests and aims." (p. 43)

The 1932 report of the Moral Education Committee of the National Education Association's (NEA) Department of Superintendence strongly supported this call for a shift toward moral relativism and situational ethics (McClellan, 1999). The NEA (1932) report stated that:

> Relativity must replace absolutism in the realm of morals as well as in the spheres of physics and biology. This of course does not involve the denial of the principle of continuity in human affairs. Nor does it mean that each generation must repudiate the system of values of its predecessors. It does mean, however, that no

such system is permanent; that it will have to change and grow in response to experience (p. 11).

The rejection of traditional moral standards in favor of an evolving evaluation of ethical decisions based on social consequences resulted in confusion, and ultimately the decline of moral education efforts during the next few decades (Leming, 1993; McClellan, 1999). According to McClellan (1999), "teachers found it difficult to provide a moral education that had no place for particular virtues: to teach a process of thinking without a specific content was a challenge many simply could not meet" (p. 61).

The movement away from a Biblical foundation to moral education in public schools was additionally solidified by a series of Supreme Court decisions in the 1960s (*Engel v. Vitale* (1962), *Murray v. Curlett* (1963), *Abington Township v. Schempp* (1963), and *Reed v. Van Hoven* (1965)), which removed Bible reading and prayer from schools (Jukubowski, 2013; Geisler & Turek, 1998; Jeynes, 2009). Additionally, the Supreme Court in *Torcaso v. Watkins* (1961) recognized secular humanism to be a religion, seemingly making it difficult to devise even a non-religious moral education curriculum. According to McClellan (1999), "Although courts explicitly exempted moral education from their prohibitions, many educators of the sixties and seventies saw the trend of judicial decisions as a signal that even purely secular education in the realm of values might violate constitutional standards" (p. 77).

Lawrence Kohlberg. In addition to the Supreme Court rulings, during the late 1950's and into the 1960's there was also a shift in public education away from moral education based on objective moral absolutes, toward a more child centered subjective approach developed by Harvard psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg (Smith, 2013).

Kohlberg, who according to McClellan (1999) "owed much to the thought of both John Dewey and Jean Piaget," (p. 83) developed a cognitive-developmental method of moral education in an effort to overcome the challenge of moral relativism that plagued the values clarification method (discussed below). The cognitive theory of moral education is based in the ability to understand human interaction and social cooperation (Rest, 1979). The cognitive theory as described by Rest (1979),

> Assumes that as a person develops a larger picture of how he or she can relate to other people, that person's decision-making will be made from this larger perspective rather than the more limited, egocentric, short-sighted one. In other words, it is assumed that with education, the person is liberated from ignorance and prejudice, and that understanding leads to social responsibility" (p. 6).

According to Kohlberg's model, children progressed through six stages of moral reasoning, which were grouped into three levels (see Table 2).

Table 2

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development (Kohlberg, 1973)

Level One: Preconventional	
Stage 1:	The punishment-and-obedience orientation.
Stage 2:	The instrumental-relativist orientation.
Level Two: Conventional	
Stage 3:	The interpersonal concordance or "good boy-nice girl" orientation.
Stage 4:	The "law and order" orientation.
Level Three: Postconventional	
Stage 5:	The social-contract legalistic orientation.
Stage 6:	The universal-ethical-principle orientation.

Kohlberg believed that children progressed through these stages by working through the cognitive conflict encountered during debate over difficult ethical dilemmas. According to Clouse (2000), "Kohlberg probably has had more influence on the field of moral development and moral education than any other person in the United States, his six-stage theory having spawned over 5,000 studies by the late 1980s" (p.25-26).

While the research generally supported the premise that teacher facilitated moral discussion was effective in producing stage growth in moral reasoning, the rate of growth was slow and the method was never widely accepted by educational practitioners (Leming, 2008; Ryan, 2008). Additionally, none of the studies measured moral behavior as a dependent variable, leaving the question of the practical usefulness of the approach (Leming, 2008). Kohlberg's method though very popular with researchers never gained wide acceptance with US teachers (Ryan, 2008; Leming, 2008). As Leming (2008) states, "the conceptual complexity of the developmental stage theory, the difficulty of managing productive dilemma discussions with school-age youth, and the lack of salience of stage growth in students for teachers and to the realities of classroom life, comprised a triple whammy for the approach" (p. 144).

In the late 1970s Kohlberg's views on moral education changed significantly as he saw the failure of his cognitive approach to address the practical concerns of student behavior and discipline (Leming, 2008). Kohlberg's new goal was to develop moral judgment in students without indoctrinating them with a specific set of values (McClellen, 1999; Valk, 2007). Kohlberg centered his later work in moral education on creating what he called "just communities", making justice the central focus of this moral framework (Oser, Althof, & Higgins-D'Alessandro, 2008). Critics of this approach,

argued that this attempt by Kohlberg to avoid indoctrination while at the same time grounding his model in justice fails because it begs the question: 'why justice and not some other ethic?' (Valk, 2007). Kohlberg rather than arguing to justice seems to pick justice as an arbitrary starting point, thus failing to provide a basis on which to ground his model. Although Kohlberg attempted to design a more practically useful approach to moral education, the just community approach (like the cognitive developmental approach) was not well received by practicing teachers and remains largely unused (Leming, 2008).

James Rest. While Kohlberg's models of moral instruction never found wide acceptance, it is his six-stage theory of moral development that has made Kohlberg's impact so significant. James Rest of the University of Minnesota modified Kohlberg's six-stage model and used his "neo-Kohlbergian" approach to develop the Defining Issues Test (DIT), which has spawned over 400 published articles (Rest et al., 2000). Rest reconfigured Kohlberg's six stages into three moral schemas (see Table 3).

Table 3

Three Schemas Used in the DIT (Rest et al., 2000)

Personal Interest	Derives from Kohlberg's Stage 2 and 3.
	Displays an understanding that society is organized according to rules applying to various institutions and roles.
	Raises questions about social morality and moral authority.
Maintaining Norms	Derives from Kohlberg's stage 4.
	Focused on maintaining the established social order.
	Represents a basic way to understand society wide cooperation.
Postconventional	Derives from Kohlberg's Stage 5 and 6.

	Moral obligations derive from shared ideals, can be tested based on logical consistency, and are completely reciprocal.
	Comprised of four components: primacy of moral criteria; based moral ideas; ideals that can be shared and full reciprocity.

According to Rest et al. (2000),

> Schemas are general knowledge structures residing in long-term memory… A schema consists of a representation of some prior stimulus phenomenon and is used to interpret new information (sometimes referred to as "top-down" processing). Schemas are evoked (or "activated") by current stimulus configurations that resemble previous stimuli (p. 389).

Rather than viewing moral development as progressing through concrete moral stages, Rest based his movement through the three schemas on changes in the frequency in which the schema was used. Rest (2000) viewed his schemas as "developmentally ordered ways of answering the "macro" question (how to get along with people who are not friends, kin or personal acquaintances, i.e. how to organize society-wide co-operation)" (p. 386). Rest, unlike Kohlberg, was not concerned with trying to develop a system of universal morality as an answer to the challenge of relativism. Instead, Rest (2000) endorsed the position that morality is a "social construction, evolving from the community's experiences, particular social institutional arrangements, deliberations, and the aspirations that are voiced at the time and which win the support of the community" (p. 385). Again this position faces the question "Whence do moral obligations arise if they are nothing more than social constructs?" as well as the ontological question of whether morality really objectively exists.

Values clarification. Another offshoot of the shift away from teaching objective moral values and duties was the values clarification method of moral education. The values clarification model, (based on the work of Louis Raths, Merrill Harmon, Sidney Simon and Howard Kirschenbaum) involved teachers using value neutral methods such as describing moral dilemmas designed to assist students in forming and refining their own moral values and duties (Beach, 1992; Beachum & McCray, 2005; McClellan, 1999). Between 1975 and 1984, 75 studies were conducted (90% of which were unpublished dissertations) to evaluate the effectiveness of the values clarification method of moral education (Leming, 1985; Leming, 2008). According to Leming (1985), "As impressive as the string of research on values clarification is, and it is continuing unabated into the 1980s, it is even more remarkable in light of the consistently unimpressive results of the findings" (p. 130). Eventually the general ineffectiveness of values clarification, coupled with the lack of supporting research and the relativistic ethical approach joined with the shifting political state of the country to bring an end to this approach in the late 1980s (Ryan, 2008; Leming, 2008; Prestwich, 2004).

The return of motivational moral education. Since the CEI study, the inculcation of objective moral virtues had fallen out of vogue with many proponents of moral education in favor of more relativistic approaches. This progressive approach aimed at discovering values led to the values clarification, cognitive developmentalism, and feminist approaches, all of which failed to gain widespread acceptance for the reasons discussed above. Additionally, a rapid 40-year rise in violent crime, teen-pregnancy, drug abuse, and high levels of dishonesty and irresponsibility brought about a call for a return to a traditional value-centered approach (Ryan, 2008; Milson, 1999;

McClellan, 1999). While the schools during this period had done much to further minority rights and increase toleration, they had little if anything to say about individual ethical responsibilities (McClellan, 1999).

The idea behind the virtue centered character education movement is that there exists a set of morally desirable traits that everyone can agree upon, and these should be purposefully taught in the schools in accord with the Motivational Theory of moral education (Prestwich, 2004; McClellan, 1999; Moral education, 2004; Rest, 1979). With the support of the federal government, and spearheaded by William J. Bennett (secretary of education during the Reagan administration) the moral education movement sought to hasten a return to a more traditional form of moral education in the schools (McClellan, 1999; Clouse, 2001).

According to Edginton (2002), by the early 2000s character education had become the fastest growing school reform movement in the US. McClellan (1999) supported this observation by stating, "Although the American Institute of Character Education's Character Education Curriculum attracted relatively little attention in established educational forums, it spread rapidly in elementary schools, reaching as many as eighteen thousand classrooms in forty-four states by the late 1980s" (p. 90). This movement toward character education increased as many states mandated moral education standards (Stiff-Williams, 2010). According to Stiff-Williams (2010),

> In 2008, the Character Education Partnership (CEP) determined that eighteen states have mandated moral education standards and another eight states have legislation that encourages the teaching of moral education. As evidence for the national consensus for moral education, the federal government has funded forty

states through grants to support the teaching of moral education in schools (http://www.character.org/). (p. 116)

Despite the seeming consensus of support for character education, the problem of how best to educate students to become moral citizens is far from decided. Disagreements persist over whose values will be taught and what values will be included on the list of agreed upon common beliefs (Milson, 2000; Moral education, 2004). Thomas Lickona (1991), a leader in the character education movement said, "good character consists of knowing the good, desiring the good, and doing the good- habits of the mind, habits of the heart, and habits of action" (p. 51). However, this raises the age-old philosophical question of moral ontology, which traditionally has been answered by religion. Likona (1991) recognizes this dilemma and says that "public schools… should accurately portray the role of religion… in moral questions; but they must also find a basis for defining and teaching morality that compels rational assent without requiring religious belief" (p. 41), a goal that has yet to be achieved (Clouse, 2001).

There is also disagreement over the methodology of character education and the degree to which didactic instruction should be used (Milson, 2000). Research in the field seeks to point toward the most effective methods of moral education, but as was the case for cognitive developmentalism, the research seems to be having limited impact on the day-to-day efforts of classroom teachers (Leming, 2008). This is the current state of moral education in the US, while support for moral education exits, consensus on what it should consist of and how it should be accomplished remains elusive (Beachum, McCray, Yawn & Obiakor, 2013; Milson, 2000; Leming, 2008).

High School Student Cheating

According to former Rutgers University professor Donald McCabe, "95% of high school students say they've cheated during the course of their education, ranging from letting somebody copy their homework to cheating on tests" (Most Kids Cheat, Study Says, 2008). Perhaps more troubling than this is that based on six years of surveying over 24,000 students (grades 9-12) in roughly 70,000 high schools, McCabe's research shows that students are not really concerned about the fact that they are cheating (Most Kids Cheat, Study Says, 2008). This is a big problem given that, as has been discussed by Labaree (1997) one of the main goals of education is to create "good citizens" who are hard working and honest. The following is a brief summary of the research showing the widespread and growing nature of this problem, how students feel about cheating, what motivates them to cheat and what types of cheating are prevalent.

General trends in high school cheating. Schab (1991) published a study looking at high school cheating over a 20-year period from 1969 to 1989. The study consisted of a survey developed in 1968 and administered to 1,629 students in 1969, 1,100 students in 1979 and 1,291 students in 1989 (Schab, 1991). The survey asked students to respond to questions in the following seven categories: How much cheating is believed to be going on; who was the most guilty; reasons given for cheating; the courses in which most cheating occurred; how to punish cheaters and by whom; beliefs regarding dishonesty in society and finally confessions of their own dishonest behaviors in school (Schab, 1991).

Table 4

Schab's (1991) Thirty Year Cheating Study: Percentage of Yes responses by year.

Societal Dishonesty Questions	1969	1979	1989
1. A cheater in school will cheat on the job.	71.8	53.6	42.7
2. Sometimes it is necessary to be dishonest.	33.5	64.1	66.6
8. Honesty is always the best policy.	82.3	73.3	59.9
Confessions of Dishonesty			
3. Have you used a cheat sheet on a test?	33.8	59.5	67.8
8. If you found a $20 bill at school would you turn it in?	80.7	59.8	31.7
9. Would you cheat if it were the only way to get a diploma?	48.5	50.6	59.8
11. Have you let others copy your work?	58.3	92.5	97.5

Schab's (1991) study reveals a general decrease in aversion toward dishonesty across the twenty years (as shown by selected questions in Table 4), and an increase in the willingness to engage in dishonest behavior.

Most cheating studies are survey based in which the researcher determines the topics to be investigated (McCabe, 1999). A 1999 Donald McCabe sought to avoid this limitation by addressing the relevant issues and perceptions related to cheating from the student perspective (McCabe, 1999). To do this, four focus groups consisting of 32 (total) high school and college students from northern New Jersey were formed to discuss cheating in schools. The study reported that nearly all confessed to cheating (McCabe, 1999). McCabe (1999) observed the high school students to be "decidedly more blasé about cheating than were the college students" (p. 682). The study also contained several quotes from the students indicating that the trend shown in the Schab (1991) study had continued into the late 1990's. One student in the study remarked, "it's almost a big deal if you don't cheat" (McCabe, 1999, p. 682).

McCabe and Katz (2009) state, "virtually every study of student cheating suggests the problem is real" (p. 16). In a 2009 study involving juniors and seniors at 22 public high schools around the country 74% of the participants admitted to cheating one or more times in the past year and 59% disclosed at least one incidence of plagiarism (McCabe & Katz, 2009). The same study indicated that students tend to cheat more often on assignments they deemed unfair, of little academic value or too challenging (McCabe & Katz, 2009).

It is interesting to note that while most students surveyed in cheating studies feel that having a good moral character is important, self-reported cheating levels continue to be high (McCabe & Katz, 2009). Research indicates a disconnect between perceptions of cheating and cheating behaviors (Honz, Kiewra, Yang, 2010; Williams, 2012). For example, Honz et al. (2010) found that 85% of students surveyed identified glancing at another students test answers during a test as wrong, however 87% of the same students admitted to having done it. Research also indicates that perceptions of what constitutes cheating are related to effort, role and environment (Honz et al., 2010). Students view cheating that requires students to do some of the work as less dishonest than cheating that required minimal effort (Honz et al., 2010). Giving answers or homework to another student is viewed more lightly than receiving or stealing answers or homework (Honz et al., 2010). Finally, cheating within the classroom was viewed as a greater offense than cheating outside the classroom (Honz et al., 2010).

Limited research has been conducted on cheating in relation to gifted and high-achieving high school students. One such study by Geddes (2011) surveyed students from a nationally ranked high school who were enrolled in AP and honors science and

math classes. Consistent with the previously discussed studies, cheating rates on homework and exams were high despite 81% of students believing they could perform well in the class without cheating (Geddes, 2011). This study also reported that 90% of the students surveyed cheated on homework and 63% admitted to cheating on an exam for their own benefit (Geddes, 2011). Also of interest, 57% of these high achieving students listed "driven by high GPA" as a reason for cheating, 52% listed "maintain HOPE eligibility (a GPA-based scholarship program), and 45% listed "more competitive for college admission" (Geddes, 2011, p. 5).

The influence of contextual and demographic factors that may relate to cheating behavior has also been examined in numerous studies. Contextual factors (especially peer related factors) accounted for 27% of the variance in self-reported cheating in a study involving nearly 1,800 students from nine different universities (McCabe & Trevino, 1997). Studies on the relationship between gender and cheating have not yielded consistent results (McCabe & Trevino, 1997). Most studies on the relationship between age and cheating have shown that cheating decreases with age (at the college level) (McCabe & Trevino, 1997). Finally while there is very little research on relationship of race and ethnicity, Williams (2011) found no significant relationships between demographic characteristics and cheating incidences or perceptions.

Several studies have discussed ways that students attempt to "neutralize" cheating despite believing it to be morally wrong (Geddes, 2011; McCabe & Trevino, 1997; Stephens, Young & Calabrese, 2007). For example, high achieving high school students listed reasons such as having an inattentive teacher, lack of consequences or unexpected opportunities as factors in countering their moral aversion toward cheating (Geddes,

2011). Students in the same study also listed nonacademic reasons for cheating which included helping a friend 67%, lack of effort 47%, loyalty to group (friends, sports team) 47%, unreasonable workload in course 45% and pressure from parents 42% (Geddes, 2011). Kohlberg's theory would necessitate that students who employ these neutralizing excuses be at the conventional level of moral development, as students at the postconventional stage would be expected to own up to their behavior (Stephens et. Al, 2007).

Cheating As It Relates To Moral Development

Since the Harthshorne & May CEI study published between 1928-1930 there have been very few studies investigating the relationship between student moral development and cheating. One such study was conducted by Leming (1978) in an effort to test the claim made by Kohlberg that higher stages of moral development result in clearer moral thinking and thus produce better actions. Leming (1979) first administered the DIT to 152 college undergraduate juniors and seniors (recruited from Leming's adolescent psychology classes). The subjects were then divided into three groups (High, Medium and Low) roughly corresponding to Kohlberg's three levels (Preconventional, Conventional, Postconventional (or Principled)). Finally, the Hartshorne and May (1928-1930) circles test (which involves memorizing the location of nine circles) was administered to measure the incidences of cheating (Leming 1978). Half of the subjects took the test under what Leming (1978) termed high threat high supervision (HTHS) conditions, and the rest took the test under low-threat low supervision (LTLS) conditions.

The findings indicated that among all the subjects the Lows cheated significantly more than the other group (Leming, 1978). Additionally, the only relationship identified

between the Highs and non-cheating behavior was in the HTHS environment where zero of the 10 highs cheated (Leming, 1978). In the LTLS environment there was no significant difference between any of the three groups regarding cheating behavior (Leming, 1978). This study, like that of Hartshorne and May (1928-1930) found moral behavior to be situation specific, regardless of moral development (Leming, 1978).

Williams (2012) conducted a study that "sought to fill the gap in the literature regarding how cheating correlates with the moral development level of college students based on Kohlberg's (1958) theory of moral development" (p. 57). Williams (2012) administered the DIT and McCabe's (2003) academic integrity survey to 476 undergraduate students in order to compare the students' moral developmental level with their perceptions toward cheating and their cheating behavior. The results indicated that the students' average *P* score (which measures the percentage of the subject's reasoning that is at the principled level on a scale from 0-100) was 10 points below the national average (Williams 2012). "Ninety percent of the students reported cheating in at least one of the 26 behaviors identified by McCabe as cheating" with "social cheating" being the most common type and "serious cheating" (as identified by the subjects) being the least common (Williams, 2012, p. 77).

The study found a significant relationship between the students' level of moral development and cheating incidences, with higher development related to less cheating (Williams, 2012). A significant relationship between cheating incidences and perceptions of cheating was also reported indicating that the less serious the cheating is perceived to be, the greater the amount of cheating incidences (Williams 2012). In general there was not a significant relation between levels of moral development and perceptions of

cheating, although a significant relation was found for cheating identified to be more serious such as plagiarism (Williams 2012). Finally, students with a moral development level in the middle or low category generally perceived cheating to be less serious than those of the high moral category (Williams 2012).

Summary

Education is an inherently moral endeavor, which has sought from its inception to make students not only more intelligent but also more neighborly. Protestant Biblical values dominated moral education in the U.S. from the founding of the first public schools until the CEI by Hartshorne and May (1928-1930). This study led to the abandonment of monotheistic notions of transcendent moral absolutes which were replaced by the subjective, Darwinian, situational morals favored by progressive educators such as Piaget, Dewey and Thorndike (Leming, 2008; Piaget, 1997). This movement away from Biblical morality was solidified by a series of Supreme Court rulings in the 1960's.

The late 1950's also saw the introduction of Lawrence Kohlberg's cognitive developmental method of moral education, based on understanding human interaction and social cooperation (Rest, 1979). Although Kohlberg's theory was not widely implemented in classrooms, he "probably has had more influence on the field of moral development and moral education than any other person in the United States, his six-stage theory having spawned over 5,000 studies by the late 1980s" (Clouse, 2000, p.25-26). Several decades later, James Rest of the University of Minnesota modified Kohlberg's six-stage model and used his "neo-Kohlbergian" approach to develop the Defining Issues Test (DIT), which has spawned over 400 published articles (Rest et al.,

2000). Rest reconfigured Kohlberg's six stages into three moral schemas meant to represent knowledge structures stored in long-term memory that are activated when a new social interaction is encountered (Rest et al., 2000). Rest (2000) viewed his schemas as "developmentally ordered ways of answering the "macro" question (how to get along with people who are not friends, kin or personal acquaintances, i.e. how to organize society-wide co-operation)" (p. 386).

Another offshoot of the shift away from teaching objective moral values and duties was the values clarification method of moral education. However, this approach (like all of the subjective models) was unable to answer the charge of moral relativism, and by the late 1980's after a rapid 40-year rise in violent crime, teen-pregnancy, drug abuse, and high levels of dishonesty and irresponsibility there was a call for a return to a traditional value-centered approach (Ryan, 2008; Leming, 2008; Milson, 1999; McClellan, 1999; Prestwich, 2004). This led to the character education movement which is based on the notion that there exists a set of morally desirable traits that everyone can agree upon and these should be purposefully taught in the schools in accord with the Motivational Theory of moral education (Prestwich, 2004; McClellan, 1999; Moral education, 2004; Rest, 1979). By the early 2000's character education had become the fastest growing school reform movement in the U.S., but despite the seeming consensus of support for character education the problem of how best to educate students to become moral citizens is far from decided (Edginton, 2002). Disagreements persist over the values to be taught and the method of instruction (Milson, 2000). This is the current state of moral education in the US, while support for moral education exits, consensus on what

it should consist of and how it should be accomplished remains elusive (Beachum, McCray, Yawn & Obiakor, 2013; Milson, 2000; Leming, 2008).

Despite all of the focus on moral education, cheating has always been a problem for educators, and research suggests that it is more prevalent than ever. According to former Rutgers University professor Donald McCabe, "95% of high school students say they've cheated during the course of their education, ranging from letting somebody copy their homework to cheating on tests" (Most Kids Cheat, Study Says, 2008). Not only does the research support an increase in the amount of cheating that is occurring, it also suggests that students' attitudes toward cheating have been changing as well. A thirty-year study published by Schab (1991) revealed a general decrease in aversion toward dishonesty across the thirty years, and an increase in the willingness to engage in dishonest behavior. Studies also support the notion that cheating is equally prevalent across academic levels and demographic variables such as ethnicity or gender, but it does decrease with age (at the college level) (Geddes, 2011; McCabe & Trevino, 1997; Williams, 2011).

Since the Harthshorne & May CEI study published between 1928-1930 there have been very few studies investigating the relationship between student moral development and cheating. First, a study by Leming (1978) sought to test the claim made by Kohlberg that higher stages of moral development result in clearer moral thinking and thus produce better actions. This study, like that of Hartshorne and May (1928-1930) found moral behavior to be situation specific, regardless of moral development (Leming, 1978). Finally, a study by Williams (2012) examined the relationship between college students' DIT scores and their cheating incidences and perceptions of cheating. This study found a

significant relationship between the students' level of moral development and cheating incidences, with higher development related to less cheating (Williams, 2012). A significant relationship between cheating incidences and perceptions of cheating was also reported indicating that the less serious the cheating is perceived to be, the greater the amount of cheating incidences (Williams 2012).

CHAPTER 3

Research Design and Methodology

Introduction

This quantitative study seeks to investigate a possible relationship between student's moral development and their perceptions and incidences of cheating. As in the Williams (2012) study, the Defining Issues Test-1 (DIT) and a version of McCabe's Academic Integrity Survey (2007) was used to gather the data. Unlike the Williams (2012) study, this study was conducted at the high school level and narrows the focus to an examination of moral development and cheating across grade and academic levels. The results of the study are then examined based on Labaree's (1997) theoretical framework for public education.

Research questions. This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a relationship between student grade point average (GPA), student grade level and/or academic level and student moral development?
2. Is there a relationship between student moral development, academic level and/or grade level and student perceptions of cheating?
3. Is there a relationship between student moral development, academic level, grade level, perception of cheating and student cheating incidences?

Research design. This study is a quantitative, non-experimental, correlational study. The study consists of one online survey divided into two separate sections, both of which were administered simultaneously through Qualtrics. The surveys were administered to first semester history students in grades 9-12 at a large northeastern

public high school.

Instrumentation

A two-part survey was used in this study. The first section consists of the short form of the DIT. The DIT test was uploaded to a professional Qualtrics account by the Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama. This test consists of three stories that present moral dilemmas followed by questions to determine moral development loosely based on Lawrence Kohlberg's six stages of moral development. The second section consists of McCabe's academic integrity survey which measures students' self reported frequency of cheating and their perceptions of the gravity of such behaviors.

DIT. The DIT is a quantitative instrument and is the "most widely used measure of moral development" (Thoma, 2002, p. 225). Originally the DIT was based on Lawrence Kohlberg's (1969) six-stage theory of moral development, however upon examination of data gathered during the 1970's through the 1990's, researchers shifted to a schema-based view of moral judgment development (Thoma & Dong, 2014). The Center for the Study of Ethical Development (2015) at the University of Alabama describes the DIT as a "device for activating moral schemas (to the extent that a person has developed them) and for assessing these schemas in terms of importance judgments." There are three recognizable moral schemas, ordered developmentally: The Personal Interest Schema (derived from Kohlberg's Stage 2 and 3); The Maintaining Norms Schema (derived from Kohlberg's Stage 4); and the Post-Conventional Schema (derived from Kohlberg's Stage 5 and 6) (Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Though still loosely based on Kohlberg's model, these schemas serve as a functional model through which people process new information as it relates to moral reasoning. The schemas represent a foundational understanding of social/moral exchanges, which enable new information to be interpreted through prior experience (Thoma & Dong, 2014). This is different from Kohlberg's model, where moral reasoning develops via independent stages passed through one at a time. According to Rest (2000), "the three moral schemas are developmentally ordered ways of answering the "macro" question (how to get along with people who are not friends, kin or personal acquaintances, i.e. how to organize society-wide co-operation)" (p. 386). Schemas are activated when people encounter new situations that resemble previous situations in order to make sense and fill in the gaps of missing information, thus allowing the person to form a moral decision (Rest, 2000).

The DIT functions as a device for triggering moral schemas (Rest, 2000). Reading the moral scenarios and issue statements presented in the DIT causes the subject to activate the moral schemas that they have developed (Rest, 2000). The items of the DIT (to be ranked by the reader) are composed of incomplete position statements or questions, which promote a position or course of action (Rest, 2000). Rest (2000) states that, "the items balance "bottom-up" processing (stating just enough of a line of argument for understanding) with "top-down" processing (stating not too much of a line of argument so that the participant has to "fill in" the meaning from schemas already in long-term memory)" (p. 389). When the subject reads a DIT item that they understand and which engages a known schema, they will give that item a high rating and will rank it as being important (Rest, 2000). According to Rest, "in a sense, the DIT is a "projective

test" in that the fragmented nature of the items requires the participants to supply meaning to the items that they are rating" (p. 390)

Due to time constraints, this study employed the short form of the DIT-1 test, which consists of three dilemmas rather than six. According to the Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama (2015), using the short form will drop results by about 10 points in reliability (Cronbach's alpha), and roughly 10 points in correlations with external variables. Each DIT dilemma is followed by 12 issue statements defining central aspects of the dilemma from the perspective of the different schemas that must be rated and ranked according to their moral importance (Thoma & Dong, 2014). Once ranked, the participant is asked to rank the four items (out of the 12) that best describe their beliefs as to how the protagonist should solve the dilemma (Thoma & Dong, 2014). Based on how many of the items ranked in the top four are related to the Post-Conventional Schema, an index called N2 is calculated to represent moral development level on a scale from 0 (no moral reasoning) to 100 (all reasoning at the highest moral level) (Rest, Thoma, Narvaez & Bebeau, 1997; Thoma & Dong, 2014).

The N2 is calculated based on a combination of the ranking and the rating of the items relating to the DIT scenarios (Rest et al., 1997). If a person ranks a "principled" item as "most important" this increases their score by four points, in second place by three points, and so on (Rest et al., 1997). Additionally, "discrimination is measured in terms of the average rating given to items at Stages 2 and 3 (the lower stages) subtracted from the average rating given from items at Stages 5 and 6" (Rest et al., 1997, p. 501). This N2 score will then be used to conduct correlation analyses to show relationships between moral development levels, frequency of cheating and perceptions of cheating.

DIT reliability. According to Thoma and Dong (2014), "the empirical support for the DIT test as a measure of moral judgment development is many and varied" (p. 59). The DIT has been validated according to the following six criteria: differentiation of various age/educational groups; longitudinal gains; correlation with cognitive capacity measures; sensitivity to moral education interventions; correlation with behavior and professional decision making; and predicting to political choice and attitude (The Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama, 2015; Thoma & Dong, 2014). These findings are the result of over 400 published studies over a 35-year period (The Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama, 2015; Thoma & Dong, 2014). The criteria relevant to this study are discussed below; a full discussion of the six criteria is included in the appendix.

Differentiating age and educational groups. The DIT has been shown to be able to differentiate between groups according to age and educational level. Large composite samples (thousands of subjects) show that 30% to 50% of the variance of DIT scores is attributable to level of education in samples ranging from junior-high education to Ph.D.s (Thoma & Dong, 2014). That a graduate philosophy student should score higher than a freshman undergraduate is to be expected on the cognitive developmental model of moral development.

Longitudinal gains. The cognitive developmental model by its very name suggests that the capacity for moral reasoning should increase across time. Rest (1986) demonstrated this in a 10-year longitudinal study that demonstrated increased summary scores regardless of gender, college attendance or profession. A review of 12 studies comparing a total of 755 DIT scores of freshmen to senior college students showed large

gains (Cohen's d statistic of .80) (Thoma & Dong, 2014). Thoma and Dong (2014) claim that the DIT "produces some of the most dramatic longitudinal gains" of any variables studied in samples of college students (p.60).

Correlation with cognitive capacity measures. Because of the developmental nature of the DIT schemas there should be evidence of a relationship between moral reasoning and other cognitive measures. The challenge however is to ensure that the test is actually measuring moral reasoning and not general cognitive ability or other related variables such as verbal ability (Sanders, Lubinski & Benbow, 1995; Thoma & Dong, 2014). Overall, the existing literature indicates that DIT scores are significantly related to measures of cognitive capacity and moral comprehension, to recall and reconstruction of post-conventional moral argument, to Kohlberg's measure, and to other cognitive developmental measures (Rest, 1979; Rest, 1986; Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Additional Reliability Measures. In addition to these six criteria of validity, the DIT has been shown to be valid distinct from numerous other variables (such as verbal ability, general intelligence and political attitudes) that might be thought to influence scores (Thoma & Dong, 2014). According to the Center for the study of ethical development (2015), Cronbach's alpha for the DIT is in the high .70 to low .80 range, and reliability for test-retest scores is roughly the same. The DIT is also equally valid for both females and males as gender accounts for less than .5% of the variance in scores, compared to education which is 250 times more effective in predicting variance (Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Criticism of the DIT. The greatest challenge to all cognitive theory models of moral development is the absence of any ontological foundation. As discussed in chapter

two, James Rest developed the DIT as a way of measuring which moral schemas are being activated based on the different scenarios described in the test. Each scenario given on the DIT is followed by the question of "what should" the character in the story do. Scoring on the DIT is based on what factors, (which represent one of the three levels of schemas) the test taker considers important in deciding "what should" be done. These schemas are developmentally ordered based on Lawrence Kohlberg's (1973) six stage cognitive developmental model. Scoring is based on the premise that individuals who have a more developed level of moral reasoning will select postconventional (or principled) level schemas more often, which results in a higher N2 score.

But why think that postconventional schemas, which promote shared ideals and full reciprocity, represent a higher level of moral development? As stated in chapter one, at best these postconventional schemas provide an epistemological framework for arriving at moral decisions (like that of Rawls's veil of ignorance or Kant's categorical imperative). In the absence of an objective foundation for moral values and duties, morality is reduced to nothing more than a useful fiction based on personal preference. Further, to ask what "should" be done is to assume that the character in the story has a moral obligation to act in a certain way, but who or what lays such a duty upon them (or us)? As Craig (2010) states:

> To say that ideally rational people would agree in any given situation that we ought to do *A* is, as I said, to assume that moral minimalists like nihilists, egoists, and libertarians, are all irrational. If they can be ideally rational, then we have no moral duties in any situation, since ideally rationally agents would not agree on a course of action we ought to take. …The theist grounds moral duty in God and

> makes no requirement of consensus. …I think that atheistic nihilists are perfectly rational, given their presuppositions. I think they're wrong, but hardly irrational, as least as far as the arguments go.

The lack of any ontological foundation for the cognitive developmental view of morality is especially problematic when combined with the assertion that the DIT actually measures political affiliation rather than moral development (Crowson & DeBacker, 2008). There is a well documented negative correlation between conservative political ideology and the DIT, which has been acknowledged by Rest to be the greatest threat to its construct validity (Bailey, 2011; Crowson & DeBacker, 2008; Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau, & Thoma, 1999). A study by Emler, Renwick and Malone (1983) reported that self-identified conservative individuals were able to raise their scores by answering as if they were politically liberal. Markoulis (1989) reported similar findings in a cross-cultural study, as did Fisher and Sweeney (1998) in a study involving undergraduate accounting students.

In response, Barnett, Evens, and Rest (1995) attempted to show that the inflated scores were not based on political affiliation, but instead indicated that those faking liberal answers did not understand the content of the postconventional items on the DIT, nor did they understand the alternative options available when ranking items (Crowson & DeBacker, 2008). Emler, Palmer-Canton, and St. James (1998) along with Emler and Stace (1999) rebutted the defense of the DIT by Barnett et al. (1995) with a series of studies supporting their position that "[conservatives] do not obtain 'lower' scores on moral reasoning measures because they are incapable of obtaining 'higher' scores, but

because the moral arguments they express convey the political identity they wish to communicate" (Elmer & Stance, 1999).

Aside from all of the studies defending both respective views however, the idea that liberal ideology represents the pinnacle of moral development seems to beg the question. Kohlbergian thought seems to conclude that because one is fully morally developed, they are liberal, and because one is liberal they are fully morally developed. But why think egalitarian morality based on fairness and justice is preferable, especially on an atheistic naturalistic worldview? By the same notion, a person with a highly developed understanding of moral thinking who adheres to the divine command theory of morality seems to be relegated to a lower score on the DIT.

Instrumentation: McCabe's academic integrity survey. McCabe's Academic Integrity Survey (High School Version), (McCabe, 2003) was also used in conjunction with the DIT to collect data on student cheating. The high school version of McCabe's Academic Integrity Survey was created in conjunction with McCabe's research on honor codes spanning two decades and has been administered to over 70,000 students (Center for Academic Integrity, 2015; McCabe, 2015). The survey consists of standardized questions to measure cheating frequency and perceptions about cheating. The survey was modified from its original format (as in the Williams (2012) study), by excluding the "not relevant" option on the incidences scale, (as "never" and "not relevant" amount to the same response for the purpose of the study. Additionally, the choices for cheating incidences were expanded from "never", "once", "more than once" to also include "2-3 times", "4-5 times", and "more than 6 times". Demographic questions indicating grade level and academic track, GPA and gender were also added.

The Academic Integrity (McCabe, 2007) portion of the data was measured for reliability by calculating a Cronbach alpha score for the 18 variables of cheating incidences and perceptions. Williams (2012) using the college version of McCabe's Academic Integrity survey (consisting of 26 items) had a Cronbach alpha score of .92 for questions related to student cheating incidences and .95 for questions about perceptions of cheating.

Participants

This study was conducted at a large semi-urban (grades nine through 12) high school in the northeastern United States. This location was chosen primarily due to convenience in obtaining permission to conduct the study, as well as the large and diverse student body. The survey was administered to students who voluntarily returned the parental consent form and are enrolled in history during the first semester of the 2016-2017 school year (approximately 1500 students). For a linear multiple regression analysis including eight predictors, assuming a medium effect size, the number to achieve 80% power at the alpha level of .05 is 109.

While students may differ across subject areas as to the academic level of their courses, for this study the surveys were distributed based on the grade level of the history class. The students are grouped in the history classes according to academic level with three levels in ninth grade (on-level; college prep; honors) and four levels in grades 10 through 12 (advanced placement (AP) is added and is a full year course). These are not strict levels, meaning that students can change levels from year to year and even from course to course. For example, a college prep math student may have an honors history class. On-level students are generally not college bound and are working at or below

their actual grade level. College prep is the lowest level of potentially college bound students, with honors above them and AP essentially doing college level work.

Although the distribution was by grade level (of history class), the survey also included a question allowing students to self-identify their academic level (because as mentioned above academic level can vary from class to class). Special education students are included into the regular education classes to the fullest extent possible, so although the student were not be required to self-identify as a special education student, special education students were included in the subject population. A 12 year-old reading level is required to take the DIT, so students not able to participate in a regular classroom setting were excluded from the study (Rest, 2000).

Procedure

An overview of the proposed study was presented to the history teachers of the school. The purpose of the study and the procedure for conducting the study was explained at to them at this time. It was made known at this time that participation in this survey is completely voluntary. At the end of this meeting I asked teachers who were interested in participating in the survey to email me the number of participation slips they would need.

The history teachers who agree to participate administered the parental permission slips to the students in their classes. At this time the history teachers were asked to read the section of the permission slip explaining the purpose of the study, who is conducting the study and when and how the survey will be administered. A period of four weeks was given for the forms to be returned and the survey to be administered.

Teachers participating in the study were given uniform written instructions on how to administer the test and appropriate testing environment (which can be viewed in the appendix). Teachers were asked to emphasize the confidentiality of the study, and make an appeal for best effort and honest answers prior to beginning the study. Based on the number and distribution of the forms returned, a further four weeks was needed to ask additional ninth grade and teachers with on-level classes in any grade to participate (due to a lower participation rate in these sub-groups).

Students accessed the study through laptop computers in their regular history room. The history department has access to six mobile carts, each containing 30 laptop computers that were be used for the study. According to the Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama (2015) preliminary findings indicate that with a cognitively complex measure like the DIT the test-taking environment is important and the gold standard is a group-testing environment.

To ensure the best results it was also important that the class environment is quiet and free from distractions. The teachers were to begin by reading the written instructions to the students. All students were then to be given a laptop and directed to log into the computer as a guest, rather than using their district assigned log in username and password. Students who were not participating in the survey were to log onto the website http://www.eyewitnesstohistory.com/ and read short history accounts of their choosing. Students taking the survey accessed the survey through a link on a Google Classroom page. Directions on how to log in, and the code for accessing the classroom page with the survey link were to be read and written on the front board of each classroom.

Students accessed the survey through a Qualtrics "anonymous survey link" that does not track identifying information and begin the survey. When students finished with the survey, they were also to log onto the history web site and read accounts until the end of the block, or until everyone taking the survey is finished. The teachers were responsible for maintaining a quiet environment and ensuring that the students are on the appropriate websites. Teachers were also instructed not to help students with the survey, and not to read the responses of students taking the survey.

There were no technological or behavioral problems reported during the survey. Class duration is 78 minutes so all of the students were able to complete the study in one sitting. Students who were absent on the day of the study were given the opportunity to participate in the study when they return to school if they wished.

Data Analysis

After data collection is complete, the scores for the DIT were downloaded into a condensed SPSS format and emailed to the Center for the Study of Ethical Development. The Center for the Study of Ethical Development scored the DIT portion of the survey, which consists of several measures for each participant such as their "anti-social" score, "personal-interest" (stage 2-3) score, "maintaining-norms" (stage 4) score, "personal interest (P) score and the N2 score. The only score of interest for this study is the N2 score. Additionally, a preliminary data analysis using SPSS (version 24) was conducted to check descriptive statistical information for all key values including frequency counts for categorical variables, mean, standard deviation and skewness/kurtosis for continuous variables. A Cronbach's alpha will also be calculated to check the internal consistency reliability of the McCabe survey results.

Research question one was investigated by running a hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis where student GPA, student academic level and student grade level are the independent variables and moral development (N2 score) is the dependent variable. The various assumptions necessary for a meaningful outcome of the regression analysis were also checked. These include checking the residuals statistics for any cases greater or equal to 3, and running a Cook's distance test to check for outliers ($D < 1$) (Field, 2009). Matrix scatterplots and Pearson correlations were analyzed to check for linearity of the model ($r > .80$ is acceptable) (Field, 2009). Collinearity statistics were checked to ensure the absence of multicollinearity making sure the tolerance > .20 or the VIF < 10 (Field, 2009). Scatterplots and histograms were also evaluated to check for homoscedasticity and normality of residuals. Because two of the independent variables are categorical (grade and academic level) they were both dummy coded using ninth grade, and on-level as the respective reference groups.

A hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis was also conducted for research question two, where student moral development (N2 score), student academic level and student grade level are the independent variables and student perception of cheating is the dependent variable. Again all of the assumptions for a meaningful outcome were checked in the same manner as for question one. Both independent categorical variables (grade and academic level) were again dummy coded with ninth grade and on-level as the reference groups. The analysis was run using the sum of the mean scores for cheating perceptions question respectively with a possible range from 18 to 72. Prior to conducting the regression analysis, the cheating perception scores were inversely dummy coded so that "not cheating" was coded 4, "trivial cheating" was coded 3, "moderate

cheating" was coded 2 and "serious cheating" was coded 1. The rational for this is that a student who is more prone to cheating would have a higher average cheating incidence score, and so for comparison it would make sense for the student who sees more types of cheating to be less serious to also have a higher average score.

Finally, research question three was also investigated using a hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis with student grade level, student academic level, student moral development (N2 score) and student cheating perception total are the independent variables, and student likelihood of cheating is the dependent variable. Student grade level and academic level were dummy coded as in questions one and two, with ninth grade and on-level as the reference groups. The analysis was run using the sum of the mean scores for each cheating incidences and cheating perceptions question respectively with a possible range from 18 to 72 for cheating perceptions and 18 to 90 for cheating incidences. Prior to conducting the regression analysis, the cheating perception scores were inversely dummy coded so that "not cheating" was coded 4, "trivial cheating" was coded 3, "moderate cheating" was coded 2 and "serious cheating" was coded 1. As in research questions one and two, the data were checked prior to running the analysis to determine if the assumptions necessary for a meaningful outcome are met.

Following statistical analysis, results were compared to expected results based on Labaree's (1997) three purposes or goals of public education: democratic equity; social efficiency; and social mobility. Specifically, differences in N2 score and perceptions of cheating were compared with cheating incidences in relation with grade level and academic track. The results were also used to evaluate potential relationships between student behavior and the perceived purpose of public education.

Summary

This quantitative study (like Williams (2012)), examines a possible relation between students moral reasoning and cheating incidences and perceptions. Unlike Williams (2012), this study focuses on high school students with specific focus on differences across grade and academic levels. The results of the study are examined based on Labaree's (1997) theoretical framework for public education.

Parental permission was obtained for students before their participation in the study. History teachers administered the study to students during part of their history class. Participation was entirely voluntary, and no personal information that could be used to identify individual students was collected. Permission forms were distributed to participating teachers in an effort to have all grade levels and all academic tracks as equally represented as possible.

The survey consists of two parts. The first part includes the short form version of the Defining Issues Test (DIT), which is the most widely used measurement instrument for moral development. The DIT includes three moral scenarios that are read and a series of responses based on scenarios that are ranked in order of the best action to take. The second part of the survey includes a series of questions about student attitudes toward different types of cheating and questions about cheating behaviors they have participated in. Confidence levels were assessed to analyze the reliability of the survey results.

Chapter 4

Results

Introduction

This quantitative study examines a possible relation between students moral reasoning and cheating incidences and perceptions. This study focuses on high school students with specific focus on differences across grade and academic levels. The results of the study are examined based on Labaree's (1997) theoretical framework for public education.

Population Demographics

An overview of the proposed study was presented to the history teachers of the high school. The history teachers who agreed to participate administered the parental permission slips to the students in their classes. At this time the history teachers were asked to read the section of the permission slip explaining the purpose of the study, who is conducting the study and when and how the survey will be administered. A period of four weeks was given for the forms to be returned and the survey to be administered.

As was anticipated, on-level participation was difficult to procure. Most on-level students were either not interested in participating or failed to return the permission slips, despite a willingness on the part of on-level teachers to participate in the study. There were 28 ninth grade students that identified themselves as AP level students, despite the fact that there are no 9^{th} grade AP courses offered. These will be combined with the honors sections for analysis.

There are no 10^{th} grade on-level students represented in the study. Although there were 10^{th} grade teachers with on-level classes that were willing to participate in the

survey, there were no 10th grade on-level students in those sections who returned their permission slips. I was unable to find other 10th grade teachers in additional on-level sections willing to participate, resulting in that segment being unrepresented.

Seventeen out of the 23 history teachers in the school agreed to participate in the study. Roughly 1,500 permission slips were given to these teachers for distribution to their students. Five hundred twenty-nine permission slips were signed, returned and collected, and a total of 529 students took the survey, making the student participation rate roughly 35%.

The demographic breakdown of the survey participants can be seen in Table 5. There were 52 students who did not answer the questions asking them to identify their gender and academic level. An independent t-test revealed a significant difference in N2 scores between the students who identified their academic level and those who did not $t(492) = 2.50$, $p = .013$, $r = .01$. The mean N2 score of the students that provided a GPA was 24.82 ($SD = 14.63$) compared to a mean of 15.85 ($SD = 11.64$) for those who did not. These results were identical for the students that did not identify their gender. There was also no significant difference found in either the cheating incidence or cheating perception scores of these students.

There were 98 students who did not answer the question asking them to identify their approximate GPA. An independent t-test revealed a significant difference in N2 scores between the students who identified their GPA and those who did not $t(492) = 2.35$, $p = .019$, $r = .01$. The mean N2 score of the students that provided a GPA was 25.10 ($SD = 14.73$) compared to a mean of 20.49 ($SD = 13.24$) for those who did not.

There was no significant difference found in either the cheating incidence or cheating perception scores of these students.

Forty-two students (7.9%) did not answer the cheating incidences portion of the survey, and 45 (8.5%) did not answer the cheating perceptions portion. While the mean N2 scores were higher for the students that completed these sections of the survey (24.65 incidences, 24.69 perceptions) compared to those who did not (15.08 incidences, 15.69 perceptions) these differences were not statistically significant.

Table 5
Survey Demographics

Grade/Academic Level	Total	Males	Females
9th grade On-Level	12	5	7
9th grade College Prep	24	10	14
9th grade Honors	13	6	7
9th grade AP	28	6	22
10th grade On-Level	0	0	0
10th grade College Prep	7	3	4
10th grade Honors	37	13	24
10th grade AP	62	19	43
11th grade On-Level	5	2	3
11th grade College Prep	89	33	56
11th grade Honors	16	6	10
11th grade AP	27	8	19
12th grade On-Level	15	11	4
12th grade College Prep	46	19	27
12th grade Honors	60	24	36
12th grade AP	4	0	4
Total Males	175		
Total Females	302		
Total students answering gender question	477		
Total On-Level	32		
Total College Prep	180		
Total Honors	143		
Total AP	122		
Total students answering academic level question	477		
Total participants completing only DIT	2		
Participants that did not answer demographic questions	52		
Total survey participants	529		

Instrument Reliability Analysis

A Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the whole McCabe Academic Integrity section of the survey. An additional Cronbach's alpha was run for both the cheating incidence and cheating perception sections of the survey. Finally, a Cronbach's alpha was calculated for the DIT. The results of the reliability analysis are listed in Table 6.

Table 6

Cronbach Alpha Results

Survey Segment	Number of Valid Responses	Number of Items	Alpha
McCabe Academic Integrity Total	484	36	.82
Cheating Incidences Total	487	18	.89
Cheating Perceptions Total	484	18	.84
DIT Test	509	62	.83

DIT Results

After all survey results were collected, the DIT results were downloaded into a condensed SPSS format and emailed to the Center for the Study of Ethical Development for scoring. The relevant test result from the DIT for this study is the N2 score. The N2 (is calculated based on a combination of the ranking and the rating of the items relating to the DIT scenarios (Rest et al., 1997). If a person ranks a "principled" item as "most important" this increases their score by four points, in second place by three points, and so on (Rest et al., 1997). Additionally, "discrimination is measured in terms of the average rating given to items at Stages 2 and 3 (the lower stages) subtracted from the average rating given from items at Stages 5 and 6" (Rest et al., 1997, p. 501).

The range for the N2 is generally 0-95, although it is possible for scores to be negative. This is because the N2 score is computed by adjusting the respondents P score up or down depending on the how Postconventional thinking is prioritized (adjusted up) versus Personal Interest thinking (adjusted down). Therefore, when the P score is low

and the respondent prioritizes Personal Interests thinking over Postconventional thinking their N2 score might result in a negative.

On the DIT section of the survey, 475 out of 529 tests were fully completed and scored by the Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama. The mean N2 score was 24.78, which is roughly six points lower than the national norm of 30.97 for students in grades 10-12 (Dong, 2016). As expected, the mean N2 score rose across grade levels, going from 20.24 in 9th grade to 30.61 in 12th grade. Average N2 scores also rose across grade levels when academic level was included, going from a mean of 20.24 in 9th grade to 30.61in 12th grade. The results of a one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference in N2 scores between student grade level and N2 score $F(3,473) = 14.40$, $p < .001$, *partial* $\eta^2 = .08$. The post hoc Tukey's HSD tests indicate that four of the six pairwise comparisons are significant at the .05 level. Specifically, 12th grade students ($M = 30.61$, $SD = 14.31$) have significantly higher N2 scores than 11th grade students ($M = 25.10$, $SD = 14.68$), $p = .005$, 10th grade students ($M = 20.29$, $SD = 12.72$), $p < .001$, and 9th grade students ($M = 20.24$, $SD = 14.04$), $p < .001$, and 11th grade student N2 scores are significantly higher than 10th grade students, $p = .035$. These results can be seen in Table 7 below. An independent t-test also revealed a significant difference in N2 scores based on gender $t(475) = -2.06$, $p = .040$, $r = .01$, with the mean score for females 25.86 ($SD = 14.88$) and for males 23.01, ($SD = 14.06$). The DIT results can be seen in Table 8 below.

Table 7

Tukey's HSD Post Hoc Results for N2 Compared Across Grade Level

(I) Grade Level Mean	(J) Grade Level Mean	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
9th grade (20.24)	10th grade (20.29)	-.0505	2.08394	1.000
	11th grade (25.10)	-4.8598	1.94852	.062
	12th grade (30.61)	-10.3700*	1.97944	.000
10th grade (20.29)	9th grade (20.24)	.0505	2.08394	1.000
	11th grade (25.10)	-4.8093*	1.77285	.035
	12th grade (30.61)	-10.3195*	1.80677	.000
11th grade (25.10)	9th grade (20.24)	4.8598	1.94852	.062
	10th grade (20.29)	4.8093*	1.77285	.035
	12th grade (30.61)	-5.5102*	1.64874	.005
12th grade (30.61)	9th grade (20.24)	10.3700*	1.97944	.000
	10th grade (20.29)	10.3195*	1.80677	.000
	11th grade (25.10)	5.5102*	1.64874	.005

Table 8

DIT Results

Category	N	Mean N2 Score	Std. Deviation
9th grade	79	20.24	14.04
10th grade	107	20.29	12.72
11th grade	152	25.10	14.68
12th grade	139	30.61	14.31
Total for all students	477	24.82	14.63
On-Level	32	10.77	9.17
College Prep	180	19.88	12.31
Honors	143	26.63	14.33
AP	122	33.67	13.57
9th On-Level	2	6.14	4.29
9th College Prep	51	18.28	12.89
9th Honors	24	24.08	15.29
9th AP	2	38.15	9.26
Total 9th grade/academic	79	20.24	14.04
10th College-Prep	13	11.43	7.15
10th Honors	58	19.90	10.76
10th AP	36	24.11	15.48
Total 10th grade/academic	107	20.29	12.72
11th On-Level	11	9.73	9.88
11th College Prep	62	20.14	13.19
11th Honors	41	28.23	14.45
11th AP	38	34.24	11.51
11th grade/academic Total	152	25.10	14.68
12th On-Level	6	12.82	13.53
12th College Prep	9	27.00	11.12
12th Honors	42	28.66	12.46
12th AP	82	33.30	14.59

Category	N	Mean N2 Score	Std. Deviation
12th grade/academic Total	139	30.61	14.31
On-Level	32	10.77	9.17
College Prep	180	19.88	12.31
Honors	143	26.63	14.33
AP	122	33.67	13.57
Academic Total	477	24.82	14.63
National DIT2 norm grades(10-12)	2284	30.97	14.83
Total all participants	475	24.78	14.75

McCabe's Academic Integrity Survey Results

Cheating incidences. On the cheating incidences portion of the survey, only five students out of 487 indicated that they have never engaged in any form of cheating, meaning that nearly 99% of participants admitted to cheating in some form at least once. The two most frequent forms of cheating by a wide margin involved cheating on homework assignments. On question number 14, 229 out of 487 participants (47%) indicated that they had let another student copy their homework more than six times. Conversely, on the same question only 20 students (4.1%) said that they had never let another student copy their homework. On question eight, 156 out of 487 (32%) said that they turned in work copied from another student more than six times.

There are several noteworthy results that emerge when comparing the results by grade level. On question one ("copied from another student during a test or exam"), there was a dramatic increase in the number of 12th grade students answering "more than 6 times" (22%) compared to the other grades (11th 13%, 10th 11%, 9th 10%). This same trend was found for question six ("read an abridged version of a book…") (12th 37%, 11th 17%, 10th 9%, 9th 4%) and question seven ("read a foreign language assignment in English…") (12th 27%, 11th 17%, 10th 9%, 9th 9%).

When comparing cheating incidences across academic levels there are also several results deserving mention. Twenty-five percent of AP students answered "more than 6 times" on question three ("got questions or answers from someone who had already taken a test") compared to 11% of honors, 9% of college prep and 9% of on-level students. Fifty percent of honors students answered "more than 6 times" on question five ("helped someone else cheat on a test") compared to 13% of AP, 14% of college prep and 19% of on-level students. Finally, on question eight 70% of honors students said that they never turned in work copied from another student compared to 14% of AP, 17% of college prep and 28% of on-level students.

A independent t-test revealed no significant difference in cheating incidences based on gender $t(475) = 1.95$, $p = .05$. The full results of the cheating incidences portion of the survey can be see in Table 9 below. A breakdown of the cheating incidence results by grade level and academic level are included in the appendix.

Table 9

Cheating Incidences Results (N=487)

Question	% Never	N	% Once	N	% 2-3 times	N	% 4-5 times	N	% More than 6 times	N
1. Copied from another student during a test or exam.	29.0	141	19.1	93	25.9	126	11.3	55	14.8	72
2. Used unpermitted crib notes (or cheat sheets) during a test or exam.	54.8	267	20.7	101	14.8	72	4.7	23	4.9	24
3. Got questions or answers from someone who had already taken a test.	27.9	136	17.0	83	27.1	132	12.7	62	15.2	74
4. Using an electronic or digital device (e.g. cell phone) as an unauthorized aid during an exam.	71.1	346	12.5	61	8.8	43	4.7	23	2.9	14
5. Helped someone else cheat on a test.	29.0	141	20.7	101	24.2	118	12.9	63	13.1	64
6. Read an abridged version of a book (e.g. Sparks Notes) rather than the original.	36.6	178	13.4	65	20.1	98	11.1	54	18.9	92
7. Read a foreign language assignment in English instead of the foreign language.	48.5	236	11.5	56	14.6	71	8.6	42	16.8	82

Question	% Never	N	% Once	N	% 2-3 times	N	% 4-5 times	N	% More than 6 times	N
9. Turned in an assignment on which your parents did most of the work.	75.4	367	9.0	44	9.0	44	3.1	15	3.5	17
10. Worked on an assignment with other students when the teacher asked for individual work.	23.0	110	12.1	59	28.3	138	16.4	80	20.5	100
11. Claimed credit for group work when you really didn't contribute.	69.6	339	15.8	77	9.9	48	2.3	11	2.5	12
12. Copied a few sentences from a site on the Internet without citing them.	39.2	191	17.3	84	22.4	109	9.5	46	11.7	57
13. Copied a few sentences from a book, magazine, or other source without citing them.	51.5	251	17.3	84	15.6	76	7.2	35	8.4	41
14. Let another student copy homework.	4.1	20	6.0	29	22.2	108	20.7	101	47.0	229
15. Turned in a paper obtained in large part from a paper "mill" or website, or from a book, journal, or other source.	76.0	370	11.5	56	6.2	30	3.1	15	3.3	16
16. Stayed home to postpone taking a test/handing in an assignment.	43.3	211	15.2	74	20.9	102	9.9	48	10.7	52
17. Claimed you handed in a paper or project when you had not done so.	66.3	323	15.8	77	8.8	43	4.1	20	4.9	24
18. Sold, purchased, or distributed in some other way, test/exam copies, questions, essays, or class notes.	86.9	423	5.1	25	3.3	16	1.2	6	3.5	17

Cheating perceptions. There were five behaviors (questions 18 (68%), 4 (68%), 15 (50%), 2 (45%), 1 (42%)) that were deemed to be serious cheating by over 40% of participants, four of which involved cheating on a test. The behavior that was rated "Not Cheating" by the highest number of participants (330 out of 484 (68%)) was question 16 ("staying home for extra time"). Questions six ("reading an abridged version") and seven ("reading in English not foreign language") were both seen as either "Not Cheating" or "Trivial Cheating" by over 80% of survey participants.

Also interesting in relation to cheating incidences, 395 participants (nearly 82%) perceived question 14 ("letting another student copy their homework") as "Not Cheating" or "Trivial Cheating". A total of 424 (88%) participants viewed question 10 ("collaborative work on individual homework") as either "Not Cheating" or "Trivial

Cheating". Additionally, 58% of participants (283) saw question eight ("turning in copied work") as either "Not Cheating" or "Trivial Cheating", and nearly 62% perceived question 3 (getting questions or answers from someone who had already taken a test) as either "Not Cheating" or "Trivial Cheating".

There was only one noteworthy result that emerged when comparing the cheating perception results by grade level. On question 15 ("turned in a paper obtained in a large part from a paper "mill" or website, or from a journal, or other source"), there was almost a 30% difference between the 67% of 12th grade students that identified this as "serious cheating" compared to the 34% in 9th grade, (51% for 11th grade and 38% for 10th).

When comparing cheating perceptions across academic levels there are also several results deserving mention. On three questions, there were large differences between the perceptions of on-level and college prep students compared to honor and AP students. On question two ("used unpermitted crib notes (or cheat sheets) during a test or exam"), 57% of AP and 54% of honors students perceived this as "serious cheating" compared to 33% of college prep and 28% of on-level students. On question four ("using an electronic or digital device (e.g. cell phone) as an unauthorized aid during an exam"), 76% of AP and 75% of honors students perceived this as "serious cheating" compared to 61% of college prep and 53% of on-level students. Finally on question 15 ("turned in a paper obtained in a large part from a paper "mill" or website, or from a journal, or other source"), 67% of AP and 61% of honors students perceived this as "serious cheating" compared to 34% of college prep and 25% of on-level students.

An independent t-test revealed no significant difference in cheating perception based on gender $t(475) = -.109$, $p = .903$. The complete results of the cheating

perceptions portion of the survey can be viewed in Table 10 below. A breakdown of the cheating perception results by grade level and academic level are included in the appendix.

Table 10

Cheating Perceptions Results (N=484)

Question	% Not Cheating	N	% Trivial Cheating	N	% Moderate Cheating	N	% Serious Cheating	N
1. Copied from another student during a test or exam.	1.86	9	18.80	91	37.60	182	41.74	202
2. Used unpermitted crib notes (or cheat sheets) during a test or exam.	3.72	18	14.46	70	36.98	179	44.83	217
3. Got questions or answers from someone who had already taken a test.	16.53	80	45.25	219	28.72	139	9.50	46
4. Using an electronic or digital device (e.g. cell phone) as an unauthorized aid during an exam.	2.89	14	6.82	33	22.31	108	67.98	329
5. Helped someone else cheat on a test.	8.26	40	28.93	140	42.56	206	20.25	98
6. Read an abridged version of a book (e.g. Sparks Notes) rather than the original.	51.65	250	33.88	164	11.36	55	3.10	15
7. Read a foreign language assignment in English instead of the foreign language.	51.03	247	35.54	172	10.74	52	2.69	13
8. Turned in work you copied from another student.	15.08	73	43.39	210	31.40	152	10.12	49
9. Turned in an assignment on which your parents did most of the work.	21.49	104	31.82	154	32.85	159	13.84	67
10. Worked on an assignment with other students when the teacher asked for individual work.	42.98	208	44.63	216	10.95	53	1.45	7
11. Claimed credit for group work when you really didn't contribute.	24.38	118	31.82	154	29.34	142	14.46	70
12. Copied a few sentences from a site on the Internet without citing them.	16.94	82	33.26	161	26.03	126	23.76	115
13. Copied a few sentences from a book, magazine, or other source without citing them.	16.94	82	34.09	165	26.24	127	22.73	110
14. Let another student copy homework.	32.44	157	49.17	238	15.70	76	2.69	13
15. Turned in a paper obtained in large part from a paper "mill" or website, or from a book, journal, or other source.	8.68	42	19.63	95	22.11	107	49.59	240
16. Stayed home to postpone taking a test/handing in an assignment.	68.18	330	17.98	87	9.30	45	4.55	22

Question	% Not Cheating	N	% Trivial Cheating	N	% Moderate Cheating	N	% Serious Cheating	N
17. Claimed you handed in a paper or project when you had not done so.	23.55	114	25.83	125	30.37	147	20.25	98
18. Sold, purchased, or distributed in some other way, test/exam copies, questions, essays, or class notes.	8.88	43	8.68	42	14.26	69	68.18	330

Correlation Between Incidences and Perceptions. Pearson correlation coefficients were computed in SPSS (version 24) to explore the relationship between cheating incidences and cheating perceptions. Generally, the correlation between incidences and perceptions was negative, indicating that cheating which was perceived to be less serious happened more frequently. The effect sizes were generally low and the highest correlations were mainly between the perception and the incidence that related to the same question number, and thus the same behavior. The results of the correlation analysis are listed in tables 11 and 12 below.

Table 11

Correlation Between Cheating Incidences (I) and Perceptions (P) Questions 1-9 (484)

	Q.1 P	Q.2 P	Q.3 P	Q.4 P	Q.5 P	Q.6 P	Q.7 P	Q.8 P	Q.9 P
Q.1 I	-.20***	-.12**	-.06	-.08	-.12*	-.06	-.03	-.04	-.08
Q.2 I	-.15***	-.20***	-.03	-.11*	-.11*	-.04	-.06	-.06	-.10*
Q.3 I	-.04	-.00	-.30***	-.02	-.01	-.11*	-.09*	-.00	-.02
Q.4 I	-.15**	-.13*	.03	-.12**	-.07	.02	-.02	-.01	-.06
Q.5 I	-.11*	-.12**	-.05	-.12**	-.14**	-.04	-.05	.01	-.05
Q.6 I	-.07	-.01	-.09	.04	-.01	-.26***	-.20***	-.07	-.03
Q.7 I	-.03	-.02	-.04	.03	-.05	-.16***	-.18***	-.05	-.06
Q.8 I	-.06	-.03	-.08	.02	-.04	-.21***	-.17***	-.21***	-.14**
Q.9 I	-.01	-.06	.01	-.08	-.02	.01	-.04	-.04	-.25***

Sig. (2-tailed) *$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 12

Correlation Between Cheating Incidences (I) and Perceptions (P) Questions 10-18 (484)

	Q.10 P	Q.11 P	Q.12 P	Q.13 P	Q.14 P	Q.15 P	Q.16 P	Q.17 P	Q.18 P
Q.10 I	-.23***	-.08	-.01	-.00	-.10*	-.00	-.16***	-.07	-.03
Q.11 I	-.01	-.13**	-.06	-.05	-.02	-.05	-.01	-.05	-.11*
Q.12 I	-.12**	-.10*	-.25***	-.27***	-.02	-.15***	-.08	-.00	-.02
Q.13 I	-.15**	-.13**	.22***	-.22***	-.03	.14**	-.07	-.03	-.02
Q.14 I	-.11*	-.04	.03	.01	-.16***	.10*	-.17***	.00	-.03
Q.15 I	--.06	-.05	-.09*	.11*	.08	-.25***	-.04	-.01	-.07
Q.16 I	-.08	-.04	-.02	.01	-.00	.02	-.16***	-.03	.02
Q.17 I	-.10*	-.04	-.07	-.09*	-.04	-.09	-.09*	-.15***	-.14**
Q.18 I	.01	-.04	.04	-.06	-.07	-.04	.01	.01	-.37***

Sig. (2-tailed) *$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Ranking the Purpose of Education. Question 15 asked students to rank in order of importance four goals of education. Three of these goals were aligned with Labaree's three goals of education and a fourth goal was added to represent those students who see no purpose in education. The responses to question 15 can be seen in *Figure 2* below. The response "To be able to make a better life for myself" represents the social mobility goal and was ranked the most important, followed by "To get the training necessary to be employed" which represents the social efficiency goal. Seventy four percent of participants ranked social mobility as either the number one or number two most important goal of education and 70% ranked social efficiency as either first or second. The democratic equity goal "To learn how to be a good citizen and participate in a

democratic society" was ranked either the second or third most important goal by 70% of participants.

Figure 2. Ranking of the purpose of education. In order of importance (1= most important; 4=least important) please rank the following goals of education; (i.e. why is it important for you to be in school?)

Research Question 1. Is there a relationship between student grade point average (GPA), student grade level and/or academic level and student moral development?

A hierarchical/blockwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between the dependent variable: student moral development (N2 score) and the independent variables: student GPA, student academic level and student grade level. Student GPA was the independent variable in block one, academic level in block two and grade level in block three. Because two of the independent variables are categorical (grade and academic level) they were both dummy coded using ninth grade, and on-level as the respective reference groups. Assumptions of linearity, normal distribution and constant variance of errors were checked and reasonably met (as

discussed in chapter 3). There was one case with a standard residual of 3.12, but this case has no undue influence on the regression model as evidenced by the maximum Cook's Distance of .032.

The study was conducted in a school that uses a 100-point scale to calculate student academic average rather than the traditional 4.0 scale requested on the survey. This difference resulted in 51 students answering this question in the 100-point format rather than the requested scale. Prior to conducting the analysis, the 51 responses were converted to the 4.0 scale based on the scale provided by www.collegeboard.com ("How to", 2017). Listwise deletion method was used by default in the regression analysis in SPSS (version 24) for cases with missing data.

A low level of collinearity tolerance was detected in the dummy coded academic variables "honors" (.190) and "AP" (.161) which can occur when there are multiple dummy variables representing the same construct variable. According to Field (2009), "values below 0.1 indicate serious problems", while Menard (1995) sets the threshold for concern at values below 0.2 (p. 224). This connection is not surprising, given that the honors and AP students both exhibit similar behaviors and attitudes in regard to their academic performance.

A correlation analysis was run to further check the relation between the dummy predictors. As listed in Table 13 below, there is a moderate negative correlation between honors and AP (-.40, $p < .001$). The correlations between the predictor variables range from -.51 to .49. This moderate level of correlation does not pose a great risk to the validity of the regression model.

Table 13

Correlations of Variables For Question 1 (N=431)

	N2 Score	10th Grade	11th Grade	12th Grade	CP	HN	AP	GPA
N2 SCORE		-.19***	.00	.27***	-.27***	.08	.35***	.32***
10th Grade			-.38***	-.37***	.16**	.07	-.33***	-.18***
11th Grade				-.47***	.05	-.02	-.03	-.05
12th Grade					-.43***	.02	.49***	.32***
CP						-.51***	-.47***	-.47***
HN							-.40***	.18***
AP								.49***
GPA								

Sig. (1-tailed) *$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

The hierarchical/blockwise multiple regression analysis showed that student GPA accounted for 10% of the variance in N2 scores, $F(1, 429) = 48.66$, $p < .001$. When student academic level is added to the model an additional 10% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .10$, $p < .001$. Adding student grade level to the model only explained an additional 1% of the variance and was not statistically significant, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p = .407$. Overall the full regression model including the seven (includes dummy academic and grade-level) predictors explains 21% of the variance in N2 scores, $p < .001$.

The full model predicts that when GPA is zero, the N2 score for ninth grade on-level students will be 3.52. Controlling for academic level and grade level, as GPA rises by one point, the predicted N2 score increases non-significantly by 1.78 points, $p = .33$. Controlling for GPA and grade level and compared with on-level students, college prep students have a predicted N2 score that increases significantly by 9.77 points, $p = .001$. Controlling for GPA and grade level and compared with on-level students, honors students have a predicted N2 score that increases significantly by 15.10 points, $p < .001$. Controlling for GPA and grade level and compared with on-level students, AP students

have a predicted N2 score that increases significantly by 20.34 points, $p < .001$. Controlling for GPA and academic level and compared with ninth grade, tenth grade students have a predicted N2 score that increases non-significantly by .09 points, $p = .97$. Controlling for GPA and academic level and compared with ninth grade, eleventh grade students have a predicted N2 score that increases non-significantly by 1.91 points, $p = .38$. Controlling for GPA and academic level and compared with ninth grade, twelfth grade students have a predicted N2 score that increases non-significantly by 3.31 points, $p = .18$. These results are listed in Table 14 below.

Table 14

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Summary for GPA, Academic Level and Grade Level Predicting Moral Development (N2) Scores. (N=431)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Step 1			
Intercept	-10.92	5.21	
GPA	10.24	1.47	0.32***
Step 2			
Intercept	5.02	6.01	
GPA	1.65	1.83	0.05
College Prep	9.59	2.89	0.32**
Honors	15.77	3.16	0.49***
AP	22.21	3.38	0.67***
Step 3			
Intercept	3.52	6.35	
GPA	1.78	1.83	0.06
College Prep	9.77	2.94	0.32**
Honors	15.10	3.19	0.47***
AP	20.34	3.58	0.61***
10th grade	0.09	2.24	0.00
11th grade	1.91	2.16	0.06
12th grade	3.31	2.45	0.10

Note. $R^2 = .10$ for Step 1, $\Delta R^2 = .10$ for Step 2, $p < .001$, $\Delta R^2 = .01$ for Step 3, $p = .41$.
*$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$,*** $p < .001$.

Research Question 2. Is there a relationship between student moral development, grade level and/or academic level and student perceptions of cheating?

A hierarchical/blockwise multiple linear regression was conducted to examine the relationship between the dependent variable: student perceptions of cheating and the

independent variables: student moral development (N2), student academic level and student grade level. Student moral development (N2) was the independent variable in block one, student academic level in block two and student grade level in block three. Because two of the independent variables are categorical (grade and academic level) they were both dummy coded using ninth grade, and on-level as the respective reference groups. Assumptions of linearity, normal distribution and constant variance of errors were checked and reasonably met. Six cases out of 477 had standard residual values greater than three, but the maximal Cook's Distance was .08, indicating that these six extreme cases did not have undue influence on the regression model. All other tests for homoscedasticity of residuals, normality of residuals and multicollinearity were within the acceptable range (as discussed in chapter 3).

The hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that student moral development scores (N2) accounted for 4% of the variance in student perception of cheating scores, $F(1, 475) = 20.16$, $p < .001$. When student academic level is added to the model an additional .8% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .008$, $p < .001$. Adding student grade level to the model only explained an additional .5%, $\Delta R^2 = .005$ $p < .001$. Overall the full regression model including the seven predictors (includes dummy academic and grade-level) explains 5% of the variance in student cheating perception scores, $p < .001$.

The full model predicts that when the N2 score is zero, the cheating perception score for ninth grade on-level students will be 47.99 (out of a possible 72). Controlling for academic level and grade level, as N2 rises by one point, the predicted cheating perception score decreases significantly by -0.09 points, $p = .001$. Controlling for N2 and

grade level and compared with on-level students, college prep students have a predicted cheating perception score that decreases non-significantly by -0.15 points, $p = .924$. Controlling for N2 and grade level and compared with on-level students, honors students have a predicted cheating perception score that decreases non-significantly by -1.98 points, $p = .229$. Controlling for N2 and grade level and compared with on-level students, AP students have a predicted cheating perception score that decreases non-significantly by -2.78 points, $p = .122$. Controlling for N2 and academic level and compared with ninth grade, tenth grade students have a predicted cheating perception score that increases non-significantly by .33 points, $p = .783$. Controlling for N2 and academic level and compared with ninth grade, eleventh grade students have a predicted cheating perception score that increases non-significantly by 1.13 points, $p = .327$. Controlling for N2 and academic level and compared with ninth grade, twelfth grade students have a predicted cheating perception score that increases non-significantly by 1.88 points, $p = .153$. These results are listed in Table 15 below.

Table 15

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Summary for Moral Development (N2) Scores, Academic Level and Grade Level Predicting Student Perceptions of Cheating. (N=477)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Step 1			
Intercept	48.08	0.72	
N2 Score	-0.11	0.03	-0.20***
Step 2			
Intercept	48.81	1.45	
N2 Score	-0.09	0.03	-0.16**
College Prep	-0.47	1.56	-0.3
Honors	-1.96	1.63	-0.11
AP	-2.13	1.72	-0.11
Step 3			
Intercept	47.98	1.74	
N2 Score	-0.09	.03	-0.17***
College Prep	-0.15	1.58	-0.01
Honors	-1.98	1.64	-0.11
AP	-2.78	1.79	-0.15

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
10th grade	0.33	1.20	0.02
11th grade	1.13	1.15	0.06
12th grade	1.88	1.31	0.10

Note. R^2 = .041 for Step 1, ΔR^2= .008 for Step 2, p = .247, ΔR^2=.005, for Step 3, p =.483 *p < .05, ** p < .01,*** p < .001.

Research Question 3. Is there a relationship between student moral Development (N2), academic level, grade level, perception of cheating and student cheating incidences?

A hierarchical multiple linear regression was conducted to examine the relationship between the dependent variable: student cheating incidences and the independent variables: student moral development (N2), academic level, grade level, and perception of cheating. Student moral development (N2) was the independent variable in block one, student academic and grade level in block two and perception of cheating in block three. Because two of the independent variables are categorical (grade and academic level) they were both dummy coded using ninth grade, and on-level as the respective reference groups. Assumptions of linearity, normal distribution and constant variance of errors were checked and reasonably met (as discussed in chapter 3). Four cases out of 477 had standard residual values greater than three, but the maximal Cook's Distance was .09, indicating that these four outliers did not have undue influence on the regression model (eliminating them from the model only increased the total variance accounted for by 0.1%). All other tests for homoscedasticity of residuals, normality of residuals and multicollinearity were within the acceptable range.

The hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that student moral development scores (N2) accounted for 2% of the variance in student incidence of cheating scores, $F(1, 475) = 7.57$, p = .006. When student academic and grade level are

added to the model an additional 4% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p = .007$. Adding student cheating perception to the model explained an additional 2%, $\Delta R^2 = .02$ $p < .001$. Overall the full regression model including the eight predictors (includes dummy academic and grade-level) explains 7.4% of the variance in student cheating incidence scores, $p = .001$.

The full model predicts that when the N2 score is zero and cheating perception is 18 (the lowest possible score after inverse dummy coding), the cheating incidence score for ninth grade on-level students will be 28.71. Controlling for academic level and grade level and cheating perception, as N2 rises by one point, the predicted cheating incidence score decreases significantly by -0.13 points, $p = .005$. Controlling for N2, grade level and cheating perceptions and compared with on-level students, college prep students have a predicted cheating incidence score that increases non-significantly by 1.15 points, $p = .644$. Controlling for N2, grade level and cheating perceptions and compared with on-level students, honors students have a predicted cheating incidence score that increases non-significantly by 0.62 points, $p = .812$. Controlling for N2, grade level and cheating perceptions and compared with on-level students, AP students have a predicted cheating incidence score that increases non-significantly by 0.23 points, $p = .936$. Controlling for N2, academic level and cheating perception and compared with ninth grade, tenth grade students have a predicted cheating incidence score that increases non-significantly by 2.12 points, $p = .264$. Controlling for N2, academic level and cheating perception and compared with ninth grade, eleventh grade students have a predicted cheating incidence score that increases non-significantly by 2.90 points, $p = .111$. Controlling for N2, academic level and cheating perception and compared with ninth grade, twelfth grade

students have a predicted cheating perception score that increases significantly by 7.47 points, $p < .001$. Controlling for N2, academic level, cheating perception and grade level, as the cheating perception score rises by one point, the predicted cheating incidence score increases non-significantly by 0.24 $p = .001$. These results are listed in Table 16 below.

Table 16

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Summary for Moral Development (N2) Scores, Academic Level, Grade Level and Cheating Perceptions Predicting Student Incidences of Cheating. (N=477)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Step 1			
Intercept	43.50	1.17	
N2 Score	-0.11	0.04	-0.13**
Step 2			
Intercept	40.32	2.77	
N2 Score	-0.15	0.05	-0.17***
College Prep	1.12	2.53	0.04
Honors	0.14	2.62	0.01
AP	-0.45	2.86	-0.02
10th grade	2.20	1.92	0.07
11th grade	3.17	1.83	0.11
12th grade	7.92	2.10	0.28***
Step 3			
Intercept	28.71	4.44	
N2 Score	-0.13	.05	-0.14**
College Prep	1.15	2.50	0.04
Honors	0.62	2.60	0.02
AP	0.28	2.84	0.01
10th grade	2.12	1.90	0.07
11th grade	2.90	1.82	0.10
12th grade	7.47	2.08	0.26***
Cheating Perception	0.24	0.07	0.152***

Note. $R^2 = .02$ for Step 1, $\Delta R^2 = .04$ for Step 2, $p = .007$, $\Delta R^2 = .02$, for Step 3, $p < .001$
*$p < .05$, ** $p < .01$,*** $p = .001$.

Summary of Findings

A total of 529 students participated in the survey representing all four grade levels (9-12) and all four academic levels (on-level, college prep, honors and AP) with the exception of 10th grade on-level. The mean N2 score on the DIT test for survey participants was 24.78, which is slightly lower than the national norm of 30.97 for

students in grades 10-12 (Dong, 2016). There was a small, but statistically significant difference in N2 scores based on gender.

On the cheating incidences portion of the survey, only five students out of 487 indicated that they have never engaged in any form of cheating, meaning that nearly 99% of participants admitted to cheating in some form at least once. The two most frequent forms of cheating by a wide margin involved cheating on homework assignments. Four out of the five behaviors that were considered to be forms of "serious cheating" involved cheating on a test. Also interesting in relation to cheating incidences, high percentages of students deemed cheating on homework to be either "not cheating" or "trivial cheating". Correlation effect sizes between cheating incidences and perceptions were generally low, with the highest effect sizes mostly between the perception and the incidences that related to the same question.

On the question dealing with the purpose of education, 74% of students ranked social mobility as either the number one or number two most important goal of education. Social efficiency was ranked as either the number one or number two by 70% of students. The democratic equity goal was ranked as either the second or third most important goal by 70% of students.

For research question one, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that student GPA accounted for 10% of the variance in N2 scores, $F(1, 429) = 48.66$, $p < .001$. When student academic level is added to the model, an additional 10% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .10$, $p < .001$. Adding student grade level to the model only explained an additional 1% of the variance and was not statistically significant, $\Delta R^2 =$

.05. Overall the full regression model including the three predictors explains 21% of the variance in N2 scores, $p < .001$.

For research question two, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that student moral development scores (N2) accounted for 4% of the variance in student perception of cheating scores, $F(1, 475) = 20.16$, $p < .001$. When student academic level is added to the model, an additional .8% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p < .001$. Adding student grade level to the model only explained an additional .5%, $\Delta R^2 = .00$ $p < .001$. Overall the full regression model including the three predictors explains 5% of the variance in student cheating perception scores, $p < .001$.

For research question three, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that student moral development scores (N2) accounted for 2% of the variance in student incidence of cheating scores, $F(1, 475) = 7.57$, $p = .006$. When student academic and grade level are added to the model, an additional .4% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p = .007$. Adding student cheating perception to the model explained an additional 2%, $\Delta R^2 = .02$ $p < .001$. Overall the full regression model including the three predictors explains 7% of the variance in student cheating incidence scores, $p = .001$.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Introduction

What is, or should be the goal of public education in the U.S.? David Labaree (1997) proposes that since the inception of public education in America, three alternative goals have emerged and these goals are at the root of the conflicts that have arisen over the "why" question of education. He labels these goals: democratic equity, social efficiency and social mobility. Each goal is laudable in its own right, and although sometimes these goals can align together toward shared outcomes, fundamentally they represent mutually exclusive outcomes.

If the democratic equality goal set the agenda of education, competition for economic and social positions would be irrelevant and learning for personal enrichment would become the focus of the system. Alternately, if the social efficiency goal dominated, meeting the needs of the job market would be paramount and thus the schools would mirror the existing job market with no real mechanism to allow for social mobility. The moral and political goals of democratic equity (with a few exceptions) do not align with the goals of social efficiency, but each of these goals finds common ground with social mobility. In this way social mobility has become the middle ground and has advanced through the ebb and flow of various equity and efficiency movements.

Using this framework, the purpose of this study was to seek to examine the practical outworking of Labaree's (1997) theory by measuring which of these three goals is reflected by the behavior and attitudes of students as they relate to moral development

and cheating. Additionally this study will provide further insight on the relationship between student moral development and cheating.

Discussion of General Findings

Five hundred twenty-nine permission slips were signed, returned and collected, and a total of 529 students took the survey, making the student participation rate roughly 35%. Although 529 students participated, not all completed the entire survey. Generally, the students that completed the entire survey had higher N2 scores than those who did not. The low participation rate limits the generalizability of the results, however because of the way the study was structured and how the teachers returned the surveys; it is known that the on-level students had the lowest rate of participation across all grade levels.

The N2 score distribution was almost certainly skewed in a negative direction because of the low participation rate of on-level students. Increasing the number of on-level participants would likely result in lowering the overall mean N2 score because the mean N2 score for on-level students was lower than for the other academic levels (as discussed below). On the other hand, cheating perception and cheating incidence levels were relatively constant across academic levels, and thus it is unlikely that increased on-level participation would affect the results of the study.

DIT. On the DIT section of the survey, 475 out of 529 tests were fully completed and scored by the Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama. The mean N2 score was 24.78, which is roughly six points lower than the national norm of 30.97 for students in grades 10-12 (Dong, 2016). As expected, the mean N2 score rose across grade levels, going from 20.24 (SD = 14.04) in 9th grade to

30.61 (*SD* = 14.31) in 12th grade. This is consistent with large composite samples (thousands of subjects) showing that 30% to 50% of the variance of DIT scores is attributable to level of education in samples ranging from junior-high education to Ph.D.s (Thoma & Dong, 2014).

N2 scores also rose across academic level, going from a mean of 10.77 (*SD* = 9.17) for on-level to 33.67 (*SD* = 13.57) for AP. The existing literature indicates that DIT scores are significantly related to measures of cognitive capacity and moral comprehension, to recall and reconstruction of post-conventional moral argument, to Kohlberg's measure, and to other cognitive developmental measures (Rest, 1979; Rest, 1986; Thoma & Dong, 2014). It makes sense that students with higher cognitive capacity would generally be in higher academic levels (honors and AP), and therefore the results are not surprising in this regard. Although it is tempting to conclude from these results that both grade level and academic level are highly correlated with N2 scores and account for a high percentage of the variance, this is not the case (as will be discussed in examining the research questions below).

Cheating. According to former Rutgers University professor Donald McCabe, "95% of high school students say they've cheated during the course of their education, ranging from letting somebody copy their homework to cheating on tests" (Most Kids Cheat, Study Says, 2008). The results from this study support this assertion, and even support the findings that cheating has been on a continuous rise for decades (Schab, 1991). Only five students out of 487 indicated that they have never engaged in any form of cheating, meaning that nearly 99% of participants admitted to cheating in some form at least once.

It is interesting that when cheating incidences were compared across grade levels (as can be seen in the appendix), the results were relatively uniform with less than a 10% difference in percentages across the various incidence levels. The same was true when comparing cheating incidences across academic levels. While there were three cases (discussed in chapter 4) where there were rather large differences between academic levels in terms of percentages across the various incidence levels, the rest of the results were also relatively uniform with less than a 10% difference.

Cheating perceptions were also relatively uniform across grade level with all but one question having results that generally varied by less then 10% across grades. Again, this was also true when comparing cheating perceptions across academic levels. While there were wide ranging results between AP/honors and college prep/on-level on three questions, the rest of the results were generally uniform (as can be seen in the appendix).

The results of this study also support research suggesting that students see cheating which requires students to do some of the work as less dishonest than cheating that required minimal effort (Honz et al., 2010). For example, giving answers or homework to another student is viewed more lightly than receiving or stealing answers, or homework (Honz et al., 2010). This was supported in both the cheating perceptions and cheating incidences results. Nearly 82% of students (395 out of 484) viewed letting another student copy their homework as "Not Cheating" or "Trivial Cheating". A total of 424 (88%) participants viewed collaborative work on individual homework as either "Not Cheating" or "Trivial Cheating". Additionally, 58% of participants (283) said that turning in copied work was either "Not Cheating" or "Trivial Cheating", and nearly 62% believe that getting questions or answers from someone who had already taken a test is

either “Not Cheating” or “Trivial Cheating”. The two most frequent forms of cheating by a wide margin involved cheating on homework assignments, and only 20 students out of 487 said that they had never let another student copy their homework. Also, 156 out of 487 (32%) said that they turned in work copied from another student more than six times.

Williams (2012) grouped the responses to the McCabe cheating survey (college version) into dimensions (total cheating, serious cheating, social cheating, plagiarism, and student identified serious cheating) and then computed Pearson’s coefficients to explore the relationship between cheating incidences and their corresponding dimension for cheating perceptions. All of the correlations were negative, meaning that the more seriously the behavior was perceived, the less frequently it occurred, with the effect sizes in the medium range from r = -.266 to r = -.372.

These results were supported by the current study. The correlation between incidences and perceptions were generally negative, indicating that cheating which was perceived to be less serious happened more frequently. The effect sizes were generally lower than in the Williams (2012) study (ranging from r = -.30 to r = .04), and the highest correlations were mostly between the perception and the incidence that related to the same question number, and thus the same behavior (as listed in Table 10).

Research Question 1

Is there a relationship between student grade point average (GPA), student grade level and/or academic level and student moral development?

A hierarchical/blockwise multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between the dependent variable: student moral development (N2 score) and the independent variables: student GPA, student academic level and

student grade level. Student GPA was the independent variable in block one, academic level in block two and grade level in block three. The hierarchical/blockwise multiple regression analysis showed that student GPA accounted for 10% of the variance in N2 scores, $F(1, 429) = 48.66$, $p < .001$. When student academic level is added to the model an additional 10% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .10$, $p < .001$. Adding student grade level to the model only explained an additional 1% of the variance and was not statistically significant, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p = .407$. Overall, the full regression model including the seven (includes dummy academic and grade-level) predictors explains 21% of the variance in N2 scores, $p < .001$.

These results seem surprising in light of the results discussed above which showed N2 scores rising with both academic and grade level. Based on an initial surface level observation it would be understandable to predict that this regression model would explain a higher percentage of N2 variance. This is especially true in regard to grade level because a one-way ANOVA revealed a significant difference in N2 scores between student grade level and N2 score $F(3,473) = 14.40$, $p < .001$, and explained 8% of the variance (*partial* $\eta^2 = .08$).

The apparent discrepancy in variance might be partially explained by the low level of collinearity tolerance detected in the dummy coded academic variables "honors" (.190) and "AP" (.161) and even "CP" (.201) all of which are low. According to Field (2009), "values below 0.1 indicate serious problems", while Menard (1995) sets the threshold for concern at values below 0.2 (p. 224). There is also an overlap in the variance explained by grade level and academic level and that is why adding student grade level to the model only explained an additional 1% of the variance and was not

statistically significant, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $p = .407$. When the regression model is run with only GPA in block one and grade level in block two, grade level accounts for 4.2% ($\eta^2 = .042$) of the variance $F(3,426) = 48.66$, $p < .001$, *partial* $\eta^2 = .144$.

It is interesting to compare the results of this study to that of the Williams (2012) study. Williams (2012) conducted a study that "sought to fill the gap in the literature regarding how cheating correlates with the moral development level of college students based on Kohlberg's (1958) theory of moral development" (p. 57). Williams (2012) administered the DIT and McCabe's (2003) academic integrity survey to 476 undergraduate students in order to compare the students' moral developmental level with their perceptions toward cheating and their cheating behavior.

Williams (2012) conducted a stepwise multiple regression analysis with moral development (P score) as the dependent variable, and cheating incidences, gender, year in college, race (white, non-white), age, international status, and athlete (vs. non-athlete) as the independent variables. Only cheating incidences ($p = .004$) and year in college ($p = .035$) were significant and the whole model only accounted for 2.8% of the variance ($R^2 = .028$).

In both the Williams (2012) study and the current study academic levels were included as independent variables in a regression analysis, and in both models only a small amount of the variance was explained (especially in the Williams (2012) study). According to Thoma & Dong (2014), large composite samples (thousands of subjects) show that 30% to 50% of the variance of DIT scores is attributable to level of education in samples ranging from junior-high education to Ph.Ds. Thoma & Dong (2014) also reported that a review of 12 studies comparing a total of 755 DIT scores of freshmen to

senior college students showed large gains (Cohen's d statistic of .80). Given the growth in DIT scores across grade levels, it is surprising that in both the current study and in the Williams (2012) study, academic level was not a more significant factor in predicting moral development levels. This may result from an increased focus on academics at the expense of a more holistic approach (spiritual, moral, social and cultural) present in the democratic equity goal (Adams, Monahan, & Wills, 2015; Labaree, 2010).

Research Question 2

Is there a relationship between student moral development, grade level, and/or academic level and student perceptions of cheating?

A hierarchical/blockwise multiple linear regression was conducted to examine the relationship between the dependent variable: student perceptions of cheating and the independent variables: student moral development (N2), student academic level and student grade level. Student moral development (N2) was the independent variable in block one, student academic level in block two, and student grade level in block three. The hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that student moral development scores (N2) accounted for 4% of the variance in student perception of cheating scores, $F(1, 475) = 20.16$, $p < .001$. When student academic level is added to the model an additional .8% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .008$, $p < .001$. Adding student grade level to the model only explained an additional .5%, $\Delta R^2 = .005$ $p < .001$. Overall the full regression model including the seven predictors (includes dummy academic and grade-level) explains 5% of the variance in student cheating perception scores, $p < .001$.

Like the results for research question one, this regression model only accounted for a small percentage of the variance. Once again these results are consistent with the

results of the Williams (2012) study. Generally, Williams (2012) found no significant relationship between student perceptions of cheating and their moral development level (P scores), but a significant relation was found between the behaviors deemed most serious cheating and their P score ($p = .004$, $r = -.135$, $r^2 = .018$), although the effect size is small.

The small influence of academic level and grade level on the model seems like it could be easily explained. It is probable that by the time that students enter ninth grade, parents, teachers, peers and others have influenced them as to what is acceptable in terms of cheating and what is not (Thoma & Dong, 2014). Whether or not this is the case is a matter for further research. It is however, unremarkable that there is not a large discrepancy in cheating perceptions across grade and academic levels.

Perhaps the more interesting result is that N2 scores, (although significantly related to cheating perception) only explained 4% of the variance. It would seem on the surface that moral development level would have a greater impact on attitudes relating to cheating behavior. This is an area that seems to require more research to better understand the factors contributing to the formation of student attitudes relating to academic integrity.

Research Question 3

Is there a relationship between student moral Development (N2), academic level, grade level, perception of cheating and student cheating incidences?

A hierarchical multiple linear regression was conducted to examine the relationship between the dependent variable: student cheating incidences and the independent variables: student moral development (N2), academic level, grade level, and

perception of cheating. Student moral development (N2) was the independent variable in block one, student academic and grade level in block two and perception of cheating in block three.

The hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed that student moral development scores (N2) accounted for 2% of the variance in student incidence of cheating scores, $F(1, 475) = 7.57$, $p = .006$. When student academic and grade level are added to the model an additional 4% of the variance is explained, $\Delta R^2 = .04$, $p = .007$. Adding student cheating perception to the model explained an additional 2%, $\Delta R^2 = .02$ $p < .001$. Overall, the full regression model including the eight predictors (includes dummy academic and grade-level) explains 7.4% of the variance in student cheating incidence scores, $p = .001$.

This is the culminating question of this study, concerning what factors (in relation to moral development) contribute to actual cheating. As in the two prior questions, the percentage of variance explained by the model is very low. Also, as in the prior two questions, these results are consistent with the results from the Williams (2012) study. Williams (2012) computed Pearson's coefficients to explore the relationship between student moral development (P score), (a precursor of the N2 score) and cheating incidences. The results indicated a significant ($p = .008$) negative relation ($r = -.125$) meaning that as P scores increased, cheating incidences decreased. However, as in the current study the effect size was small ($r^2 = .016$).

Here again, the results are puzzling. Cheating is a violation of social norms as demonstrated by the results of the cheating perceptions portion of the survey. On the surface it would seem that a student's level of moral development would be a central

factor in whether or not they decide to cheat. However, as was shown in the CEI study by Harthshorne & May (1928-1930) and supported by Leming (1979), moral behavior (specifically cheating) has been found to be situation specific, regardless of moral development. Honesty or dishonesty in one situation does not predict the behavior of a child in another situation (Clouse, 2001; Leming, 1993). Additionally, the CEI also found no significant difference between children who had participated in religious or morally focused education programs, and those who had not (Clouse, 2001; Leming, 1993). This disconnect between moral knowledge and moral action makes studying the relationship between the two difficult, and perhaps the reason why only 2% of the variance is explained by the model.

Student academic and grade level explained an additional 4% ($p = .007$) of the variance in cheating incidences. In question two (above) it was shown that student academic level explained only .8% of the variance in student cheating perceptions ($p < .001$), and grade level explained .5% ($p < .001$). Given that the correlations between cheating incidences and cheating perceptions were generally low (ranging from $r = -.30$ to $r = .04$ as listed in Table 10) the small explanatory power of these two variables is not surprising. However as with cheating perceptions, the reason that these factors play such a small role in explaining the variance is a question for further research. Adding student cheating perception to the model did explain an additional 2%, $\Delta R^2 = .02$ $p < .001$.

Results in Relation To Labaree's (1997) Three Goals

According to Labaree (1997), "the biggest problem facing American schools is not the conflict, contradiction, and compromise that arise from trying to keep a balance among educational goals. Instead, the main threat comes from the growing dominance of

the social mobility goal over others" (p. 73). In Labaree's (1997) article, (and as discussed in chapter one) there is much anecdotal evidence that can be given to support this claim, but empirical support is more difficult to produce. This study sought to produce such data by examining how each goal relates respectively to the moral development of students and their proclivity to engage in, and attitude toward cheating.

Increasing Moral Development. Based on Kohlberg's cognitive-developmental approach to moral reasoning, research has shown that moral reasoning generally increases as the level of education increases (Thoma & Dong, 2014). As expected, in this study the mean N2 score rose across grade levels, going from 20.24 (SD = 14.04) in 9th grade to 30.61 (SD = 14.31) in 12th grade. N2 scores also rose across academic level, going from a mean of 10.77 (SD = 9.17) for on-level to 33.67 (SD = 13.57) for AP. However, as was shown in research question one neither academic level nor grade level were highly correlated with N2 scores and neither variable accounted for a high percentage of the variance.

The hierarchical/blockwise multiple regression analysis showed that student academic level explained only 10% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .10$, $p < .001$. Adding student grade level to the model only explained an additional 1% of the variance and was not statistically significant, $\Delta R^2 = .05$, $p = .407$. Additionally GPA accounted for 10% of the variance in N2 scores, $F(1, 429) = 48.66$, $p < .001$. So while N2 scores did rise as expected, this study was not consistent with the literature showing that 30% to 50% of the variance of DIT scores is attributable to level of education in samples ranging from junior-high to Ph.D.s (Thoma & Dong, 2014).

As discussed in the previous chapters, the DIT functions as a device for triggering moral schemas (Rest, 2000). Reading the moral scenarios and issue statements presented in the DIT causes the subject to activate the moral schemas that they have developed (Rest, 2000). According to Rest et al. (2000),

> Schemas are general knowledge structures residing in long-term memory… A schema consists of a representation of some prior stimulus phenomenon and is used to interpret new information (sometimes referred to as "top-down" processing). Schemas are evoked (or "activated") by current stimulus configurations that resemble previous stimuli (p. 389).

Rest (2000) viewed his schemas as "developmentally ordered ways of answering the "macro" question (how to get along with people who are not friends, kin or personal acquaintances, i.e. how to organize society-wide co-operation)" (p. 386).

It is important to note that while educational experience certainly plays a large role in the formation of a person's moral schemas (if for no other reason than the quantity of time spent in educational environments during childhood), it is not the only, and perhaps not even the greatest factor in moral development. The reasons for and against cheating certainly get more complicated as students get older, and so require their moral schemas to account for these new situations. So while the literature does show that 30% to 50% of the variance of DIT scores is attributable to level of education in samples ranging from junior-high to Ph.D.s (Thoma & Dong, 2014), by design the DIT does also account for other factors that contribute to moral development.

Cheating Incidences in Relation to Moral Development.

The logic behind this study was that, depending on which of the three educational goals is dominant; the relationship between moral reasoning and cheating could be expected to differ predictively. As illustrated in *Figure 3* (below), as moral reasoning increases, the democratic equity goal would predictively lead to a decrease in cheating. This is because education is seen as a public good meant for the benefit of all, and so the focus of education is not on individual achievement. Rather, the goal of democratic equity is to create informed moral citizens bound together by shared experiences and a sense of community (Labaree, 2010). From the social mobility perspective the outcome would be exactly the opposite of the equity goal. Seen as a private good, education is focused on the advancement of the individual through the accumulation of educational credentials. The growth in moral reasoning is overshadowed by the need to achieve in the upwardly mobile students, and so cheating would be expected to increase. The growth in moral reasoning would arguably play little if any role in the relationship with cheating, from the social efficiency perspective, due to this goals focus on marketable skills and the maintenance of the status quo.

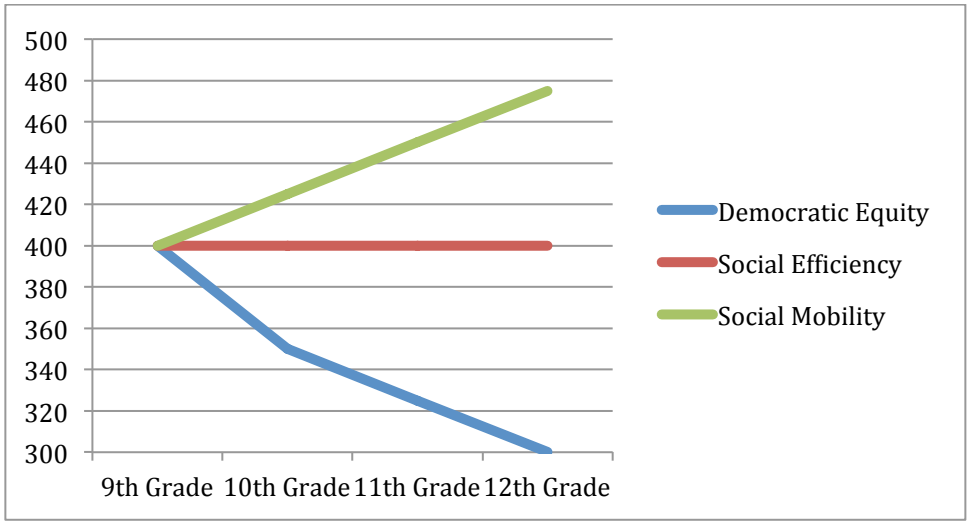

Figure 3. Labaree's three goals in relation to cheating incidences.

On the surface, the results of this study would seem to support the social efficiency perspective. The N2 scores did rise as both academic level and grade level increased (see Table 7) as predicted by the literature (Thoma & Dong, 2014), and when cheating incidences were compared across academic and grade levels (as can be seen in the appendix), the results were relatively uniform across the various incidence levels. As discussed above, the results from research question three showed that N2 scores accounted for only 2% of the variance in student incidence of cheating scores, $F(1, 475) = 7.57$, $p = .006$, which would be expected from a social efficiency perspective.

As was shown in the CEI study by Harthshorne & May (1928-1930) and supported by Leming (1979), moral behavior (specifically cheating) has been found to be situation specific, regardless of moral development. Perhaps it is the case that the relation between N2 scores and cheating incidences might not be a true reflection of the outworking of educational goals, and that cheating perceptions might provide more insight? However, the results of research question three revealed that the addition of student cheating perception to the model only explained an additional 2% of the variance, $\Delta R^2 = .02$ $p < .001$, showing that there is little difference between cheating perceptions and incidences. Additionally, because of the relatively weak link between academic/grade level and N2 score, along with the weak connection between N2 scores and cheating incidences, it is not possible to make a definitive statement as to which goal is supported. That being said however, the social efficiency model does seem to fit the results.

Additional insight into the goals of education was provided by survey question 15, which asked students to rank in order of importance four goals of education. Three of

these goals were aligned with Labaree's three goals of education and a fourth goal was added to represent those students who see no purpose in education. The responses to question 15 can be seen in Table 16 below (and in *Figure 1*). The response "To be able to make a better life for myself" represents the social mobility goal and was ranked the most important, followed by "To get the training necessary to be employed" which represents the social efficiency goal". Seventy four percent of participants ranked social mobility as either the number one or number two most important goal of education and 70% ranked social efficiency as either first or second. The democratic equity goal "To learn how to be a good citizen and participate in a democratic society" was ranked either the second or third most important goal by 70% of participants.

The high ranking of the social efficiency goal relates in a favorable way to the results of the survey discussed above, but the ranking of social mobility supports the assertion by Labaree (2010) that social mobility has become the dominant goal.

Table 17

Ranking the Goals of Education

Rank	1		2		3		4		Total
To get the training necessary to be employed.	30.26%	138	39.69%	181	21.93%	100	8.11%	37	456
To be able to make a better life for myself.	46.30%	213	27.61%	127	17.61%	81	8.48%	39	460
To keep me busy until I am old enough to not have to be in school.	14.29%	67	6.18%	29	16.63%	78	62.90%	295	469
To learn how to be a good citizen and participate in a democratic society.	10.99%	52	27.27%	129	42.92%	203	18.82%	89	473

Not only was the social mobility goal ranked as the most important goal by a 16% margin, it also had the second lowest number of total votes (as seen in Table 16 above) which makes the ranking even more impressive.

Implications for Education

The results of the survey and the results of the students' self-assessment of the goals of education provide interesting insight into the perceptions and actions currently being fostered by the educational system. As mentioned above, while the results of this study do not provide definitive evidence as to which goal has emerged as dominant, it does support the perception that the democratic equity goal has fallen from it's place as the original goal to the least important of the three.

Perhaps this outcome is the inevitable outworking of self-interest, which is the primary motivator of human behavior. The democratic equity goal seems to operate as a necessary limitation, or guiding force, which acts against the self-interested motivations present within the social efficiency and social mobility goals. As the democratic equity goal was eroded by the conflicts and controversies discussed in the previous chapters, it eventually gave way to the constant pressures emanating from the self-interested motives of educational consumers. There seems to be an interesting connection in this regard to the impact of morality and the social implications of the moral framework that is imbibed by a population.

An objective moral framework entails a collective moral understanding with shared values and behavioral expectations. While it is possible to increase in our understanding of moral truth epistemologically in the same way that our knowledge of the physical world advances through science, the fact of the ontological existence of basic moral truths is not dependent on personal opinion any more than is the existence of the material world. In the same way that my opinion of the material world does not

determine its reality, my opinion of a behavior does not determine the moral value of the behavior. Is child abuse acceptable so long as the abuser thinks that it is? Certainly not!

The problem is that the objective moral framework often comes into conflict with self-interest. Is there a person who has not done something that they know they should not do, because they really wanted to do it anyway? The secular subjective moral views promoted by the educational progressives attempt to elude this problem by claiming that no behavior is wrong for everyone, rather it is a matter of personal opinion. This personalization of morality would fit nicely with a Machiavellian pragmatic mentality that would seem to be very at home in a social mobility context. If an action can be justified in the mind of the actor, then it becomes acceptable (at least in the mind of the actor).

The demise of the democratic equity goal also seems to support Labaree's (2010) claim that educational consumers, (despite the efforts by social reformers), have largely shaped the school system. This is not to say that reform movements in education have not had a profound influence on our culture, but that in its current incarnation, the educational system has become shaped by the demands of society. This would also seem to support Labaree's (2010) notion that in the on-going battle between educational reformers and consumers, the consumers have gained the upper hand. According to Labaree (2010),

> The American school system was a deliberate creation of the common school movement; but once the system was set in motion, consumers rather than reformers became its driving force… They turned the common school, where everyone underwent the same educational experience, into the uncommon school,

> where everyone entered the same institution but then pursued different programs. Their most consequential creation in this regard was the tracked comprehensive high school, which established the model for the reconstructed (not reformed) educational system that emerged at the start of the twentieth century and is still very much with us. (p. 237)

Labaree (2010) also argues that school reformers attempted to co-opt the consumer driven increase in school enrollment for the purpose of promoting social efficiency. However, this attempt failed to overcome the influence of social mobility and has resulted in the current system, which is focused on career preparation for the purpose of social mobility.

This brings us back to the question asked at the beginning of this paper, "what is, or should be the purpose of the American educational system?" The results of this study should raise the question as to what role the democratic equity goal should have in the current educational environment. This question seems to be pertinent in regard to two specific areas in education.

First is the socialization aspect of education. If students view education as a means to an end (whether from the social efficiency or mobility point of view), are the moral and social elements of education being pushed to the side? As discussed in chapters one and two, there seems to be evidence to support this notion. If this is indeed the case, what will be the result of having a democratic society that is morally ill equipped (N2 score for students in this study were roughly six points lower than the national norm)? This deficiency in the prioritization of moral education is especially relevant in relation to student behavior.

The second area relates to the social impact of a diminished social equity goal in the face of an ever-increasing emphasis on multiculturalism and moral relativism. Recall from chapter one that according to McClellen (1999), the state system of public schools was created to,

> Teach 'republican values' and encourage loyalty to the new nation…(with) special emphasis on the teaching of 'virtue,' which they defined roughly as the willingness to set aside purely selfish motives and work for the good of the larger society. No longer inclined to trust the haphazard efforts of families and communities, they sought a more systematic education that would promote larger loyalties. (p. 12-13)

What will be the impact on the country if, as the founders of the educational system feared, there is no common thread of virtue, and little if any thought given to what is in the best interest of the nation as a whole? These are questions that should be asked and considered by educational leaders who are involved in shaping the structure of the current system. For good or for bad, there is no single institution that has more of an influence on American society than the educational system. As Labaree (2010) points out,

> Schools have been ineffective in realizing the social goals of reformers, and their impact on educational consumers collectively has been counterproductive, but schools have been remarkably effective as reshaping American society in their own image. By educationalizing social problems, we have educationalized society itself. (p. 241)

Recommendations for Further Research

To date the author is not aware of any studies that have attempted to empirically support Labaree's (1997) assertion that social mobility has risen to become the dominant purpose of American public education. This study sought to provide empirical support to Labaree's (1997) assertion of the growing dominance of the social mobility goal in education. It would be interesting to see this study replicated numerous times in different regional and academic settings to see if results differ across geographic or cultural settings (for example urban versus rural high schools, public versus private or north eastern versus south eastern). While insight into the practical outworking of these goals was gained from this study, more research is still needed to gain a better understanding on the factors that relate to these goals.

This study reveals a need for further research into the relation between student perceptions of cheating and their moral development. This relationship is connected to the democratic equity goal (Labaree, 1997). How are the values that students hold in relation to academic honesty being formed, and at what age/academic level? It would also be interesting to see how these attitudes carry over into higher education and the work force. The answer to these questions may be helpful in determining how important the democratic equity goal should be in shaping the American educational system in the 21st century.

Further research is also necessary on the relationship between moral development, student perceptions of cheating, and how these factors relate to cheating incidences. This is a difficult relationship to understand, especially in light of the findings of Harthshorne & May (1928-1930) and Leming (1979), which found moral behavior to be situation

specific, regardless of moral development. Therefore, we may need more research into what kind of moral decisions are made in specific situations.

Further analysis of the results of this survey may also prove fruitful in further understanding student development and behavior. Given the limited scope of this study, the analysis was limited to the questions of interest, and therefore much of the data were not exhaustively examined, especially in regards to student cheating. Also, the results of the DIT scores could in addition to the N2 score could also potentially yield more insight into student moral development.

Conclusion

This study sought to examine the practical outworking of Labaree's (1997) theory that social mobility has become the dominant goal of education. This was done by measuring which of the three goals of education (democratic equity, social efficiency or social mobility) is reflected by the behavior and attitudes of students as they relate to moral development and cheating. Additionally this study provided further insight on the relationship between student moral development and cheating.

The results of the study support the social efficiency goal as being the dominant goal, and democratic equity being the least influential goal based on the relationship between student moral development level and their cheating incidences. Other factors such as cheating perceptions, GPA, academic and grade level, cheating perceptions and gender were also examined in an effort to gain insight into the factors contributing to the relationship between student moral development and cheating. Ultimately more research will need to be conducted in order to gain a better understanding of how these factors interact and how they relate to the purpose of education.

References

Adams, K., Monahan, J., & Wills, R. (2015). Losing the whole child? A national survey of primary education training provision for spiritual, moral, social and cultural development. *European Journal Of Teacher Education*, *38*(2), 199-216.

Ames, F. (1800). An oration on the sublime virtue of general george washington. (1st ed., pp. 23). Boston, MA: Young & Minns.

An Ordinance For The Government Of The Territory Of The United States, North-West Of The River Ohio. (n.d.) In Library of Congress. Retrieved from http://memory.loc.gov/cginin/query/r?ammem/bdsdcc:@field%28DOCID+@lit%28bdsdcc22501%29%29

Austin, Z., Simpson, S., & Reynen, E. (2005). 'The fault lies not in our students, but in ourselves': Academic honesty and moral development in health professions education—results of a pilot study in canadian pharmacy. Teaching in Higher Education, 10(2), 143-156.

Bailey, C. D. (2011). Does the defining issues test measure ethical judgment ability or political position? *Journal of Social Psychology, 151*(3), 314-330.

Barnett, R., Evens, J., & Rest, J. (1995). Faking moral judgment on the Defining Issues Test. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 34,* 267-278.

Barton, D. (2001). *Affidavit in support of the ten comandments*. Retrieved from http://www.wallbuilders.com/libissuesarticles.asp?id=87

Beach, W. (1992). *Ethical education in american public schools*. Washington DC: National Education Association.

Beachum, F. D., & McCray, C. R. (2005). Changes and transformations in the philosophy of character education in the 20th century. *Essays in Education, 14*, 1-7.

Beachum, F. D., McCray, C. R., Yawn, C. D., & Obiakor, F. E. (2013). Support and importance of moral education: Pre-service teacher perceptions. *Education, 133*(4), 470-480.

Center for Academic Integrity (2015). Retrived from http://www.academicintegrity.org

Center for the study of ethical development: DIT and DIT-2. (2015). Retrieved from http://ethicaldevelopment.ua.edu/dit-and-dit-2/ Chappell, B. (2013). U.S. students slide in global ranking on math, reading, science. Retrieved from http://www.npr.org/sections/thetwo-way/2013/12/03/248329823/u-s-high-school-students-slide-in-math-reading-science

Clouse, B. (2001). Moral education: Borrowing from the past to advance the future. *Contemporary Education, 72*(1), 23-28

Craig, W. L. (2010). Moral law argument: Morality based in rationality. Retrieved from http://www.reasonablefaith.org/moral-law-argument

Craig, W. L. (2013). Can we be good without god? why god is the only sound foundation for morality. Retrieved from http://www.reasonablefaith.org/can-we-be-good-without-god

Crowson, H. M., & DeBacker, T. K. (2008). Political identification and the defining issues test: Reevaluating an old hypothesis. *Journal of Social Psychology, 148*(1), 43-60.

Crowson, H. M., Debacker, T. K., & Thoma, S. J. (2007). Are DIT scores empirically distinct from measures of political identification and intellectual ability? A test

using post-9/11 data. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 25*(2), 197-211.

de Ruyter, D. J., & Steutel, J. W. (2013). The promotion of moral ideals in schools; what the state may or may not demand. Journal of Moral Education, 42(2), 177-192.

Dewey, J. (1909). Moral principles in education. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

Dong, Y. (2016). Norms for DIT2: From 2005-2009. Retrieved from http://ethicaldevelopment.ua.edu/uploads/8/4/9/8/84986096/norms-for-dit2__05-09_.pdf

Edgington, W. D. (2002). To promote moral education, use literature for children and adolescents [Electronic version]. *Social Studies, 93*(3), 113-117.

Elias, M. J. (2013). The character of schools, the character of individuals,and the character of society: Creating educational policy to reflect this inextricable interconnection. KEDI Journal of Educational Policy, , 141-149.

Emler, N., Palmer-Canton, E. & St. James, A. (1998). Politics, moral reasoning and the Defining Issues Test: A reply to Barnett et al. (1995). *British Journal of Social Psychology, 37*, 457-476.

Emler, N., Renwick, S., & Malone, B. (1983). The relationship between moral reasoning and political orientation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45*, 1073-1080.

Emler, N., & Stace, K. (1999). What does principled versus conventional moral reasoning convey to others about the politics of the reasoner? *European Journal of Social Psychology, 29,* 455-468.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using spss*. (3rd ed., pp. 223-224). London: Sage.

Fisher, D. G., & Sweeney, J. T.. (1998). The relationship between political attitudes and moral judgment: Examining the validity of the Defining Issues Test. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *17*(8), 905–916.

Geddes, K. A. (2011). Academic dishonesty among gifted and high-achieving students. Gifted Child Today, 34(2), 50-56.

Geisler, N., & Turek, F. (1998) *Legislating Morality*. Eugene, OR: Wipf and Stock Publishers.

Hartshorne, H., & May, M. (1928–1930). *Studies in the nature of character: Vol. 1, Studies in deceit; Vol. 2,Studies in self-control; Vol. 3, Studies in the organization of character*. New York: Macmillan.

Haynes, C., Leming, J., Groth, J., Lindquist, T., Lockwood, A., Marshall, P., & Nickell, P. (1997). Fostering civic virtue: Moral education in the social studies. *Social Education, 61*, 225-227.

Honz, K., Kiewra, K. A., & Yang, Y. (2010). Cheating perceptions and prevalence across academic settings. Mid-Western Educational Researcher, 23(2), 10-17.

How to convert your GPA to a 4.0 scale. (2017). Retrieved from http://www.collegeboard.com/html/academicTracker-howtoconvert.html

Howard, R. W., Berkowitz, M. W., Schaeffer, E. F. (2004). Politics of character education. Educational Policy, 18(1), 188-215.

Hughes, J. M. C., & McCabe, D. L. (2006). Understanding academic misconduct. *Canadian Journal of Higher Education, 36*(1), 49-63.

Jakubowski, J. K. (2013). *Making moral education a reality: An investigation of secondary teachers' perspectives toward implementation.* (Order No. 3574906,

California State University, Long Beach). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, , 176. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1449375345?accountid=12043. (1449375345).

Jeynes, W. H. (2009). The relationship between biblical literacy, academic achievement, and school behavior among christian- and public-school students. *Journal Of Research On Christian Education, 18*(1), 36-55.

Kamenetz, A. (2014). Why education is the most important revolution of our time. Retrieved from http://www.npr.org/sections/ed/2014/05/19/311847446/why-education-is-the-most-important-revolution-of-our-time

Kohlberg, L. (1973). The claim to moral adequacy of a highest stage of moral judgment. The Journal of Philosophy, 70(18), 630-646.

Kohlberg, L. (1975). Moral education for a society in moral transition. *Educational Leadership, 33*(1), 46-54.

Kohlberg, L., & Hersh, R. H. (1977). Moral development: A review of the theory. Theory into Practice, 16(2), 53-59.

Kohlberg, L. (1980). The case for moral education in public schools is based on democracy and knowledge of human development. *Educational Leadership, 38*(1), 19.

Labaree, D. F. (1997). Public goods, private goods: The American struggle over educational goals. American Educational Research Journal, 34(1), 39-81.

Labaree, D. F. (2010). Someone has to fail: The zero-sum game of public schooling. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Leming, J. S. (1985). Research on social studies curriculum and instruction: Interventions and outcomes in the socio- moral domain. In W. B. Stanley (Ed.), *Review of Research in Social Studies Education, 1976-1983. Bulletin 75.* (p. 127-217). The National Council for the Social Studies, 3501 Newark St., NW, Washington, DC 20016 or Social Science Education Consortium, Inc., 855 Broadway, Boulder, CO 80302.

Leming, J. S. (1993). Synthesis of research / in search of effective moral education. *Educational Leadership, 51*(3), 63-71. Retrieved from http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership/nov93/vol51/num03/Synthesis-of-Research-~-In-Search-of-Effective-Character-Education.aspx

Leming, J. S. (2008). Research and practice in moral and moral education: Loosely coupled phenomena. In L. P. Nucci and D. Narvaez (eds.), *Handbook of moral and character education*. Retrieved from http://www.marfu78.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/09/HAND_BOOK_OF_MORAL_AND_CHARACTER.pdf

Lickona, T. (1989). Educating for character: How our schools can teach respect and responsibility. New York: Bantam.

Lincoln, A. (1863). The gettysburg address. Retrieved from http://www.abrahamlincolnonline.org/lincoln/speeches/gettysburg.htmMalinowski, C. I., & Smith, C. P. (1985). Moral reasoning and moral conduct: An investigation prompted by kohlberg's theory. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 49(4), 1016-1027.

Mann, H. (1957). The republic and the school: Horace mann on the educationof free men. In L. Cremin (Ed.), Twelfth annual report (pp. 79-112). New York: Teachers College Press.

Markoulis, D. (1989). Political involvement and socio-moral reasoning: Testing Emler's hypothesis. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 28*, 203-212.

Massachusetts Passes First Education Law April 14, 1642. (n.d.). In *Mass Moments*. Retrieved from http://www.massmoments.org/moment.cfm?mid=113

McCabe, D. L. (1999). Academic dishonesty among high school students. *Adolescence, 34*(136), 681.

McCabe, D. L. (2005). It takes a village: Academic dishonesty & educational opportunity. *Liberal Education, 91*(3), 26-31.

McCabe, D. L. (2007). Academic integrity villa walsh academy student survey. Retrieved from http://acad-integrity.rutgers.edu/highschool.asp

McCabe, D. L. (2015). Academic integrity survey. Retrieved from http://www2.cortland.edu/dotAsset/317304.pdf

McCabe, D. L., & Katz, D. (2009). Curbing cheating. *Education Digest: Essential Readings Condensed for Quick Review, 75*(1), 16-19.

McCabe, D. L., & Pavela, G. (2004). Ten principles of academic integrity: How faculty can foster student honesty. *Change, 36*(3), 10.

McCabe, D. L., & Trevino, L. K. (1993). Academic dishonesty: Honor codes and other contextual influences. *The Journal of Higher Education, 64*(5), 522-538.

McCabe, D. L., & Trevino, L. K. (1997). Individual and contextual influences on academic dishonesty: A multicampus investigation. *Research in Higher Education, 38*(3), 379-396.

McClellan, B. E. (1999). Moral education in america: Schools and the shaping of character from colonial times to the present (1st ed.). New York, NY: Teachers College, Columbia University.

Menard, S. (1995). *Applied logistic regression analysis.* Sage university paper series on quantitative applications in the social sciences, 07-106. Thousand Oaks, CA:Sage.

Milson, A. J. (1999). *The perceptions of social studies teacher educators regarding character education.* (Order No. 9928968, University of Georgia). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, .160. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304500880?accountid=12043.(304500880).

Milson, A. J. (2000). Social Studies Teacher Educators' Perceptions of Moral education. *Theory & Research In Social Education*, *28*(2), 144-169.

Moral education. (2004). In *Education Week*. Retrieved from http://www.edweek.org/ew/issues/character-education/Most kids cheat, study says. (2008). School Library Journal, 54(4), 16-16.

National Commission on Excellence in Education. (1983). A nation at risk: The imperative for educational reform. Washington D.C.: Department of Education.

National Education Association, Department Superintendence. (1932). *Tenth yearbook:Moral education.* Washington D.C.: Department of Superintendence.

Oser, F. K., Althof, W., & Higgins-D'Alessandro, A. (2008). The just community approach to moral education: System change or individual change? *Journal of Moral Education, 37*(3), 395-415.

Peduzzi, P., Concato, J., Kemper, E., Holford, T. R., & Feinstein, A. R. (1996). A simulation study of the number of events per variable in logistic regression analysis. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology, 49*(12), 1373-1379.

Piaget, J. (1997). *The moral judgment of the child*. New York, NY: Free Press Paperbacks.

Power, C. F., Higgins, A., & Kohlberg, L. (1989). The habit of the common life: Building character through democratic community schools. In L. Nucci (Ed.), *Moral development and moral education: A dialogue* (pp. 125–143). Berkeley, CA: McCutchan.

Prestwich, D. L. (2004). Moral education in America's Schools. *School Community Journal, 14*(1), 139-150.

Rest, J. R. (1979). *The impact of higher education on moral judgment development. project report 1.*Washington, DC.: National Inst. of Education (DHEW).

Rest, J. (1986) *Moral development: Advances in research and theory.* New York: Prager.

Rest, J., Narvaez, D. (1994) *Moral development in the professions.* Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rest, J., Thoma, S., Narvaez, D., & Bebeau, M. (1997). Alchemy and beyond: Indexing the defining issues test. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 89*(3), 498-507.

Rest, J., Narvaez, D., Bebeau, M., & Thoma, S. (1999). *Postconventional moral thinking: A neo-Kohlbergian approach.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rest, J., Narvaez, D., Thoma, S., & Bebeau, M. (2000). A neo-kohlbergian approach to morality research. Journal of Moral Education, 29(4), 381-395.

Ryan, K. (2008). *Moral education walks again!.* Retrieved from http://www.mercatornet.com/articles/view/character_education_walks_again

Sanders, C.E, Lubinski, D., & Benbow, C. P. (1995). Does the defining issues test measure psychological phenomena distinct from verbal ability? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 63(3)*, 498-504.

Sanger, M. (2008). What we need to prepare teachers for the moral nature of their work. Journal of Curriculum Studies, 40(2), 169-185.

Schab, F. (1991). Schooling without learning: Thirty years of cheating in high school. Adolescence, 26(104), 839-847.

Schlaefli, A., Rest, J. R., & Thoma, S. J. (1985). Does moral education improve moral judgment? A meta-analysis of intervention studies using the defining issues test. *Review of Educational Research, 55*(3), 319-352.

Sedlak, M. W., Wheeler, C. W., Pullin, D. C., & Cusick, P. A.Selling students short: Classroom bargains and academic reform in the american high school. New York: Teachers College Press.

Setran, D. P. (2000). *"Moral education and the kingdom of god:" liberal progressivism and the search for a modern morality, 1917--1940.* (Order No. 9993649, Indiana University). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, , 706-706 p. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304599263?accountid=12043. (304599263).

Smith, B. H. (2013). School-based character education in the united states. Childhood Education, 89(6), 350-355.

Sparks, S. D. (2011). Studies shed light on how cheating impedes learning. Education Week, 30(26), 1,.

Stephens, J. M., Young, M. F., & Calabrese, T. (2007). Does moral judgment go offline when students are online? A comparative analysis of undergraduates' beliefs and behaviors related to conventional and digital cheating. Ethics and Behavior, 17(3), 233-254.

Stiff-Williams, H. R. (2010). Widening the Lens to Teach Moral education Alongside Standards Curriculum. *Clearing House*, *83*(4), 115-120. Thoma, S. J., & Dong, Y. (2014). The defining issues test of moral judgment development. Behavioral Development Bulletin, 19(3), 55-61.

Thoma, S. J. (2002). An overview of the minnesota approach to research in moral development. *Journal of Moral Education, 31*(3), 225-245.

Thoma, S. J., & Dong, Y. (2014). The defining issues test of moral judgment development. *Behavioral Development Bulletin, 19*(3), 55-61.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2014). The condition of education 2014 (NCES 2014-083) public school expenditures. Retrieved from http://nces.ed.gov/fastfacts/display.asp?id=66

Valk, J. (2007). Plural public schooling: Religion, worldviews and moral education. British Journal of Religious Education, 29(3), 273-285.

Williams, L. K. (2012). *Cheating incidences, perceptions of cheating, and the moral development level of college students* (Ed.D.). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses A&I. (1009056995).

Appendix A

DIT Reliability

According to Thoma and Dong (2014), "the empirical support for the DIT test as a measure of moral judgment development is many and varied" (p. 59). The DIT has been validated according to the following six criteria: differentiation of various age/educational groups; longitudinal gains; correlation with cognitive capacity measures; sensitivity to moral education interventions; correlation with behavior and professional decision making; and predicting to political choice and attitude (The Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama, 2015; Thoma & Dong, 2014). These findings are the result of over 400 published studies over a 35-year period (The Center for the Study of Ethical Development at the University of Alabama, 2015; Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Differentiating age and educational groups. The DIT has been shown to be able to differentiate between groups according to age and educational level. Large composite samples (thousands of subjects) show that 30% to 50% of the variance of DIT scores is attributable to level of education in samples ranging from junior-high education to Ph.D.s (Thoma & Dong, 2014). That a graduate philosophy student should score higher than a freshman undergraduate is to be expected on the cognitive developmental model of moral development.

Longitudinal gains. The cognitive developmental model by its very name suggests that the capacity for moral reasoning should increase across time. Rest (1986) demonstrated this in a 10-year longitudinal study that demonstrated increased summary scores regardless of gender, college attendance or profession. A review of 12 studies

comparing a total of 755 DIT scores of freshmen to senior college students showed large gains (Cohen's d statistic of .80) (Thoma & Dong, 2014). Thoma and Dong (2014) claim that the DIT "produces some of the most dramatic longitudinal gains" of any variables studied in samples of college students (p.60).

Correlation with cognitive capacity measures. Because of the developmental nature of the DIT schemas there should be evidence of a relationship between moral reasoning and other cognitive measures. The challenge however is to ensure that the test is actually measuring moral reasoning and not general cognitive ability or other related variables such as verbal ability (Sanders, Lubinski & Benbow, 1995; Thoma & Dong, 2014). Overall, the existing literature indicates that DIT scores are significantly related to measures of cognitive capacity and moral comprehension, to recall and reconstruction of post-conventional moral argument, to Kohlberg's measure, and to other cognitive developmental measures (Rest, 1979; Rest, 1986; Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Sensitivity to moral education interventions. These criteria focus on the DIT's ability to detect the effectiveness of intervention methods aimed at improving moral reasoning. In a review of over 50 intervention studies, Rest (1986) reports an effect size for discussion interventions to be .41 (moderate gains), while the effect size for the control group was only .09 (small gain) (Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Correlation with behavioral and professional decision-making. A measure of moral reasoning should be related to moral decision making if moral decision-making is related to moral reasoning. Rest (1986) reports a statistically significant relationship between DIT scores and 32 of 47 moral actions measured. Rest and Narvaez (1994) have

also shown a link between DIT scores and multiple elements of professional decision-making.

Predicting to political choice and attitude. It is assumed that DIT scores should be significantly related to political attitudes and political choices because the DIT is a measure of macro-morality (Thoma & Dong, 2014). According to Thoma and Dong (2014), "an understanding of macro-morality addresses an understanding of society-wide institutions and their role in promoting social cooperation through laws and the political process" (p. 60). Thoma and Dong (2014) report that a review of "several dozen correlates between political attitude and DIT scores it was found that they typically correlate in the moderate range" (p.60). Combining DIT scores with measures of "cultural ideology" in a multiple regression analysis increased the ability to predict positions on controversial public policy issues to two-thirds of the variance (Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Additional Reliability Measures. In addition to these six criteria of validity, the DIT has been shown to be valid distinct from numerous other variables (such as verbal ability, general intelligence and political attitudes) that might be thought to influence scores (Thoma & Dong, 2014). According to the Center for the study of ethical development (2015), Cronbach's alpha for the DIT is in the high .70 to low .80 range, and reliability for test-retest scores is roughly the same. The DIT is also equally valid for both females and males as gender accounts for less than .5% of the variance in scores, compared to education which is 250 times more effective in predicting variance (Thoma & Dong, 2014).

Appendix B

Dear Parent or Guardian,

This is a letter requesting permission for your child to participate in a research study on moral development as it relates to cheating attitudes and behaviors. Mr. Joshua Kline, (a history teacher at Easton high school) is conducting this study as part of his work in the educational leadership program at Lehigh University under the direction of Dr. Floyd Beachum (Educational Leadership program director at Lehigh University). The survey will be administered via the Internet in the classroom using laptop computers and should take approximately 40-50 minutes to complete.

The study will be administered to your child during part of their history class. Participation is entirely voluntary, and no personal information that could be used to identify you child will be collected. The survey will consist of two parts. The first part will include the short form version of the Defining Issues Test (DIT)[2], which is the most widely used measurement instrument for moral development. The DIT includes three moral scenarios that are read and a series of responses based on scenarios that are ranked in order of the best action to take. The second part of the survey includes a series of questions about student attitudes toward different types of cheating and questions about cheating behaviors they have participated in. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between moral reasoning and moral behavior across different grade and academic levels.

Confidentiality

The records of this study will be kept confidential and no information collected through this research project will personally identify you. In any sort of report we might publish, we will not include any information that will make it possible to identify a subject. Research records will be stored securely and only researchers will have access to the records.

Voluntary Nature of the Study

Participation in this study is voluntary:
Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with anyone at Easton High School. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without consequence.

[2] More information about the DIT can be found at http://ethicaldevelopment.ua.edu/

Risks **and** ***Benefits*** **of being in the study**

Possible risks:
First, this survey forces subjects to make choices between possible actions of characters in scenarios that may cause some students stress; Second, while there is academic benefit in reading the survey, it will be at the expense of reading information in the content area; Third, reflecting upon cheating might be uncomfortable for some people; Four, some questions on the survey may potentially prompt subjects to recall distressing or traumatic past events.

While these risks may exist, the potential stress caused by taking this survey is no greater than the stress of academic questions in an academic class.

The benefits to participation are:
This study provides an opportunity to increase reading comprehension and critical thinking skills.

Contacts and Questions

The researchers conducting this study are:
Mr. Joshua Kline and Dr. Floyd Beachum. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact them at 111- Iacocca Hall Lehigh University, 610-758-5955, fdb209@lehigh.edu.

Questions or Concerns:
If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher(s), **you are encouraged** to contact Naomi Coll of Lehigh University's Office of Research Integrity at (610) 758-3021 or inors@lehigh.edu. All reports or correspondence will be kept confidential.

Statement of Consent

If you are willing to allow your student to participate in this study please sign below and have them return it to their history teacher. Thank you for your consideration in this matter.

I have read the above information. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have my questions answered. I consent to have my child participate in the study.

Signature:_____ Date: _____

Signature of parent or guardian:_____ Date: _____

Appendix C
Teacher Instructions for the Administration of Morality, Cheating and Academics Survey

Please have students use the rest room prior to the beginning of the block to avoid having to go during the survey.

Script to be read to class: Today those of you that have returned your parental permission slips and choose to participate will take the Morality, Cheating and Academics survey during class. Mr. Kline who is a history teacher here at the high school is conducting this survey through Lehigh University.

Those who have not returned the permission slip, or choose not to participate will be utilizing this time to read historical accounts of interest to you. It is important that there be a quiet and respectful atmosphere in order to allow those taking the survey to concentrate on their answers. As always, cell phones and other electronics devices are prohibited and should be put away.

When instructed to do so, please take a laptop from the computer cart and follow the appropriate instructions displayed in the front of the room. **Please read the login directions at this time.**

Students who *are not* participating in the survey:

1. Log into computer as guest.
2. Go to www.eyewitnesstohistory.com and read stories that interest you.

Students who *are* participating in the survey:

1. Log into computer as guest.
2. Go to www.eastonsd.org
3. Click on the **Google Classroom** link under the Students dropdown menu.
4. Log In using your last name and first initial @roverkids.org (ex. smithj@roverkids.org)
5. Enter password: easd and your student number (ex. easd12345)
6. Enter the class access code **pwhl6c**
7. Click on the survey link, read the directions and begin.
8. After survey go to www.eyewitnesstohistory.com and read stories that interest you.

If you are having difficulty logging in or accessing the survey, please quietly raise your hand and I will assist you. I will be monitoring to make sure that you are working on task. I will not be reading your answers to the survey. I will also remind those taking the survey that it is confidential and I will not have access to your answers, so please answer as accurately as possible. When everyone is finished with the survey I will give further instructions. At this time you may get a laptop and begin.

Appendix D

Morality Cheating and Academics

EM This survey is entirely voluntary. Information and answers you provide in the survey is confidential. Please read all directions carefully and answer as honestly and thoughtfully as possible.

EN1 This questionnaire is concerned with how you define the issues in a social problem. Several stories about social problems will be described. After each story, there will be a list of questions. The questions that follow each story represent different issues that might be raised by the problem. In other words, the questions/issues raise different ways of judging what is important in making a decision about the social problem. You will be asked to rate and rank the questions in terms of how important each one seems to you. PLEASE TRY TO FINISH THE QUESTIONNAIRE IN ONE SITTING.

E EXAMPLE of the task. In this questionnaire you will be asked to read a story and then to place marks on the answer sheet. In order to illustrate how we would like you to do this, consider the following story: FRANK AND THE CAR Frank Jones has been thinking about buying a car. He is married, has two small children and earns an average income. The car he buys will be his family's only car. It will be used mostly to get to work and drive around town, but sometimes for vacation trips also. In trying to decide what car to buy, Frank Jones realized that there were a lot of questions to consider. For instance, should he buy a larger used car or a smaller new car for about the same amount of money? Other questions Occur to him. We note that this is not really a social problem, but it will illustrate our instructions. After you read a story you will then turn to the question section that corresponds to the story. But in this sample story, we present the questions below. First, on the question section for each story you will be asked to indicate your recommendation for what a person should do. If you tend to favor one action or another (even if you are not completely sure), indicate which one. If you do not favor either action, mark the circle by "can't decide." Second, read each of the items numbered 1 to 12. Think of the issue that the item is raising. If that issue is not important or doesn't make sense to you, mark "no." If the issue is relevant but not critical, mark "much," "some," or "little" depending on how much importance that issue has in your opinion. You may mark several items as "great" or any other level of importance there is no fixed number of items that must be marked at any one level. Third, after you have made your marks along the left hand side of each of the 12 items, then at the bottom you will be asked to choose the item that is the most important consideration out of all the items printed there. Pick from among the items provided even if you think that non of the items are of "great" importance. Of the items that are presented there, pick one as the most important (relative to the others), then the second most important, third, and fourth most important.

1 *1. FRANK AND THE CAR

- ❍ Buy new car (1)
- ❍ Can't decide (2)
- ❍ Buy used car (3)

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

	Great (1)	Much (2)	Some (3)	Little (4)	No (5)
1. Whether the car dealer was in the same block as where Frank lives. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
2. Would a used car be more economical in the long run than a new car. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
3.Whether the color was green, Frank's favorite color. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
4. Whether the cubic inch displacement was at least 200. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
5. Would a large, roomy car be better than a compact car. (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
6. Whether the front connibilies were differential. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

EN2 Note. Some items may seem irrelevant or not make sense (as in item #6). In that case, rate the item as "NO". After you rate all of the items you will be asked to RANK the top four items in terms of importance. Note that it makes sense that the items you RATE as most important should be RANKED as well. So if you only rated item 2 as having great importance you should rank it as most important.

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

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)
Most important item (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Second most important item (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Third most important item (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Fourth most important item (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

EN3 Again, remember to consider all of the items before you rank the four most important items and be sure that you only rank items that you found important. Note also that before you begin to rate and rank items you will be asked to state your preference for what action to take in story.Thank you and you may begin the questionnaire!

H Here is the first story for your consideration. HEINZ AND THE DRUG In Europe a woman was near death from a special kind of cancer. There was one drug that doctors thought might save her. It was a form of radium that a druggist in the same town had recently discovered. The drug was expensive to make, but the druggist was charging ten times what the drug cost to make. He paid $200 for the radium and charged $2,000 for a small dose of the drug. The sick woman's husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money, but he could only get together about $1,000, which is half of what it cost. He told the druggist that his wife was dying, and asked him to sell it cheaper or let him pay later. But the druggist said, "No, I discovered the drug and I'm going to make money from it." So Heinz got desperate and began to think about breaking into the man's store to steal the drug for his wife. Should Heinz steal the drug?

4 *4. What should Heinz do?

- ❍ Should steal (1)
- ❍ Can't decide (2)
- ❍ Should not steal (3)

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

	Great (1)	Much (2)	Some (3)	Little (4)	No (5)
1. Whether a community's laws are going to be upheld. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
2. Isn't it only natural for a loving father to care so much for his family that he would steal? (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
3. Is Heinz willing to risk getting shot as a burglar or going to jail for the chance that stealing the drug might help? (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
4. Whether Heinz is a professional wrestler, or has considerable influence with professional wrestlers. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
5. Whether Heinz is stealing for himself or doing this solely to help someone else. (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
6. Whether the druggist's rights to his invention have to be respected. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
7. Whether the	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

essence of living is more encompassing than the termination of dying, socially and individually. (7)					
8. What values are going to be the basis for governing how people act towards each other. (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
9. Whether the druggist is going to be allowed to hide behind a worthless law which only protects the rich anyhow. (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
10. Whether the law in this case is getting in the way of the most basic claim of any member of society. (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
11. Whether the druggist deserves to be robbed for being so greedy and cruel. (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
12. Would stealing in such a case bring about more total good for the whole society or not. (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

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

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	8 (8)	9 (9)	10 (10)	11 (11)	12 (12)
Most important item (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Second most important item (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Third most important item (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Fourth most important item (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

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

7 *7. What should she do?

- ❍ Should report him (1)
- ❍ Can't decide (2)
- ❍ Should not report him (3)

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

	Great (1)	Much (2)	Some (3)	Little (4)	No (5)
1. Hasn't Mr. Thompson been good enough for such a long time to prove he isn't a bad person? (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
2. Everytime someone escapes punishment for a crime, doesn't that just encourage more crime? (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
3. Wouldn't we be better off without prisons and the oppression of our legal system? (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
4. Has Mr. Thompson really paid his debt to society? (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
5. Would society be failing what Mr. Thompson should fairly expect? (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
6. What benefits would prisons be apart from society, especially for a charitable man? (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
7. How could anyone be so cruel and	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

heartless as to send Mr. Thompson to prison? (7)					
8. Would it be fair to all the prisoners who had to server out their full sentences if Mr. Thompson was let off? (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
9. Was Mrs. Jones a good friend of Mr. Thompson? (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
10. Wouldn't it be a citizen's duty to report an escaped criminal, regardless of the circumstances? (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
11. How would the will of the people and the public good best be served? (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
12. Would going to prison do any good for Mr. Thompson or protect anybody? (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

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

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	8 (8)	9 (9)	10 (10)	11 (11)	12 (12)
Most important item (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Second most important item (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Third most important item (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Fourth most important item (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

N NEWSPAPER Fred, a senior in high school, wanted to publish a mimeographed newspaper for students so that he could express many of his opinions. He wanted to speak out against the use of the military in international disputes and to speak out against some of the school's rules, like the rule forbidding boys to wear long hair. When Fred started his newspaper, he asked his principal for permission. The principal said it would be alright if before every publication Fred would turn in all his articles for the principal's approval. Fred agreed and turning in several articles for approval. The principal approved all of them and Fred published two issues of the paper in the next two weeks. But the principal had not expected that Fred's newspaper would receive so much attention. Students were so excited by the paper that they began to organize protests against the hair regulation and other school rules. Angry parents objected to Fred's opinions. They phoned the principal telling him that the newspaper was unpatriotic and should not be published. As a result of the rising excitement, the principal ordered Fred to stop publishing. He gave as a reason that Fred's activities were disruptive to the operation of the school. Should the principal stop the newspaper?

10 *10. Should the principal stop the paper?

- ❍ Should stop it (1)
- ❍ Can't decide (2)
- ❍ Should not stop it (3)

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

	Great (1)	Much (2)	Some (3)	Little (4)	No (5)
1. Is the principal more responsible to students or to parents? (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
2. Did the principal give his word that the newspaper could be published for a long time, or did he just promise to approve the newspaper one issue at a time? (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
3. Would the students start protesting even more if the principal stopped the newspaper? (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
4. When the welfare of the school is threatened, does the principal have the right to give orders to students? (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
5. Does the principal have the freedom of speech to say "no" in this case? (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
6. If the principal stopped the newspaper would he be	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

preventing full discussion of important problems? (6)					
7. Whether the principal's order would make Fred lose faith in the principal. (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
8. Whether Fred was really loyal to his school and patriotic to his country. (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
9. What effect would stopping the paper have on the student's education in critical thinking and judgment? (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
10. Whether Fred was in any way violating the rights of others in publishing his own opinions. (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
11. Whether the principal should be influenced by some angry parents when it is the principal that knows best what is going on in the school. (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
12. Whether	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

Fred was using the newspaper to stir up hatred and discontent. (12)					

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

	1 (1)	2 (2)	3 (3)	4 (4)	5 (5)	6 (6)	7 (7)	8 (8)	9 (9)	10 (10)	11 (11)	12 (12)
Most important item (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Second most important item (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Third most important item (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Fourth most important item (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

C1 McCabe Academic Integrity Behaviors: (As a reminder, this survey is completely confidential; no individuals will in any way be connected with their answers.)

13 Please mark how often, if ever, in the past year you have engaged in any of the following behaviors.

	Click to write Column 1				
	Never (1)	Once (2)	2-3 times (3)	4-5 times (4)	More than 6 times (5)
Copied from another student during a test or exam. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used unpermitted crib notes (or cheat sheets) during a test or exam. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Got questions or answers from someone who had already taken a test. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using an electronic or digital device (e.g. cell phone) as an unauthorized aid during an exam. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Helped someone else cheat on a test. (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Read an abridged version of a book (e.g. Sparks Notes) rather than the original. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Read a foreign language assignment in English instead of the foreign	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

language. (7)					
Turned in work you copied from another student. (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Turned in an assignment on which your parents did most of the work. (9)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Worked on an assignment with other students when the teacher asked for individual work. (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Claimed credit for group work when you really didn't contribute. (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Copied a few sentences from a site on the Internet without citing them. (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Copied a few sentences from a book, magazine, or other source without citing them. (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Let another student copy homework. (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Turned in a paper obtained in large part from a paper "mill" or	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

website, or from a book, journal, or other source. (15)					
Stayed home to postpone taking a test/handing in an assignment. (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Claimed you handed in a paper or project when you had not done so. (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍
Sold, purchased, or distributed in some other way, test/exam copies, questions, essays, or class notes. (18)	❍	❍	❍	❍	❍

14 Please indicate how serious you think each type of behavior is.

	Not Cheating (1)	Trivial Cheating (2)	Moderate Cheating (3)	Serious Cheating (4)
Copied from another student during a test or exam. (1)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Used unpermitted crib notes (or cheat sheets) during a test or exam. (2)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Got questions or answers from someone who had already taken a test. (3)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Using an electronic or digital device (e.g. cell phone) as an unauthorized aid during an exam. (4)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Helped someone else cheat on a test. (5)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Read an abridged version of a book (e.g. Sparks Notes) rather than the original. (6)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Read a foreign language assignment in English instead of the foreign language. (7)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Turned in work you copied from another student. (8)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Turned in an assignment on which your parents did most	❍	❍	❍	❍

of the work. (9)				
Worked on an assignment with other students when the teacher asked for individual work. (10)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Claimed credit for group work when you really didn't contribute. (11)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Copied a few sentences from a site on the Internet without citing them. (12)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Copied a few sentences from a book, magazine, or other source without citing them. (13)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Let another student copy homework. (14)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Turned in a paper obtained in large part from a paper "mill" or website, or from a book, journal, or other source. (15)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Stayed home to postpone taking a test/handing in an assignment. (16)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Claimed you handed in a paper or project when you had not done so. (17)	❍	❍	❍	❍
Sold, purchased, or distributed in some other way, test/exam copies,	❍	❍	❍	❍

questions, essays, or class notes. (18)				

15 In order of importance (1= most important; 4=least important) please rank the following goals of education; (i.e. why is it important for you to be in school?)

_____ To get the training necessary to be employed. (1)
_____ To be able to make a better life for myself. (2)
_____ To keep me busy until I am old enough to not have to be in school. (3)
_____ To learn how to be a good citizen and participate in a democratic society. (4)

DE Please provide the following information about yourself:

16 What is your current grade level?
- ❍ 9th grade (1)
- ❍ 10th grade (2)
- ❍ 11th grade (3)
- ❍ 12th grade (4)

17 Which of the following would best describe your academic level? (What level are most of your classes?)
- ❍ On-Level (1)
- ❍ College Prep (2)
- ❍ Honors (3)
- ❍ Advanced Placement (4)

18 *25. What is your gender?
- ❍ Male (1)
- ❍ Female (2)

Q47 Please indicate your current GPA to the best of your knowledge, (for example: 2.4 or 3.1).