Frères Mentouri Constantine 1 University

Faculty of Arts and Languages

Department of Arts and the English Language

COURSE OF ETHICS AND DEONTOLOGY FOR SECOND YEAR MASTER'S STUDENTS

Presented by

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Table of Content

A seed will only become a flower if it gets sun and water --Louis Gotischalk

General Course Information

Course title: Course of Ethics and Deontology for Second Year Master's Students.

Target audience: Second year Master's students of English.

Coefficient: 01

Credits: 01

Type of Unit: Transversal (Ethics and Deontology).

Type of Instruction: Physical (the teacher is present to deliver the course in the amphitheatre).

Average teaching hours: 22:30 hours (15 weeks).

Number of sessions per week: One session (One hour and a half per each week)

Course delivery modality: Course (Lecturing).

Teaching Method/approach: Competency-based approach and interactive teaching/learning.

Follow-up and evaluation modality: Formative assessment in the form of assignments in class, in addition to summative assessment, which takes place during the final exam of the whole first term.

Introduction

Master's students are willing to conduct research in order to get their degree. For that doing research is essentially an ethical enterprise that calls for rigid adherence to principles of integrity and duty. Ethics, as a branch of philosophy, sets the basis for right versus wrong in the pursuit of knowledge. However, deontology puts emphasis on duty and the rules governing responsible conduct in a research environment. In contrast, ethics goes beyond personal morality; it is a system of principles-like respect for persons, beneficence, and justice that ensures scientific inquiry benefits society through minimising harm.

In fact, deontology in the reference to some actions as intrinsically right or wrong, independent of their consequences. In research, deontology translates into a set of non-negotiable duties: the absolute obligation to be truthful and honest in reporting data, methods, and findings, making falsification or fabrication a direct violation of duty. Researchers have the duty to be transparent about the research process; they must make everything open to scrutiny. They also have duties of proper attribution, whereby they give credit where such is due, since failure to provide adequate credit (plagiarism) undermines the whole system of scholarly communication. A corresponding duty is a duty to rigor to ensure that the research is reliable and credible by following established methodologies and analytical standards.

Great research is essentially connected with ethical conduct. Compliance with the deontology of research ensures that knowledge is pursued responsibly, honestly, and for the good of humanity. Actually, adherence to ethical norms in research is important because it protects participants, ensures the integrity of findings, and builds public trust in the scientific enterprise and, therefore, furthers two central aims of research: the quest for knowledge, truth, and the avoidance of error. One major function of ethical norms is the protection of human and animal subjects from physical, psychological, or social harm by such means as informed consent, confidentiality, and voluntary participation, thus treating individuals with dignity and respect and protecting their rights and welfare. Ethical standards also call for honesty, objectivity, and transparency in all aspects of data collection, analysis, and reporting; prohibitions against misconduct (such as fabrication, falsification, and plagiarism) reduce the incidence of bias and error and ensure the reliability and validity of the results. In addition, the relationship between the scientific community and the public depends substantially on trust, and compliance with ethical norms thus constitutes an expression of responsibility, to which continued public support and funding are linked. Many ethical norms reinforce social values that are integral to the health of the scientific community, such as mutual respect, fairness, and

proper acknowledgment, all of which are essential for collegiality. In short, by abiding by ethical norms, researchers do more than avoid harm and misconduct; they also create a robust, fruitful, and trustworthy environment for carrying forward the quest for knowledge that is fundamental for society.

Course Description

Course of Ethics and Deontology for Second Year Master's Students is a semi-annual course designed for second year Master's students as part of their syllabus, which was designed by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research to help them realise the importance of adhering to ethical norms particularly when conducting research. In addition, other learners can use it to learn about ethics as a discipline, in general, its relation to any domain in this life, its importance in highlighting and differentiating good and bad, and to acquire the necessary good practices for conducting research. Most importantly, this course might be of great help for teachers of Ethics and Deontology to make them aware about the necessary ethical practises as far as the academic context in concerned.

This course is delivered over a period of fifteen weeks for the first term only because it is semi-annual by nature with an average of one session per week; that is, twenty-two sessions in total, each of which lasts ninety minutes. This course's content flows in a consecutive manner, from *Ethics and Morality (Basic Concepts)* to how to the *Fundamental Principles of the University Charter of Ethics and Deontology*. The lectures are organised as follows:

Lecture One is an introduction to some basic concepts such as, *Ethics and Morality*. C*hapter Two,* However delves into approaches to studying ethics and the different perspectives and standpoints of ethical enquiry. *Chapter Three* deals with ethical theories and approaches related to ethics. *Chapter Four* is an illustration of a myriad of ethical norms in different communities in all corners of the world. In fact, these first four chapters serve as introduction to studying ethics and deontology. *Chapter Five* is about corruption, its forms, sectors, scales, and consequences. It is very crucial to deal with it as it represents the practical side of the some unethical behaviours. In addition, it is considered as the one and only content of the ministerial canvas of Ethics and Deontology subject. *Chapter Six* digs a bit into some ethical norms according to Islam as an example of another type of ethics and deontology. *Chapters Seven, Eight, Nine, Ten, Eleven, and Twelve* are devoted to ethics and ethical practices in relation to conducting research like decision making in research, in addition to some practices which make the core of research ethical norms such as, avoiding falsification, fabrication and plagiarism. Moreover, crucial ethical concepts in research are dealt with. *Chapter Thirteen* deals with

research dissemination, i.e., the planned process of sharing research findings. Last but not least, *Chapter Fourteen* is the Fundamental Principles of the *University Charter of Ethics and Deontology* which represents a practical guide that serves as a summary of what is mentioned in the previous chapters because it portrays the importance of right and duties of all university staff and the code of conduct of academia.

Course Objectives

Throughout dealing with this course, second year master students will be able to:

- Define the term *ethics* and *morals* and discuss philosophical uses of these terms.
- Discuss systems of moral reasoning as they have been used throughout history.
- Evaluate a variety of ethical theories and approaches to use in personal and professional relationships.
- Conduct research with due respect of ethical norms.
- Know what are the duties and rights of all segments of the university staff.
- Know what is corruption, its types, its causes and consequences to avoid resorting to any of its type.
- Be aware of the ethics in Islam as an example of ethical conducts.

Keywords: Ethics, deontology, theories, perspectives, ethics and research, ethical consent, corruption, university charter, duties, rights, teachers, students, ethics an religions, history of ethics.

Chapter One

Ethics and Morality (Basic Concepts)

Introduction

Ethical directives are not always evident, and people sometimes disagree about what is right and wrong. These factors lead some people to believe that ethics can be based mainly on personal opinions. However, if teachers and students are to enter into the global dialogue about ethics, they must do more than practise ethics based simply on their personal opinions, their intuition or the unexamined beliefs that are proposed by other people. It is important for students to have a general understanding of the concepts, principles, approaches and theories that have been used in studying ethics throughout history so that they can identify and analyse ethical issues and dilemmas that are relevant to the university teacher and students in the twenty first century. Mature ethical sensitivities are critical to ethical practice, and as Hope (2004, p. 6) proposed, "We need to develop our hearts as well as our minds."

1.1. Meaning of Ethics and Morals

1.1.1. Ethics

When narrowly defined according to its original use, **ethics is a branch of philosophy that is used to study human behaviour and ideal ways of being** (how things should be/not how they are in reality). **The approaches to ethics and meanings** of related concepts have **varied** among philosophers and ethicists. For example, **Aristotle** believed that **ideal behaviours** were practices that lead to the end goal of **eudaimonia**[1] (Greek god/one of the Charites), which is **synonymous** with **a high level of happiness or well-being.** On the other hand, discussion of the links between virtue of character (*ēthikē aretē*) and happiness *(eudaimonia)* is one of the central concerns of ancient ethics, and a subject of much disagreement. As a result there are many varieties of eudaimonism. Two of the most influential

forms are those of Aristotle and the Stoics. Aristotle takes virtue and its exercise to be the most important constituent in eudaimonia but acknowledges also the importance of external goods such as health, wealth, and beauty. By contrast, the Stoics make virtue necessary and sufficient for eudaimonia and thus deny the necessity of external goods (Andre & Velasquez, 2014).

As a philosophical discipline of study, **ethics** is a systematic approach to understanding, analysing and distinguishing matters of right and wrong, good and bad and admirable and deplorable as they relate to the well-being of and the relationships among sentient beings. Ethical determinations are applied through the use of formal theories, approaches and codes of conduct, such as codes that are developed for professions and religions. **Ethics is an active process rather than a static condition**, so some ethicists use the expression ***doing ethics.*** When people are doing ethics, they need to support their beliefs and assertions with sound reasoning; in other words, even if people believe that ethics is very subjective, they must be able to justify their positions through logical, theoretically based arguments. Feelings and emotions are normal part of everyday life and can play a legitimate role in doing ethics. However, people sometimes allow their emotions to overtake good reasoning, and when this happens, it does not provide a good foundation for ethics-related decisions. Evaluations generated through the practice of ethics require a balance of emotion and reason (Andre & Velasquez, 2014). .

1.1.2. Morals

As contrasted with ethics, **morals** are **specific beliefs, behaviours and ways of being derived from doing ethics**. One's morals are judged to be good or bad through systematic ethical analysis. **The reverse of morality is immorality**, which means that **a person is in opposition to accepted societal, religious, cultural or ethical standards and principles**; **examples of immorality** include **dishonesty, fraud, murder and sexual abusive acts.** *Amoral* is a term used to refer to actions that can normally be judged as moral or immoral but are done

with lack of concern for good behaviour. For example, **murder is immoral,** but if a person commits murder with absolutely no sense of remorse or maybe even a sense of pleasure, the person is acting in an amoral way. **Acts are considered to be non-moral if moral standards essentially do not apply to the acts** (Gert, 2008); for example, **choosing between cereal and toast and jam for breakfast is a non moral decision.**

When people consider matters of ethics, they usually consider matters of freedom in regard to personal choices, one's obligations to other sentient beings, or judgements about human character. The term ***unethical*** is used to describe ethics in its negative form when, for instance, a person's character or behaviour is contrary to admirable traits or the code of conduct that has been endorsed by one's society, community or profession. Because the word *ethics* is used when one may actually be referring to a situation of morals, the process-related or *doing* conception of ethics is sometimes overlooked today. People often use the word *ethics* when referring to a collection of actual beliefs and behaviours. Thereby using the terms ethics and morals interchangeably. Some effort has been made to distinguish the words *ethics* and *morals* based on their literal meanings; however, because of common uses, the terms have generally been used interchangeably (Comstock, 2015).

Billington (2003) delineated important features regarding the concepts *morals* and *ethics:*

- Probably the most important feature about ethics and morals is that no one can avoid making moral or ethical decisions because the social connection with others necessitates that people must consider moral and ethical actions.
- Other people are always involved with one's moral and ethical decisions. Private morality does not exist.
- Morality decisions matter because every decision affects someone else's life, self-esteem or happiness level.
- Definite conclusions or resolutions will never be reached in ethical debates.

- In the area of morals and ethics, people cannot exercise moral judgement without being given a choice; in other words, a necessity of making a sound moral judgement is being able to choose an option from among a number of choices.
- People use moral reasoning to make moral judgements or to discover right actions.

Definitions of Difficult Words

Immanuel Kant, an 18th century philosopher and ethicist, believed that **ideal behaviour was acting in accordance with one's duty**. For Kant (2004), **well-being means having the freedom to exercise autonomy (self-determination)**, not being used as a means to an end, being treated with dignity, and having the capability to think rationally.

[1]**Eudaimonia** (Greek: εὐδαιμονία [eu̯daiˌmonía:]),sometimes anglicized as **eudaemonia** or **eu demonia** /juːdɪˈmoʊniə/, is a Greek word commonly translated as happiness or welfare; however, "human flourishing or prosperity" has been proposed as a more accurate translation.[1][*better source needed*] Etymologically, it consists of the words "*eu*" ("good") and "*daimōn*" ("spirit"). It is a central concept in Aristotelian ethics and political philosophy, along with the terms "aretē", most often translated as "virtue" or "excellence", and "phronesis", often translated as "practical or ethical wisdom".[2] In Aristotle's works, eudaimonia (based on older Greek tradition) was used as the term for the highest human good, and so it is the aim of practical philosophy, including ethics and political philosophy, to consider (and also experience) what it really is, and how it can be achieved.

Practice on Chapter One

Section 1: Definition and Concept Review

These activities aim at reinforcing the students' grasp of the basic vocabulary introduced in the chapter.

1. Vocabulary Matching

Match the term from the text with its correct definition.

	Term	Definition
1.	Ethics	A. Specific beliefs, behaviours, and ways of being derived from systematic study.
2.	Morals	B. Lack of concern for good behaviour.
3.	Eudemonia	C. Actions to which moral standards do not apply (e.g., choosing breakfast cereal).
4.	Amoral	D. A branch of philosophy used to study human behaviour, right/wrong, good/bad in a systematic manner
5.	Non-moral	E. The highest human good, often translated as "human flourishing" or "well-being".

2. Say "True" or "False" and Explain:

- Determine if the statements are True or False. If False, correct the statement with the information from the text.

1. The terms "ethics" and "morals" are used interchangeably in philosophy to avoid confusion.
2. Billington (2003) states that private morality exists and personal decisions do not affect others.
3. The text defines immorality as only being neutral in respect to moral standards.
4. When people are "doing ethics," they can rely solely on their feelings and emotions to make sound decisions.

3. Short Answer Questions

- Answer the following questions in complete sentences, based on the chapter text.

How does the text distinguish between "ethics" as process and "morals" as product?

What two things need to be balanced when individuals are "doing ethics" and coming up with judgments?

- According to the chapter, why cannot one avoid making moral or ethical decisions?

4. Case Study Analysis: Identifying Moral Categories

- Read each of the following scenarios. For each identify whether the action described is moral, immoral, amoral, or non-moral in accordance with the definitions provided in the chapter. Explain your response.

Scenario A: A student in university prefers to major in Philosophy, instead of Computer Science.

Category:

Justification:

Scenario B: A professor knowingly plagiarises a graduate student's entire research paper and submits it as their own work for promotion.

Category:

Justification:

Scenario C: A company executive deliberately dumps toxic waste in a local river, as the disposal costs less than legal disposal, and feels no sense of remorse or guilt for environmental damage and harm to sentient beings.

Category:

Justification:

Scenario D: A healthcare professional strictly adheres to their professional code of conduct regarding patient confidentiality, even amid pressures by external parties for information.

Category:

Justification:

5. Ethical Reasoning Practice:

It says here that people, in doing ethics, "must be able to justify their positions through logical, theoretically based arguments".

- Select a modern ethical issue that you may face as students at universities, such as AI use in assignments or data privacy on campus.
- State a position on this issue.
- Briefly justify your stance; be sure to use reasons - and not just emotion or unconsidered opinion - and reference at least one concept from the chapter; for example, obligations to other sentient beings, codes of conduct, pursuit of well-being/eudaimonia.

Section 3: Reflection and Discussion

7. Debate: "Private Morality Does Not Exist"

As Billington (2003) has said, "Other people are always involved with one's moral and ethical decisions. Private morality does not exist."

Activity: Holding a class debate or small group discussion on the above statement.

Students should prepare arguments for both sides: Does "private morality" exist, or does every decision inherently affect someone else?

8. Create a Personal/Professional Code:

The text stipulates that ethics are applied through formal theories and codes of conduct.

Assignment: Write a draft "Personal Code of Ethics" you will strive to adhere to as a student and/or in your professional field.

- Your code must incorporate at least five principles that reflect "admirable traits" or behaviours conducive to "well-being" - according to the text by either Kant or Aristotle.
- Be prepared to share and justify one of your principles with the class.

Chapter Two

Ethical Enquiry, Perspectives and Reasoning

2.1.Types of Ethical Enquiry

Ethics is categorised according to three types of inquiry or study: normative ethics, meta-ethics and descriptive ethics. Many scholars and philosophers such as, Rich (2013) presented this categorisation:

2.1.1. The First Type (Normative Ethics/related with how people should behave)

It is an attempt to decide or prescribe values, behaviours and ways of being that are right or wrong, good or bad, admirable or deplorable. When using the method of normative ethics, inquiries are made about how humans should behave, what ought to be done in certain situations, what type of characters one should have or how one should be.

Outcomes of normative ethics are the prescriptions derived from asking normative questions. These **prescriptions include** accepted moral standards and codes. One such accepted standard is the common morality. **The common morality consists of normative beliefs and behaviours** that the members of society generally agree about and that are familiar to most human beings. Because it forms what can be thought from a universal morality, **the common morality** provides society with a framework of **ethical stability.** For example, **the belief that robbing a bank and murder are wrong** is part of the common morality, **whereas abortion is not part of Western common morality, because** of the different positions about its rightness and wrongness.

2.1.2. The Second Type (Meta-ethics/analysing the meaning of ethical concepts)

The focus of meta-ethics, which means **"about ethics"** is not an inquiry about what ought to be done or how behaviours should be prescribed. **Instead, meta-ethics** is concerned with understanding the language of morality through an analysis of the meaning of ethically

related concepts and theories, such as, the meaning of ***good, happiness and virtuous character.*** For example, a student who is actively engaging in a meta-ethical analysis might try to determine the meaning of a good student-teacher relationship. The nurse should develop a good relation of nurse-patient relationship.

2.1.3. The Third Type (Descriptive Ethics/describes the behaviour of people)

Descriptive ethics is often referred to as a scientific rather than a philosophical ethical inquiry. It is an approach used when researchers or ethicists want to describe what people think about morality or when they want to describe how people actually behave, i.e., their morals. An example of descriptive ethics is research that identifies nurses' attitudes regarding telling the patients the truth about their terminal illnesses.

2.2.Ethical Perspectives

Ethical thinking, valuing and reasoning fall somewhere along a continuum between **two opposing views: ethical relativism and ethical objectivism.**

2.2.1. The First Perspective: Ethical Relativism (ethics differs among persons or societies)

Ethical relativism is the belief that it is acceptable for ethics and morality to differ among persons or societies. There are **two types of ethical relativism**: **ethical subjectivism and cultural relativism** (Brannigan & Boss, 2001). People who subscribe to believe in **ethical subjectivism** believe "**that individuals create their own morality** <and that> there are no **objective moral truth-only individual opinions**" (p. 7). People's beliefs about actions being right or wrong, or good or bad, depend on how people feel about actions rather than on reason or systematic ethical analysis. What is believed by one person to be wrong might not be viewed as wrong by one's neighbour depending on variations in opinions and feelings. These differences are accepted to ethical subjectivists.

Ethical subjectivism has been distinguished from cultural relativism. Pence (2000) defined **cultural relativism** as "the ethical theory that moral evaluation is rooted in and cannot be separated from the experience, beliefs and behaviours of particular culture, and hence, that what is wrong in one culture may not be so in another" (p.12). People opposed to cultural relativism argue that when it is practised according to its extreme or literal meaning, this type of thinking can be dangerous because it theoretically may support relativists' exploitative or hurtful actions (Brannigan & Boss, 2001). **An example of cultural relativism** is the belief that the act of **female circumcision**, which is sometimes called female genital mutilation, is a moral practice. Though not considered to be a religious ritual, this act is considered ethically acceptable by some groups in countries that have a Muslim or Egyptian Pharaonic heritage. In most countries and cultures, however, it is considered to be a grave violation in accordance with the United Nation's declaration of Human Rights.

2.2.2. Ethical Objectivism

Ethical objectivism is the belief that universal or objective moral principles exist. Many philosophers and health care ethicists hold this view, at least to some degree, because they strictly or loosely adhere to a specific approach in determining what is good. **Examples** of objectivist ethical theories and approaches are **deontology, utilitarianism and natural law theory,** which are discussed later. Though some ethicists believe that different theories or approaches are mutually exclusive, theories and approaches often overlap when used in practice. "Moral judgement is a whole into which we must fit principles, character and intentions, cultural values, circumstances and consequences" (Brannigan & Boss, 2001, p. 23).

2.3.Values and Moral Reasoning

As ethics is an abstract discipline of philosophy, it involves many different perspectives of what people value as meaningful and good in their lives. **A value** is something of worth or something that is highly regarded. Values refer to one evaluative judgements about

what one believes is good or what makes something desirable. The things that people esteem as “good” influences how character and how people think and subsequently behave. Values and moral reasoning in teaching and studying fall under the domain of normative ethics.

Reasoning is the use of abstract thought processes to think creatively, to answer questions, to solve problems and to formulate strategies for one’s actions and desired ways of being. When people participate in reasoning, they do not merely accept the unexamined beliefs and ideas of other people. Reasoning involves thinking of oneself to determine if one’s conclusions are based on good or logical foundations. More specifically, **moral reasoning** pertains to reasoning focused on moral or ethical issues. E.g., **moral reasoning for nurses usually occurs in the context of day-to-day relationship between nurses and the recipients of their care and their co-workers.**

Practice on Chapter Three

Section 1: Understanding the Types of Ethical Enquiry

These exercises emphasise how to distinguish between descriptive ethics, normative ethics, and meta-ethics.

1. Scenario Sorting Activity

- For each of the following scenarios, identify which kind of ethical inquiry is utilized: NE = Normative Ethics, ME = Meta-ethics, DE = Descriptive Ethics.

Scenario A: A researcher conducts a survey to find out how many university students believe that cheating on an exam is acceptable behaviour.

Type:

Scenario B: In an essay, a philosopher develops an argument that "the good" refers to maximising overall happiness, and we should organise society around this principle.

Type:

Scenario C: In a student seminar class, students engage in discussion about what the term “right action” fundamentally refers to and whether "rightness" is an actual property or merely an opinion.

Type:

Scenario D: A healthcare board initiates a new code of conduct that clearly indicates how nurses are to treat patients who have been diagnosed with a terminal illness.

Type:

2. Formulating Ethical Questions

- Based on the topic “academic integrity” within a university setting, write one relevant question that corresponds to each type of inquiry:

Normative Ethics Question: It should focus on “how people should behave” or “what ought to be done”.

Meta-ethics Question: Focus on “analysing the meaning of concepts”

Descriptive Ethics Question: (focus on “describing what people think or do”)

3. Discussion: “Common Morality”

The chapter mentions “robbing a bank and murder are wrong” as part of the common morality, but it denotes that abortion is not part of Western common morality.

In small groups, identify three other contemporary beliefs or behaviours that you believe are part of your local society's “common morality” (universal agreement).

Section 2: Ethical Perspectives - Relativism vs. Objectivism

These exercises will help students compare and contrast ethical relativism with ethical objectivism.

4. Identifying Perspective

- Read the following statements said by various individuals. Identify which ethical perspective the individual holds: Ethical Subjectivism (ES), Cultural Relativism (CR), or Ethical Objectivism (EO).

Person 1: “Female circumcision is wrong here in our culture, but in cultures where it is practiced, it is a moral practice for them, and we should not judge it.”

Perspective:

Person 2: “There is a universal principle of justice applying to all people, at all times, and under any circumstance, regardless of their cultural beliefs or personal opinions.”

Perspective:

Person 3: “My decision to cheat on this test might be okay for me, because I feel it is necessary for my future, even though you might consider it wrong.”

Perspective:

5. Debate: The Dangers of Relativism

It argues that extreme cultural relativism “can be dangerous because it theoretically may support relativists' exploitative or hurtful actions.”

Activity: Hold a formal debate. One team takes the side for the quotation above, defending the idea that extreme relativism is dangerous. Another team takes the opposing side, arguing that extreme relativism is necessary for tolerance and to understand cultures other than one's own.

6. Objectivism and Values

The text identifies a value as “something of worth or something that is highly regarded.” Ethical objectivism holds that there are moral principles that apply universally.

Choose one universal value that you think should be universally applied; for example, “respect for human dignity”.

Using moral reasoning as it was described in the text, provide an argument that this value should be considered objective and universal, rather than being taken as simply a subjective or cultural preference.

Section 3: Moral Reasoning and Values

Abstract thought processes applied to ethical problems are the focus of this section.

7. Values in Practice

The chapter says that values regulate how people think and act.

Activity: Consider the “values” you have in your own life. Identify three central values (e.g., honesty, loyalty, curiosity).

Describe a hypothetical situation where these three values might conflict. For example, if you value “honesty” and “loyalty” to a friend, what happens when your friend asks you to lie for them?

Briefly explain how you would apply “moral reasoning” to this dilemma, according to the chapter, by utilising abstract thought and not simply unexamined beliefs.

Chapter Three

Moral Reasoning throughout Western History

Different values and ways of moral reasoning have evolved worldwide through history and have had different points of emphasis in varying historical periods. In regard to some approaches to reasoning about moral issues, what was old becomes new again, as in the case of renewed popularity of virtue ethics.

3.1. Ancient Greece

In Western history, most of what is known about **formal moral reasoning** generally began with the ancient Greeks, especially with the philosopher **Socrates (c. 469-399 B.C.E.), Plato (c. 429-347 B.C.E.), and Aristotle (384-322 B.C.E.).**

Socrates was an avid promoter of moral reasoning and critical thinking among the citizens of Athens. Socrates is credited with the statement "the unexamined life is not worth living," (Hadot, 1997) and he developed a method of reasoning called Socratic questioning or the Socratic method, which is still used nowadays (Paul and Elder, 2007). In using his method of inspiring open-mindedness and critical thinking, Socrates posed challenging questions, and he would then ask another question about the answers he received. A goal of participating in a Socratic dialogue is to investigate the accuracy, clarity, and value of one's intellectual positions and beliefs. An example of his method of questioning is as follows: Socrates: Why should a student study ethics? Student: To be a good student and researcher. Socrates: What is a good student? Student: It means to have good values and morals, and not to resort to cheating or plagiarism. Socrates: How do you know you have good values? This line of questioning should continue until the concepts and positions stemming from the original question are thoroughly explored. Socratic questioning does not mean one ends up with a final answer; however, this

form of discussion encourages people to continually expand their thinking in critical and reflective ways.

Socrates had many friends and allies who believed in his philosophy and teachings. In fact, Socrates was such a successful and well-known teacher of philosophy and moral reasoning in Athens that he was put to death for upsetting the socio-political status quo. Socrates was accused of corrupting the youth of Athens who, under his tutelage, began to question their parents' wisdom and religious beliefs. These accusations of corruption were based on Socrates's encouraging people to think independently and to question dogma generated by the ruling class. Though he was sentenced to death by the powerful, elite men within his society, Socrates refused to apologize for his beliefs and teachings. He ultimately chose to die by drinking hemlock, which is poisonous, rather than to deny his values. Socrates's student, Plato, is believed by some to have been the most outstanding philosopher to have ever lived. Plato's reasoning is based on his belief that there are two realms of reality. The first is the realm of Forms, which transcends time and space. According to Plato, an eternal, perfect, and unchanging ideal copy (Form) of all phenomena exists in the realm of Forms, which is beyond everyday human access. Plato believed the realm of Forms contains the essence of concepts and objects, and even the essence of objects' properties. Essences existing in the realm of Forms include, for example, a perfect Form of good, redness (the colour red), or a horse. In the realm of Forms, the essence of good exists as ideal Truth and redness (a particular property of some objects, such as an apple) exists as the colour red in its most perfect state. A horse in the realm of Forms is the perfect specimen of the animal that is a horse, and this perfect horse contains all the horseness factors that, for example, distinguish a horse from a cow. Plato considered the world of Forms to be the real world, though humans do not live in this world (Brickhouse and Smith, 2002).

The second realm is the world of Appearances, which is the everyday world of imperfect, decaying, and changing phenomena; this is the world in which humans live. The underlying purpose or goal of imperfect phenomena in the world of Appearances is to emulate their associated essences and perfect Forms. For example, a horse's purpose in life is to strive toward becoming identical to the perfect specimen of a horse that exists in the world of Forms.

Plato also proposed that humans have a tripartite soul. The three parts of the soul consist of the Faculty of Reason, associated with thought and Truth, which is located in one's head; the Faculty of Spirit, which expresses love, beauty, and the desire for eternal life, and is located in one's chest; and the Faculty of Appetite, which is an expression of human desires and emotions, and is located in one's gut. Plato believed the influences of these three parts of the soul exist in greater to lesser degrees in each person. Therefore, one person may be more disposed to intellectual pursuits as compared to another person who is more interested in physical pleasures.

Plato associated the tripartite soul with three classes of Greek society and one's best-suited occupation. Persons were believed to have an individual aptitude particularly suited to them and to their purpose in society (Plato, trans. 2021):

- Philosopher kings were associated with the Faculty of Reason and wisdom.
- Societal guardians were associated with the Faculty of Spirit and protecting others.
- Artisans and craftsmen were associated with the Faculty of Appetite and technical work.

One of Plato's most famous stories about reasoning is his allegory of the cave. In this story, a group of people lived their lives chained to the floor of a cave. Behind them burned a fire that cast shadows of people moving on the wall in front of the people who were chained. The chained prisoners believed the shadows were actually real people. When one of the

prisoners was freed from his chains, he left the cave. First, he was blinded by the brightness of the sun. After his sight adjusted to the light, he saw objects he realized were more real than the shadows within the cave. The freed person returned to the cave to encourage the other prisoners to break their chains and enter the more expansive world of reality. The meaning of this story has been interpreted in many different ways. Whatever Plato's intended meaning, the story does prompt people to think about the problems that result when they remain chained by their closed minds and flawed reasoning. Plato's student Aristotle developed science, logic, and ethics to world-altering proportions. Though he was influenced by Plato, Aristotle took a more practical approach to reasoning than believing in an otherworldly realm of ideal Forms. He was guided in his reasoning by his belief in the importance of empirical inquiry. He also believed all things have a purpose or end goal (telos), similar to Plato's proposition that the goal of all things is to strive to be like their perfect Form. In Nicomachean Ethics, Aristotle (trans. 2002) discussed practical wisdom (phronesis) as being necessary for deliberation about what is good and advantageous if people want to move toward their human purpose or desired end goal of happiness or well-being (eudaimonia). Aristotle believed a person needs education to cultivate phronesis to achieve intellectual excellence (Plato, trans. 2021).

Aristotle's conception of phronesis is similar to Plato's conception of the virtue of prudence. Wisdom focuses on the good achieved from being wise, which means one knows how to act in a particular situation, deliberates well, and has a disposition embodying excellence of character. Therefore, in ancient Greece prudence is more than simply having good intentions or meaning well—it is knowing what to do and how to be, but it also involves transforming knowledge into well-reasoned actions. Aristotle believed people are social beings whose reasoning should lead them to be good citizens, good friends, and to act in moderate ways.

3.2.Ancient Greek

After the Roman Empire was divided by barbarians and the Roman Emperor, Romulus, was dethroned (ca. 476 CE), the golden age of intellectualism and cultural progress in Western Europe ended. The next historical period was the Middle or Dark Ages, which lasted until about 1500 CE. In the gap left by the failed political system of Rome, Christianity became the dominant religion in Western Europe as the Catholic Church took on the powerful role of educating European people. Christianity was a monotheistic (one God) revelatory religion (at that time), whereas ancient Greek philosophy was based on the use of reason and polytheism (many gods). Because Greek philosophy was believed to be heretical, its examination was discouraged during the church-dominated Middle Ages. However, it is interesting that two Catholic saints, Augustine and Aquinas, who provided the major ethical influence during the middle Ages, were both influenced by the ancient Greeks (Smith, 2024).

Saint Augustine (354–430 CE) is often considered to be the Plato of the Middle Ages. Though Augustine was a Christian and Plato was a non-Christian, Augustine's belief in a heavenly place of unchanging moral truths is similar to Plato's belief in the realm of ideal Forms. Augustine believed these Truths are imprinted by God on the soul of each human being. According to Augustine, one has a duty to love God, and moral reasoning should direct one's senses in accordance with that duty; being subject to this obligation is what leads to moral perfection. Generally, Saint Augustine believed only in the existence of good, similar to how the essence of good would exist if it were an ideal Form. Therefore, evil is present only when good is missing or has in some way been perverted from its existence as an ideal Truth (Hadot, 1997).

Augustine was 56 years old during the fall of the Roman Empire. In one of his most famous writings, The City of God, Augustine used the fall of the Roman Empire to explain a philosophy sometimes compared to Plato's conception of the worlds of Forms and

Appearances. People who live according to the spirit live in the City of God (world of perfection/Forms), while people who live according to the flesh live in the City of Man (world of imperfection/Appearances). To move away from evil, one must have the grace of God. Humans were viewed by Augustine as finite beings who must have the divine aid of grace to bridge the gap required to have a relationship with the infinite being of God (Hadot, 1997).

The Crusades influenced Europe's exodus from the Dark Ages. When Christians entered Islamic lands, such as Spain, Portugal, and North Africa, they were reintroduced to intellectualism, including texts of the ancient Greeks, especially Aristotle. The moral teachings of Saint Thomas Aquinas (1224–1274) sometimes are viewed as a Christianized version of Aristotle's ethical teachings. Aquinas tried to reconcile Aristotle's teachings with the teachings of the Catholic Church. Like Aristotle, Aquinas believed people have a desirable end goal or purpose, and developing excellences of character (virtues) leads to human happiness and good moral reasoning. Aristotle's non-Christian moral philosophy is based on humans moving toward an end goal or dynamic state of eudaimonia (happiness or well-being) through the cultivation of excellent intellect and excellent moral character. Aquinas expanded Aristotle's conception of the end goal of perfect happiness and grounded the requirements for happiness in the knowledge and love of God and Christian virtues (Smith, 2024).

Aquinas replaced Aristotle's emphasis on the virtue of pride with an emphasis on the virtue of humility. Aristotle believed pride is an important characteristic of independent, strong men, while Aquinas valued the characteristic of humility because it represented to him one's need to depend on the benevolence of God. In addition to virtue ethics, Aquinas is associated with a belief in reasoning according to the natural law theory of ethics.

3.3.Modern Philosophy and the Age of Enlightenment

The period of modern philosophy began when the major intellectual force during the Middle Ages, the Catholic Church, began to have a diminishing influence within society, while the influence of science began to increase. The scientific revolution began in 1543, when Copernicus discovered that the earth and humans are not the centre of the universe (Copernicus, 1543), but this revolution did not rapidly advance until the 17th century, when Kepler and Galileo moved scientific debates to the forefront of society.

With these changes came a new freedom in human moral reasoning based on people being autonomous, rational-thinking creatures rather than primarily being influenced and controlled by church dogma and rules. During the 18th-century Enlightenment era, humans believed they were coming out of the darkness of the Middle (Dark) Ages into the light of true knowledge.

Some scientists and philosophers were bold enough to believe humans could ultimately be perfected and all knowledge could be discovered. As the belief in empirical science grew, a new way of thinking was ushered in that compared both the universe and people to machines. Many scientists and philosophers believed the world, along with its inhabitants, could be reduced through analyses into their component parts. These reductionists hoped that after most or all knowledge was discovered, the universe and human behaviour could be predicted and controlled. People still demonstrate evidence of this way of thinking in health care today when cure is highly valued over care, and uncertainty is considered to be something that can be, or needs to be, eliminated in regard to health and illness. A mechanistic approach is one that focuses on fixing problems as if one is fixing a machine, as contrasted to a humanistic or holistic approach, in which one readily acknowledges that well-being and health occur along a complex continuum and some situations and health problems cannot be predicted, fixed, or cured.

During the 18th century, David Hume (1711–1776) proposed an important idea about moral reasoning. Hume argued there is a distinction between facts and values when moral

reasoning is practiced. This fact/value distinction also has been called the is/ought gap. A sceptic, Hume suggested a person should not acknowledge a fact and then make a value judgment based on that fact, as one logically cannot take a fact of what is and then determine an ethical judgment of what ought to be. If Hume's position is accepted as valid, people should not make assumptions such as the following: (1) if all dogs have fleas (assuming this is a known fact), and (2) Sara is a dog (a fact), therefore, (3) Sara ought not be allowed to sleep on the sofa because having fleas on the sofa is a bad thing (a value statement). According to people who believe in the truth of the fact/ value distinction, the chance of Sara spreading her fleas to the sofa might be a fact if she sleeps on it, but determining that having fleas on the sofa is a bad thing is based only on one's values or feelings.

3.4.Post Modern Era

After the scientific hegemony of the Enlightenment era, some people began to question whether a single-minded allegiance to science was creating problems for human societies. Postmodernism is often considered to have begun around 1950, after the end of World War II. However, some people trace its beginnings back to German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche in the late 1800s. Pence (2000) defined postmodernism as "a modern movement in philosophy and the humanities that rejects the optimistic view that science and reason will improve humanity; it rejects the notion of sustained progress through reason and the scientific method" (p. 43). The postmodern mind is formed by a pluralistic view, or a diversity of intellectual and cultural influences. People who live according to a postmodern philosophy acknowledge that reality is constantly changing and scientific investigations cannot provide one grand theory or correct view of an absolute Truth that can guide human behaviour, relationships, and life. Human knowledge is thought instead to be shaped by multiple factors, with storytelling and narrative analysis being viewed as core components of knowledge development.

3.5.Care-based Versus Justice-based Reasoning

A care approach to moral reasoning is often associated with a feminine way of thinking, and a cure approach is usually associated with a masculine, Enlightenment-era way of thinking. In 1981 Lawrence Kohlberg, a psychologist reported his landmark research about moral reasoning based on 84 boys he had studied for more than 20 years. Based on the work of Jean Piaget, Kohlberg defined six stages of moral development ranging from childhood to adulthood. Interestingly, Kohlberg did not include any women in his research, but he expected to use his six-stage scale to measure moral development in both males and females.

When the scale was applied to women, they seemed to score only at the third stage of the sequence, a stage in which Kohlberg (1981) described morality in terms of interpersonal relationships and helping others. Kohlberg (1981) viewed this third stage of development as somewhat deficient in regard to mature moral reasoning. Because of Kohlberg's exclusion of females in his research and his negative view of this third stage, one of Kohlberg's associates, Carol Gilligan, raised the concern of gender bias. Gilligan (1981), in turn, published an influential book in 1982, In a Different Voice, in which she argued that women's moral reasoning is different but not deficient. The distinction usually made between moral reasoning as it is suggested by Kohlberg and Gilligan is that Kohlberg's is a male-oriented ethic of justice and Gilligan's is a more feminine ethic of care.

3.6. Learning from History

Often it is only in hindsight that people are able to analyse a historical era in which there is a converging of norms and beliefs held in high esteem or valued by large groups within a society. Like the overlapping approaches used by some ethical objectivists, the influences of historical eras also build upon each other and often are hard to separate. Christians still base much of their ethical reasoning on the philosophy generated during the Middle Ages. At the

same time, it is evident that individualistic ways of thinking that were popular during the Enlightenment remain popular today in Western societies because autonomy (self-direction) is so highly valued. Because varied historical influences have affected moral reasoning, there is a pattern of rich and interesting values, perspectives, and practices evident in today's globally connected world (Britanica, n.d.).

Practice on Chapter Three

Section One: Multiple Choice

1. Socrates' main form of moral reasoning was known as:

A) The Allegory of the Cave

B) Socratic Method (Socratic questioning)

C) The Fact/Value Distinction

D) Natural Law Theory

2. According to Plato, the everyday world humans live in, which is imperfect and changing, is called the realm of:

A) Forms

B) Appearances

C) The City of God

D) Eudaimonia

3. Which philosopher emphasised phronesis (practical wisdom) as necessary for deliberation about what is good and advantageous, leading to eudaimonia (happiness/well-being)?

A) Socrates

B) Plato

C) Aristotle

D) Saint Augustine

4. According to Saint Augustine, evil is seen as:

A) An active, opposing force to good

B) Man-made substance

C) The absence or privation of good

D) An illusion of the senses

5. Saint Thomas Aquinas is known for integrating Christian theology with the philosophy of which ancient Greek thinker?

A) Socrates

B) Plato

C) Aristotle

D) David Hume

6. During the Enlightenment era, a “mechanistic approach” to the world and people often led to a focus on:

A) Complex systems, Holistic cares

B) Faith and church dogma

C) Reduction to component parts in order to predict and control things

D) Narrative analysis and storytelling

7. David Hume is famous for identifying the “is/ought gap,” which suggests one cannot logically derive _____ claims from purely _____ statements.

A) actual; value

B) scientific: historical

C) “ought” (normative/moral); “is” factual/descriptive

D) “is” (factual/descriptive); “ought” (normative/moral)

8. According to the reading, the general belief of postmodernism is a denial that:

A) Knowledge has many aspects which determine it.

B) Science and reason alone will improve humanity and provide absolute Truth

C) There are pluralistic views in the world.

D) Storytelling and narrative analysis are core components of knowledge

Section Two: Short Answers

- Explain the difference between Aristotle’s emphasis on the virtue of pride and Thomas Aquinas’s replacement of it with the virtue of humility.
- Briefly describe Plato’s “tripartite soul,” naming the three parts and their associated locations/functions as mentioned in the text.
- According to what is mentioned in the chapter, how did the Crusades influence the reintroduction of Ancient Greek intellectualism into Western Europe, particularly the works of Aristotle?

Chapter Four

Ethical Theories and Approaches

Normative ethical theories and approaches function as moral guides to answer the questions, “What ought I do or not do?” and “How should I be?” A theory can provide individuals with guidance in moral thinking and reasoning, as well as provide justification for moral actions. The following theories and approaches are not all inclusive, but they include some that are most popular.

4.1.Western Ethics

- **Religion and Western Ethics**

A discussion of Western ethics systems likely prompts some people to want to include monotheistic Western religious traditions such as Judaism, Christianity (in its beginnings), and Islam. Morality in each of the these religions is based on sacred texts— the first five books of the Old Testament of the Bible (Torah) in Judaism; the Old and especially the New Testament of the Bible in Christianity; and the Qur’an (Koran) given by Allah to the Prophet Muhammad in Islam. Pleasing God according to sacred laws and traditions dominates prescribed moral behaviour in each of these religious groups. In addition to sacred scripture, there are historical figures who heavily influenced religious ethical systems, for example, the Catholic Saints Augustine and Aquinas and the medieval Jewish philosopher Maimonides.

The politically, socially, and intellectually focused ancient Greeks provided the most developed system of ethics in the Western world until the Middle Ages, when religious doctrine became the primary focus. Then, as people moved onto the Enlightenment period and again viewed human intellect as being trustworthy for providing moral guidance, secular systems of ethics overtook religious systems. Today, among many people, the lines between sacred and secular ethics are blurred. It is a key point of understanding ethics, however, that in a post-

Enlightenment world, ethics falls under the umbrella of philosophy rather than religion. The ethical systems discussed in this lecture are those considered to be classic theories and approaches in Western ethical philosophy, though some of them do stem from religious traditions (Smith, 2024).

❖ Virtue Ethics

Watch your thoughts; they become words.

Watch your words; they become actions.

Watch your actions; they become habits.

Watch your habits; they become character.

Watch your character; it becomes your destiny.

—Frank Outlaw

Rather than cantering on what is right or wrong in terms of one's duties or the consequences of one's actions, the excellence of one's character and considerations of what sort of person one wants to be is emphasized in virtue ethics. Since the time of Plato and Aristotle, virtues, called arête in Greek, have referred to excellences in regard to persons or objects being the best they can be in accordance with their purpose. As the ancient Greeks originally conceived the concept, even an inanimate object can have virtue. For example, the purpose of a knife is to cut, so arête in regard to a knife means the knife has a sharp edge and cuts very well. If one needs the services of a knife, it is probably safe to assume a knife exhibiting excellence in cutting would be the type of knife one wants to use; most people want to use a knife that accomplishes its purpose in the best way possible (Smith, 2024).

For humans, virtue ethics addresses the question, "What sort of person must I be to be an excellent person?" rather than "What is my duty?" Virtues for humans are habitual, though

not routinized, excellent traits intentionally developed throughout one's life. Annas (2011) outlined a description of how to spot virtue. In regard to a person, a virtue is a "lasting feature" (loc. 138); it is "active" developing "through selective response to circumstances" (loc. 142); and virtue "persists through challenges and difficulties, and it is strengthened or weakened by … responses" (loc. 142). "A virtue is also a reliable disposition … it is no accident" (loc. 146).

A person of virtue, consistent with Aristotle's way of thinking, is a person who is an excellent friend to other people, an excellent thinker, and an excellent citizen of a community. Aristotle's (trans. 2002) approach to virtue ethics is grounded in two categories of excellence: intellectual virtues and character or moral virtues. According to Aristotle, "the intellectual sort [of virtue] mostly … comes into existence and increases as a result of teaching (which is why it requires experience and time), whereas excellence of character results from habituation" (p. 111). The habituation Aristotle had in mind is an intelligent, mindful attention to excellent habits, rather than a thoughtless routinisation of behaviours.

Though Aristotle (trans. 2002) divided virtues into two sorts—those of the intellect and those of character—the two categories of virtues cannot be distinctly separated. Aristotle proposed "it is not possible to possess excellence in the primary sense [that is, having excellence of character] without wisdom, nor to be wise without excellence of character" (p. 189).

Aristotle realised good things taken to an extreme could become bad. He therefore proposed that there is a Golden Mean in ways of being. Most virtues are considered to exist as a moderate way of being between two kinds of vices or faults: the extremes of excess at one end and deficiency on the other. For instance, Aristotle named courage as a virtue, but the extremes of rashness at one end of a continuum and cowardice at the other end of the same continuum are its related vices. Another example is the virtue of truthfulness, which is the mean between boastfulness and self-deprecation. The mean for each virtue is unique for each type of virtue and situation; in other words, the mean is not a mathematical average.

Other examples of virtues include benevolence, compassion, fidelity, generosity, and patience. Plato designated the four virtues of prudence (wisdom), fortitude (courage), temperance (moderation), and justice as cardinal virtues, meaning all other virtues hinge on these primary four. Prudence corresponds to Plato's idea of the Faculty of Reason, fortitude corresponds to the Faculty of Spirit, and temperance corresponds to the Faculty of Appetite; the virtue of justice is an umbrella virtue encompassing and tying together the other three (Smith, 2024).

The ancient Greeks are most frequently associated with virtue ethics, but other philosophers and ethicists have also proposed views about virtues. The Scottish philosopher David Hume (1711–1776) and the German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche (1844–1900) each proposed an interesting philosophy of virtue ethics that differs from the philosophies of the Greeks**,** though Hume's and Nietzsche's are not the only other approaches to virtue ethics.

Hume, whose approach is used by some feminist philosophers, believed virtues flow from a natural human tendency to be sympathetic or benevolent toward other people. Virtues are human character traits admired by most people and are judged to be generally pleasing, as well as being useful to other people, useful to oneself, or useful to both other people and to oneself. Because of Hume's focus on the usefulness of virtues, his approach to ethics also is associated with utilitarianism. Hume's philosophy of ethics is based on emotion as the primary human motivator for admirable behaviour, rather than motivation by reason. However, Hume did not propose that ethics is based merely on personal opinion. Virtuous behaviour is validated by the consensus of members of communities according to what is useful for a community's well-being (Smith, 2024).

A different and more radical view of virtue ethics is based on the philosophy of Nietzsche. Rather than viewing people as caring, sympathetic beings, Nietzsche proposed the best character for people to cultivate is grounded in a will to power. Nietzsche believed the will

to power rightly should motivate people to achieve dominance in the world. Strength was praised as virtuous, whereas so-called feminine virtues, such as caring and kindness, were considered by Nietzsche to be signs of weakness. This means, according to Nietzsche, that virtue is consistent with hierarchical power or power over other people, which makes the Christian virtue of humility a vice. It is believed another German, Adolf Hitler, adopted the philosophy of Nietzsche as his worldview. Though Nietzsche is a well-known and important person in the history of philosophy, his approach to virtue ethics has little place in ethics.

Although virtue ethics is popular again today, over the years interest in this ethical approach experienced a significant decline among Western philosophers (MacIntyre, 1984; Tschudin, 2003). Many Western philosophers lost interest in the virtues when they became entrenched in the schools of thought popularised during the Enlightenment era that emphasized individualism and autonomy (MacIntyre, 1984).

❖ Natural Law Theory

There is in fact a true law—namely, right reason— which is in accordance with nature, applies to all men, and is unchangeable and eternal. By its commands, this law summons men to the performance of their duties; by its prohibitions, it restrains them from doing wrong.

—**Marcus tullius Cicero**, The Republic (51 BCE) ethical reflection

Natural law theory has a long and varied history, dating back to the work of the ancient Greeks. In fact, natural law theory is complex, and attempting to present its essence would be to oversimplify the theory (Buckle, 1993). Even the terms nature and natural are ambiguous.

Aristotle's conception of natural law theory is a universal type of justice grounded in the laws of nature rather than human law. Most modern versions of natural law theory have their basis in the religious philosophy of Saint Thomas Aquinas. Because he believed God created everything and implanted all things with purpose and order in concert with His will,

Aquinas deduced that people could investigate nature and find God's expectations there. Consequently, people who use natural law theory contend the rightness of actions is self-evident because morality is inherently implanted in the order of nature and not revealed through customs and preferences. Today natural law theory is the basis for religious prohibitions against acts some people consider unnatural, such as homosexuality and the use of birth control.

Though natural law theory and divine command theory sometimes are confused, they have a fundamental difference. According to divine command theory, an action is good because a divine being, such as God, commands it, whereas with natural law theory, a divine being commands an action because it is moral irrespective of said divine being.

❖ Deontology

Deontology, literally the study of duty, is an approach to ethics focusing on duties and rules. The most influential philosopher associated with the deontological way of thinking was Immanuel Kant (1724–1804). Kant (1993) defined a person as a rational, autonomous (self-directed) being with the ability to know universal, objective moral laws and the freedom to decide to act morally. Kantian deontology prescribes that each rational being is ethically bound to act only from a sense of duty; when deciding how to act, the consequences of one's actions are considered to be irrelevant.

According to Kant (1993), it is only through dutiful actions that people can be moral. Even when individuals do not want to act from duty, Kant believed they are ethically bound to do so. In fact, Kant (1991) asserted having one's actions motivated by duty is superior to acting from a motivation of love. Because rational choice is within one's control, as compared to one's tenuous control over personal emotions, Kant was convinced that only reason, not emotion, is sufficient to lead a person to moral actions.

Kant (2004) believed people are ends in themselves and should be treated accordingly. Each autonomous, self-directed person has dignity and is due respect, and one should never act in ways that involve using other people as a means to one's personal ends. In fact, when people use others as a means to an end, even if they believe they are attempting to reach ethical goals, Kant (2004) believed people could be harmed. An example of this today is the failure to obtain informed consent from a research participant even when the researcher steadfastly believes the research will be beneficial to the participant.

Kant (1993) identified rules to guide people in thinking about their obligations. He drew a distinction between two types of duties or obligations: the hypothetical imperative and the categorical imperative. Hypothetical imperatives are optional duties or rules people ought to observe or follow if certain ends are to be achieved. Hypothetical imperatives are sometimes called if–then imperatives, which means they involve conditional or optional actions; for instance, if I want to become a lawyer, then I have to study during law school.

Where moral actions are concerned, Kant (2004) believed duties and laws are absolute and unconditional. Kant proposed that people ought to follow a universal, unconditional framework of maxims, or rules, as a guide to know the rightness of actions and one's moral duties. He called these absolute and unconditional duties categorical imperatives. When deciding about matters of ethics, one should act according to a categorical imperative and ask the question, "If I perform this action, could I will that it should become a universal law for everyone to act in the same way?" No action can ever be judged as right, according to Kant, if it is not reasonable that the action could be used as a binding, ethical law for all people. For example, Kant's ethics imposes the categorical imperative that one should never tell a lie because a person cannot rationally wish that all people should be able to pick and choose when they have permission not to be truthful. Another example of a categorical imperative is that

suicide is never acceptable. A person, when committing suicide, should not rationally wish that all people should feel free to commit suicide, or the world would become chaotic.

❖ Consequentialism

Consequentialists, as distinguished from deontologists, do consider consequences to be an important indication of the moral value of one's actions. **Utilitarianism** is the most well-known consequentialist theory of ethics. Utilitarianism means actions are judged by their utility; that is, they are evaluated according to the usefulness of their consequences. When people use the theory of utilitarianism as the basis for ethical behaviour, they attempt to promote the greatest good (happiness or pleasure) and to produce the least amount of harm (unhappiness, suffering, or pain) possible in a situation. In other words, utilitarians believe it is useful to society to achieve the greatest good for the greatest number of people who may be affected by an action (Driver, 2009).

British philosopher Jeremy Bentham (1748–1832), a contemporary and associate of Florence Nightingale's father, was an early promoter of the principle of utilitarianism. During Bentham's life, British society functioned according to aristocratic privilege. Poor people were mistreated by people in the upper classes and were given no choice other than to work long hours in deplorable conditions. Bentham tried to develop a theory to achieve a fair distribution of pleasure among all British citizens. He went so far as to develop a systematic decision-making method using mathematical calculations. Bentham's method was designed to determine ways to allocate pleasure and diminish pain by using the measures of intensity and duration. This approach to utilitarianism has been criticized because he equated all types of pleasure as being equal (Fieser, n.d.).

Another Englishman, John Stuart Mill (1806–1873), challenged Bentham's views. Mill clearly pointed out that particular experiences of pleasure and happiness do have different

qualities, and different situations do not necessarily produce equal consequences. For example, Mill stated that higher intellectual pleasures may be differentiated from lower physical pleasures. The higher pleasures, such as enjoying a work of art or a scholarly book, are considered better because only human beings, not other animals, possess the mental faculties to enjoy this higher level of happiness.

According to Mill (2001), happiness and pleasure are measured by quality and not quantity (duration or intensity). In making these distinctions between higher and lower levels of happiness and pleasure, Mill's philosophy is focused more on ethics than politics and social utility.

Mill (1998) believed communities usually agree about what is good and about things that best promote the well-being of most people. An example of an application of Mill's utilitarianism is the use of mandatory vaccination laws—individual liberties are limited so the larger society is protected from diseases, and the consequence is that people are happier because they are free of diseases. People who use Mill's form of utilitarian theory often can use widely supported traditions to guide them in deciding about rules and behaviours that probably will produce the best consequences for the most people, such as the maxim that stealing is wrong. Through experience, humans generally have identified behaviours that produce the most happiness or unhappiness for society as a whole.

Over time, people who subscribe to a theory of utilitarianism have divided themselves into subgroups. Two main types of utilitarianism have developed over the years: rule utilitarianism and act utilitarianism. Rule utilitarians believe there are certain rules—such as do not kill, do not break promises, and do not lie—that, when followed, usually create the best consequences for the most people. Based on this definition, someone might ask, **"What is the difference between rule utilitarianism and deontology?"** The answer is that all utilitarian theories of ethics, whether based on rules or individual actions, are predicated on achieving

good consequences for the most people. Deontologists, on the other hand, make decisions based on right duty rather than on right consequences.

Act utilitarians believe each action in a particular circumstance should be chosen based on its likely good consequences rather than on following an inherently moral, universal rule. The utility of each action in achieving the most happiness is the aim of act utilitarians, while rule utilitarians are willing to accept causing more suffering than happiness in a particular situation to avoid violating a generalized rule. For example, promise breaking is permitted according to act utilitarianism if the consequences of the action (breaking a promise) cause more happiness than suffering in a particular situation. In the same situation, a rule utilitarian would say a promise should be upheld because, in most cases, promise keeping causes more happiness than suffering (Driver, 2009).

❖ Prima Facie Rights

The term prima facie means on one's first impression or **on the face of things**; that is, something is accepted as correct until or unless it is shown to be otherwise. For example, promise keeping is considered an accepted ethical rule. However, if a nurse promised her spouse she would be on time for dinner, but as she was about to leave the hospital she was told the nurse replacing her will be late for work, it is expected that the nurse would break her promise to be on time for dinner so she could attend to her patients until the other nurse arrives (Reamer, 2014).

Prima facie ethics is associated with philosopher Sir William David Ross (1877–1971) and his 1930 book The Right and the Good. Ross is called an ethical intuitionist because he believed certain things are intrinsically good and self-evidently true. Ross understood ethics to suggest that certain acts are prima facie good—keeping promises, repaying kindnesses, helping others, and preventing distress. However, when these prima facie good actions conflict, one has

to decide where one's actual duty lies. Ross conceded that human knowledge is imperfect and the best people can expect to do is use their imperfect knowledge to assess the context of each situation and make an informed judgment, although they are uncertain about the correctness of their choices. Ross's approach to ethics has quite a bit of relevance for nurses, who frequently must make quick determinations of how to prioritize important actions that can cause distress for one person while helping another (Ross, 2002).

❖ Principlism

Principles are rule-based criteria for conduct that naturally flow from the identification of obligations and duties. Consequently, the theory of deontology is a forerunner of the approach of principlism. Principles usually are reducible to concepts or statements, such as the principle of beneficence or respect for a person's autonomy. Principles often are used as the basis for ethically related documents, such as documents reflecting positions about human rights (Beauchamp & Childress, 2019). Examples of principle-based documents include the American Hospital Association's (2003) The Patient Care Partnership and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, formulated in 1948 by the United Nations.

❖ Casuistry

Casuistry is an approach to ethics grounded in Judeo-Christian history. When people use casuistry, they make decisions inductively based on individual cases. The analysis and evaluation of strongly similar or outstanding cases (i.e., paradigm cases) provides guidance in ethical decision-making. A paradigm case is a benchmark or landmark case against which decisions in similar cases are compared and that provides guidance in similar cases (Jonsen & Toulmin, 1988).

When people use casuistry, their ethical decision making begins as an inductive, bottom-up approach considering the details of specific cases, rather than beginning from the top down

and applying absolute rules and principles. Long ago, Jewish people often tried to sort out the relevance of sacred laws in specific situations in ways that were practical and case based rather than absolute and inflexibly rule based. In Catholic history, the practice of persons individually confessing their sins to priests to receive absolution reflects the use of casuistry. Based on the confessor's specific case (i.e., the circumstances surrounding the occasion of sinning) a person receives from the priest a personal penance that is required for absolution (MacIntyre**,** 1984).

Today casuistry is often the method used by healthcare ethics committees to analyse the ethical issues surrounding specific patient cases. The Four Topics Method of ethical decision making is based on a casuistry approach.

❖ Narrative Ethics

Because it is a story-based approach, narrative ethics has similarities to casuistry. In addition, according to one of the foremost modern-day virtue ethicists, Alasdair MacIntyre, narrative thinking and virtue ethics are closely connected. Both narrative ethics and virtue ethics are firmly embedded in human relationships. MacIntyre (1984) proposed that a human is "essentially a story-telling animal"; a person is "a teller of stories that aspire to truth" (p. 216). Narratives, such as novels and literary stories, change us in remarkable ways (Murray, 1997). From childhood, most people obtain moral education about character development from stories such as fairy tales and fables. When using a narrative approach to ethics, students are open to learning from a storied, nuanced view of life; that is, they are sensitive to how personal and community stories evolve, are constructed, and can be changed. Narratives are stories being lived, read, watched, heard, discussed, analysed, or compared.

Narratives are context or situation bound. For people to decide what they should do in particular circumstances, they may first identify how their moral character and actions fit within the greater stories of their culture. People are situated within their personal life narratives, and

their stories intersect with and are interwoven into the narratives of other people with whom they interact. People are not solitary creatures, and as they interact with other people and their environment, they must make choices about what they believe and how they will act. They create their own stories.

When using a narrative approach to ethics, nurses realize that individual human stories are being constantly constructed in relation to the stories of a greater community of people.

❖ Critical Theory

Critical theory, sometimes referred to as **critical social theory**, is a broad term identifying theories and worldviews addressing the domination perpetrated by specific powerful groups of people and the resulting oppression of other specific groups of people. There is a number of different critical theories included under one broad heading. In citing the group of German philosophers who originated the concept of critical theory, Bohman (2005) stated critical theories could be distinguished from traditional theories because the purpose of critical theories is to promote human emancipation. Specifically, the purpose of using critical theories is "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them" (Horkheimer, as cited in Bohman, 2005, para. 1). According to Brookfield (2005), there are three core assumptions in critical theory that explain how the world is organised:

1. **That apparently open**, Western democracies are actually highly unequal societies in which economic inequity, racism, and class discrimination are empirical realities.

2. **That the way this state of affairs is reproduced** and seems to be normal, natural, and inevitable (thereby heading off potential challenges to the system) is through the dissemination of dominant ideology.

3. **That critical theory attempts to understand this state of affairs** as a necessary prelude to changing it. One critical theory widely used by nurses is a feminist approach

to ethics. Under this broad feminist approach is the ethic of care originating from the Gilligan–Kohlberg debate discussed earlier in this chapter.

❖ Feminist Ethics

According to Tong (1997), "to a greater or lesser degree, all feminist approaches to ethics are filtered through the lens of gender" (p. 37). This means feminist ethics specifically focuses on evaluating ethically related situations in terms of how these situations affect women. The concept of feminist ethics tends to have a political connotation and addresses the patterns of women's oppression as this oppression is perpetrated by dominant social groups, especially socially powerful men.

An ethic of care is grounded in the moral experiences of women and feminist ethics. It evolved into an approach to ethics that gained popularity because of the Gilligan–Kohlberg debate about the differences in women's and men's approaches to moral reasoning. Rather than being based on duty, fairness, impartiality, or objective principles (ethic of justice) similar to the values popularised during the Enlightenment era, an ethic of care emphasises the importance of traditionally feminine traits, such as love, compassion, sympathy, and concern about human well-being. The natural partiality in how people care more about some people than others is acknowledged as acceptable in an ethic of care. In addition, the role of emotions in moral reasoning and behaviour is accepted as a necessary and natural complement to rational thinking. This position distinguishes an ethic of care from an ethic of justice and duty based ethics that emphasize the pre-eminence of reason and minimise the importance of emotion in guiding moral reasoning and the moral nature of one's relationships (Larrabee, 1993).

4.2.Eastern Ethics

Ethics in Asian societies has similarities to and important differences from Western ethics. In both cultures, ethics often is intertwined with spiritual or religious thinking, but ethics

in Eastern societies is usually indistinguishable from general Eastern philosophies. Both Eastern and Western philosophies of ethics examine human nature and what is needed for people to move toward well-being. However, some of the differences in the two cultural systems are quite interesting and distinct.

Whereas the goal of Western ethics is generally for people to understand themselves personally, the goal of Eastern ethics is often to understand universal interconnections, to be liberated from the self, or to understand that people really do not consist of a self at all (Zeuschner, 2001). Ethics viewed from Christian or other theological perspectives tends to be based on a belief in human flaws that require an intermediary (God) to transcend these imperfections. Eastern ethical systems usually focus on individuals' innate but unrecognised perfection and the ability to transcend earthly suffering and dissatisfaction through one's own abilities. Therefore, Eastern ethics is not imposed from outside of a person, but instead is imposed from within oneself. Eastern ethics tends to be a discipline of training the mind, and unethical behaviour leads to karmic results (i.e., the quality of one's actions results in fair consequences according to the universal law of cause and effect). The four largest Eastern ethical systems, which contain myriad variations and now exist in a number of different countries, are Indian ethics (Hinduism and Buddhism) and Chinese ethics (Taoism and Confucianism).

❖ Indian Ethics

Hinduism is an ancient ethical system. It originated with writings called the Vedas (ca. 2000 to 1000 BCE), which include magical, religious, and philosophical teachings and existed long before the well-known ethical philosophy of the ancient Greeks. The main emphasis in Hindu ethics is cosmic unity. Because of reincarnation, people are stuck in Maya, an illusory, every day, impermanent experience. The quality of one's past actions, karma, influences one's present existence and future incarnations or rebirths. Therefore, people need to improve the

goodness of their actions, which will subsequently improve their karma. Liberation, moksha, means the soul of each person is no longer reincarnated but becomes one with the desirable cosmic or universal self, atman, and the absolute reality of Brahman (Pojman & Fieser, 2011).

Buddhism: The historical Buddha, Siddhartha Gautama (6th century BCE) was a Hindu prince. Because Siddhartha's father wanted to prevent the fulfilment of a prophecy that Siddhartha might become a spiritual teacher, he tried to shield his son from the world outside his palace. However, Siddhartha left the confinement of his palace and saw in his fellow human beings the suffering associated with sickness, old age, and death. He decided to devote his life to understanding and ending suffering (Pojman & Fieser, 2011).

In Buddhism, there is no creator God. The Buddha's core teachings, the teachings that all Buddhist sects profess, are called the Four Noble Truths. The First Noble Truth is that unsatisfactoriness or suffering (dukkha) exists as a part of all forms of existence. This suffering is different from the common Western notion of physical or mental misery; suffering in a Buddhist sense, for example, arises when people are ego cantered and cling to their impermanent existence and impermanent things. Suffering is emphasised in Buddhism not to suggest a negative outlook toward life but instead as a realistic assessment of the human condition. The Second and Third Noble Truths suggest that the cause of suffering is attachment (clinging or craving) to impermanent things, and suffering can be transcended (enlightenment). The Fourth Noble Truth contains the path for transforming suffering into enlightenment or liberation. This path is called the Eightfold Path, and it is composed of eight right practices: Right View, Right Thinking, Right Mindfulness, Right Speech, Right Action, Right Diligence, Right Concentration, and Right Livelihood (Pojman & Fieser, 2011).

Because of the central place of virtues in Buddhist philosophy, one interpretation of Buddhist ethics is to identify Buddhism as an ethic of virtue. There are four virtues singled out

by Buddhists as being immeasurable because when these virtues are cultivated, it is believed they will grow in a way that can encompass and transform the whole world. The Four Immeasurable Virtues are compassion (karuna), loving-kindness (metta), sympathetic joy (mudita), and equanimity (upekkha).

❖ Chinese Ethics

The two most influential Chinese ethical systems were developed between 600 and 200 BCE during a time of social chaos in China. The two systems are Taoism and Confucianism.

Taoism: The beginning of Taoism is attributed to LaoTzu (ca. 571 BCE), who wrote the Taoist guide to life, the Tao Te Ching. The word tao is translated to English as way or path, meaning the natural order or harmony of all things. Like Buddhists, Taoists do not believe in a creator God. Instead, Taoists have a very simple perspective toward reality—the underlying purpose of humans and the underlying purpose of nature cannot be separated. Based on the cyclic nature of life observed by ancient Chinese farmers, Taoist philosophy underscores the flux and balance of nature through yin (dark) and yang (light) elements. Living well or living ethically is living authentically, simply, and unselfishly in harmony and oneness with nature (Thiroux & Krasemann, 2012).

Confucianism K'ung Fu-tzu (551–479 BCE), who was later called Confucius by Christians visiting China, originated the Confucian ethical system. The teachings of Confucian ethics are generally contained in the moral maxims and sayings attributed to K'ung Fu-tzu, along with the later writings of his followers. Confucian ethics is described through the concepts of li and yi (Zeuschner, 2001). Li provides guidance in regard to social order and how humans should relate to one another, including rules of etiquette, such as proper greetings and social rituals. Yi emphasizes the importance of one's motivations toward achieving rightness rather than emphasising consequences. Sincerity, teamwork, and balance are critically important to

ethical behaviour. The primary virtue of Confucian ethics is jen, which is translated to English as benevolence or human goodness. Overall, Confucianism is a communitarian ethical system in which social goals, the good of society, and the importance of human relationships are valued (Thiroux & Krasemann, 2012).

Practice on Chapter Four

Section 1: Multiple Choice and Identification

- Choose the best answer for each question based on what is mentioned in the chapter.

1. Which philosopher proposed that "higher intellectual pleasures" are superior to physical pleasures and should be prioritized in utilitarian calculations?

A. Jeremy Bentham

B. Immanuel Kant

C. John Stuart Mill

D. St. Thomas Aquinas

2. The term arête in Virtue Ethics simply means the:

A. An order given by a god.

B. The result of one's actions

C. Excellence - Being the best a person or thing can be according to its purpose.

D. The mean state of being between two vices.

3. According to Kantian deontology, which of the following is considered irrelevant when determining the morality of an action?

A. Reason and rationality

B. Results of the action.

C. The concept of duty.

D. The categorical imperative

4. Which ethical theory holds that an action is right if a divine being commands it?

A. Natural Law Theory

B. Deontology

C. Divine Command Theory

D. Rule Utilitarianism

5. Sir William David Ross is associated with the concept of prima facie duties, which means duties that are:

A. Absolutely and can never be broken.

B. Based purely on the consequences of individual actions.

C. Accepted as correct on first impression, until overridden by a more pressing duty.

D. Determined entirely through the consensus of the community.

6. Which decision-making approach begins with an inductive, "bottom-up" analysis of specific, similar cases or "paradigm cases" to find guidance?

A. Principlism

B. Deontology

C. Casuistry

D. Virtue Ethics

7. The chapter mentions the application of Mill's utilitarianism in supporting which modern policy?

A. Aristocratic privilege during the Industrial Revolution.

B. The "will to power" philosophy.

C. Compulsory vaccination for the protection of society.

D. Religious prohibitions against homosexuality.

8. Virtues of character are developed primarily through RECENT, according to Aristotle.

A. Docēre, experientia, et tempus (intellectual virtues).

B. A native propensity towards sympathy and benevolence.

C. Smart, conscious habituation.

D. The thrust for power and strength.

Section 2: Application and Short Answer

Read the scenario and answer the questions using the stated ethical theory.

Scenario: A company is deciding whether to release a new medication that will save thousands of lives but has a known side effect that will cause severe illness in a small percentage (0.1%) of users.

Utilitarianism Application

How would a Rule Utilitarian likely approach this decision?

How would an Act Utilitarian likely make this decision?

(Hint: Both must consider consequences, but one follows a general rule like "do no harm" more strictly than the other.)

Deontology Application

How would a Kantian Deontologist approach this decision, specifically using the "means to an end" principle? Would they release the drug?

Natural Law and Virtue Ethics Comparison

Briefly explain how a Natural Law Theorist might argue against the drug release (focusing on purpose or order).

Briefly explain how a Virtue Ethicist (Aristotelian) might approach the decision (focusing on the character of the decision-makers).

Section 3: Multiple Choice and Identification

- Read each question and select the best answer based on the text.

1. Which ethical approach emphasizes that humans are "story-telling animals" and uses fables, novels, and life stories as a way to understand moral education and character development?

A. Critical Theory

B. Narrative Ethics

C. Principlism

D. Casuistry

2. The primary purpose for using a Critical Theory approach to ethics is to

A. Maximize happiness for the most number of people.

B. Emancipate human beings from conditions that oppress them and alleviate oppression.

C. Establish universal, unconditional duties to all rational beings.

D. Learn about universal interrelations and free from self.

3. According to the text, what does a key distinction of an "ethic of care" approach, emanating from feminist ethics, consist in?

A. It starkly reduces the role of emotion in moral reasoning.

B. It demands perfect neutrality and objective principles at all times.

C. It prioritizes traditionally female virtues, such as caring, and allows for the natural partiality in relationships.

D. It requires an intermediary-some sort of God-to transcend human moral shortcomings.

4. In Eastern ethical systems like Hinduism and Buddhism, ethics is often viewed as a discipline of training the mind imposed from within oneself, focusing on achieving a state of "innate but unrecognised perfection." This contrasts with Western ethics which often:

A. Completely filled with "will to power."

B. Therein lies a belief in human flaws, requiring an intermediary, God.

C. Thinks that people really do not have a self at all.

D. It focuses on social utility and consequences alone.

5. In Hindu ethics, the quality of one's actions determines one's present existence and future incarnations; it is referred to as:

A. Maya (illusory experience)

B. Moksha (salvation)

C. Atman (universal self)

D. Karma (law of cause and effect)

6. Feminist ethics deals particularly with the analysis of situations from the point of view of gender and addresses what central issue?

A. The absolute nature of categorical imperatives.

B. The patterns of women's oppression by dominant social groups.

C. The mathematical calculation of pleasure versus pain.

D. The attainment of rational, autonomous conduct.

Section 4: Short Answer and Application

- Answer the questions using specific evidence from the chapter.

Narrative Ethics

- Briefly explain the similarity that exists between Narrative Ethics and Casuistry by citing the text.

Critical Theory and Feminist Ethics

- Identify the three core assumptions of Critical Theory about Western democracies.
- How would an “ethic of care” fit under the umbrella of Critical Theory or Feminist Ethics?

Eastern vs. Western Ethics

- What is a major difference between the general goals of Western ethics, for example self-understanding, and the goals of Eastern ethics, for example in Hinduism/Buddhism?

Section 5: Multiple Choice and Identification

- Choose the best answer for each question based on the text provided.

1. The word Tao in Taoism is best translated as:

A. Human goodness or benevolence

B. A creator God

C. Rules of social order and etiquette

D. Way or path-the natural order/harmony of all things

2. Which of the following statements best expresses the core perspective of Taoist philosophy?

A. Human beings and nature are set to serve separate purposes.

B. To live well is to live authentically and in harmony with nature.

C. The focus is on achieving social goals through strict adherence to li (social rules).

D. Ethical behaviour is about maximising pleasure and minimizing pain - yin and yang.

3. In Confucian ethics, the primary virtue of jen is best translated into English as:

A. Earnestness

B. Benevolence or human goodness

C. Rightness (acquiring good consequences)

D. Social order/etiquette

4. K'ung Fu-tzu, the founder of Confucianism, is more commonly referred to in the West as

A. LaoTzu

B. The Buddha

C. Confucius

D. Immanuel Kant

5. Which Confucianist concept provides guidelines about social order, human relationships, and rules of etiquette?

A. Jen

B. Yi

C. Tao

D. Li,

6. The text classifies Confucianism as a "communitarian ethical system," referring to:

A. Individual self-understanding and personal liberation.

B. The significance of one's motivations (yi) compared to the consequences.

C. Social objectives, welfare of society, and relationships among individuals.

D. Obeying the commands of a creator God

Section 6: Short Answer and Application

- Answer the questions using all the details in the text.

Comparing Eastern Systems

- What is one commonality between the Taoists and the Buddhists that is very different from some of the Western monotheistic traditions?

Taoism in Practice

- If a person wanted to live ethically according to Taoist principles, what specific lifestyle choice would they emphasise?

Confucian Motivations

- How does the Confucian emphasis on yi-or rightness/motivation-relate to or differ from a utilitarian emphasis on morality?

Chapter Five

Corruption

5.1.Definition of Corruption

Corruption is, generally defined as, a form of dishonest or ***unethical*** conduct by a person entrusted with a position of authority, often to acquire personal benefit. Corruption may include many activities including bribery and embezzlement, though it may also involve practices that are legal in many countries. A Specific definition is provided by Nyre (1989, p.966) who defined corruption as "behavior which deviates from the formal duties of a public role because of private-regarding (personal, close family, private clique) pecuniary or status gains".

3.1.Causes of Corruption

According to a 2017 survey study by Enste and Heldman (2017), the following factors have been attributed as causes of corruption:

- ✓ Higher levels of market and political monopolization.
- ✓ Low levels of democracy, weak civil participation and low political transparency.
- ✓ Higher levels of bureaucracy and inefficient administrative structures.
- ✓ Low press freedom.
- ✓ Low economic freedom.
- ✓ Large ethnic divisions and high levels of in-group favouritism.
- ✓ Gender inequality.
- ✓ Low degree of integration in the world economy.
- ✓ Large government size.
- ✓ Low levels of government decentralisation.
- ✓ Poverty.
- ✓ Political instability.

- ✓ Weak property rights.
- ✓ Contagion from corrupt neighbouring countries.
- ✓ Low levels of education.

3.2.Scales of Corruption

Corruption can occur on different scales. Corruption ranges from small favours between a small number of people (petty corruption), to corruption that affects the government on a large scale (grand corruption), and corruption that is so prevalent that it is part of the everyday structure of society, including corruption as one of the symptoms of organised crime. The following division was discussed by Tanzi (1998):

- ***Petty Corruption***

Petty corruption occurs at a smaller scale and takes place at the implementation end of public services when public officials meet the public. For example, in many small places such as registration offices, police stations and many other private and government sectors.

- ***Grand Corruption***

Grand corruption is defined as corruption occurring at the highest levels of government in a way that requires significant subversion of the political, legal and economic systems. Such corruption is commonly found in countries with authoritarian or dictatorial governments but also in those without adequate policing of corruption.

The government system in many countries is divided into the legislative, executive and judiciary branches in an attempt to provide independent services that are less subject to grand corruption due to their independence from one another.

- ***Systemic Corruption***

Systemic corruption (or endemic corruption) is corruption which is primarily due to the weaknesses of an organisation or process. It can be contrasted with individual officials or agents who act corruptly within the system.

Factors which encourage systemic corruption include conflicting incentives, discretionary powers; monopolistic powers; lack of transparency; low pay; and a culture of impunity. Specific acts of corruption include bribery, extortion, and embezzlement in a system where corruption becomes the rule rather than the exception. Scholars distinguish between centralised and decentralised systemic corruption, depending on which level of state or government corruption takes place; in countries such as the Post-Soviet states both types occur. Some scholars argue that there is a negative duty of western governments to protect against systematic corruption of underdeveloped governments.

3.3.Sectors of Corruption

Corruption can occur in any sector, whether they be **public** or **private.** However, only in democratically controlled institutions is there an interest of the public (owner) to develop internal mechanisms to fight active or passive corruption, whereas in private industry there is no public control. Therefore, the owners' investors' or sponsors' profits are largely decisive.

- ***Government/Public Sector***

Public sector corruption includes corruption of the political process and of government agencies such as the police as well as corruption in processes of allocating public funds for contracts, grants, and hiring. Recent research by the World Bank suggests that who makes policy decisions (elected officials or bureaucrats) can be critical in determining the level of corruption because of the incentives different policy-makers face (The World Bank Group, n.d.).

- ***Political Corruption***

Political corruption is the abuse of public power, office, or resources by elected government officials for personal gain, by extortion, soliciting or offering bribes. It can also take the form of office holders maintaining themselves in office by purchasing votes by enacting laws, which use taxpayers' money. Evidence suggests that corruption can have political consequences- with citizens being asked for bribes becoming less likely to identify with their country or region (Warren, 2004).

- ***Police Corruption***

Police corruption is a specific form of **police misconduct** designed to obtain financial benefits, other personal gain, career advancement for a police officer or officers in exchange for not pursuing, or selectively pursuing, an investigation or arrest and/or aspects of the thin blue line itself, where force members collude in lies to protect other members from accountability. One common form of police corruption is soliciting and/or accepting **bribes** in exchange for not reporting organised drug or other illegal activities (Onyeozili, n.d.).

Another example is police officers flouting the police code of conduct in order to secure convictions of suspects—for example, through the use of falsified evidence. More rarely, police officers may deliberately and systematically participate in organised crime themselves. In most major cities, there are internal affairs sections to investigate suspected police corruption or misconduct.

- ***Judicial Corruption***

Judicial corruption refers to corruption related misconduct of judges, through receiving or giving bribes, improper sentencing of convicted criminals, bias in the hearing and judgement of arguments and other such misconduct.

Governmental corruption of judiciary is broadly known in many transitional and developing countries because the budget is almost completely controlled by the executive.

The latter undermines the separation of powers, as it creates a critical financial dependence of the judiciary.

It is important to distinguish between the two methods of corruption of the judiciary: the government (through budget planning and various privileges), and the private. Judicial corruption can be difficult to completely eradicate, even in developed countries. Corruption in judiciary also involve the government in power using judicial arm of government to oppress the opposition parties in the detriments of the state (Adedigba, 2018).

- ***Corruption in the Educational System***

Corruption in education is a worldwide phenomenon. Corruption in admissions to universities is traditionally considered as one of the most corrupt areas of the education sector. Recent attempts in some countries, such as Russia and Ukraine, to curb corruption in admissions through the abolition of university entrance examinations and introduction of standardized computer graded tests have largely failed. Vouchers for university entrants have never materialized. The cost of corruption is in that it impedes sustainable economic growth. Endemic corruption in educational institutions leads to the formation of sustainable corrupt hierarchies. While higher education in Russia is distinct with widespread bribery, corruption in the US and the UK features a significant amount of fraud. The US is distinct with grey areas and institutional corruption in the higher education sector. Authoritarian regimes, including those in the former Soviet republics, encourage educational corruption and control universities, especially during the election campaigns. This is typical for Russia, Ukraine, and Central Asian regimes, among others.

The general public is well aware of the high level of corruption in colleges and universities thanks to the media. Doctoral education is no exception, with dissertations and doctoral degrees available for sale, including for politicians. Russian Parliament is notorious for "highly educated" MPs High levels of corruption are a result of universities not being able

to break away from their Stalinist past, over bureaucratization, and a clear lack of university autonomy. Both quantitative and qualitative methodologies are employed to study education corruption, but the topic remains largely unattended by the scholars. In many societies and international organizations, education corruption remains a taboo. In some countries, such as certain eastern European countries and certain Asian countries, corruption occurs frequently in universities. This can include bribes to bypass bureaucratic procedures and bribing faculty for a grade. The willingness to engage in corruption such as accepting bribe money in exchange for grades decreases if individuals perceive such behaviour as very objectionable, i.e. a violation of social norms and if they fear sanctions in terms of the severity and probability of sanctions.

- **Corruption in Religion**

Two of the world's major religions, Christianity and Judaism, have been subject to endless corruption. Their corruption has not just been occurring over the past few hundred years, but stemmed in biblical times. This is proven over and over in the many scriptures of the Bible. Judaism is a widespread religion that is practised in almost all countries of the world. Although the majority of Jews are blind to the facts, Judaism is corrupt now, and has been corrupt since biblical times. In the Bible, it is written that God gave Moses the laws, teachings, and practices of a pure religion.

The history of religion includes numerous examples of religious leaders calling attention to corruption in the religious practices and institutions of their time. Jewish prophets Isaiah and Amos berate the rabbinical establishment of Ancient Judea for failing to live up to the ideals of the Torah. In the New Testament, Jesus accuses the rabbinical establishment of his time of hypocritically following only the ceremonial parts of the Torah and neglecting the more important elements of justice, mercy and faithfulness. In 1517, Martin Luther accuses the Catholic Church of widespread corruption, including selling of indulgences **(**Wengert, 2015).

- **Corruption in Philosophy**

In 19th century German philosopher Arthur Schopenhauer acknowledges that academics, including philosophers, are subject to the same sources of corruption as the society they inhabit. He distinguishes the corrupt "university" philosophers, whose "real concern is to earn with credit an honest livelihood for themselves and to enjoy a certain prestige in the eyes of the public" from the genuine philosopher, whose sole motive is to discover and bear witness to the truth (Segala, 2013).

To be a philosopher, that is to say, a lover of wisdom (for wisdom is nothing but truth), it is not enough for a man to love truth, in so far as it is compatible with his own interest, with the will of his superiors, or with the prejudices and tastes of his contemporaries; so long as he rests content with this position, he is only a lover of self, not a lover of wisdom. For this title of honour is well and wisely conceived precisely by its stating that one should love the truth earnestly and with one's whole heart, and thus unconditionally and unreservedly, above all else, and, if need be, in defiance of all else. Now the reason for this is the one previously stated that the intellect has become free, and in this state, it does not even know or understand any other interest than that of truth (Magee, 1997).

3.4.Methods of Corruption (Types)

Corruption comes in many forms that may be similar in meaning but there always a slight difference between them. Researchers call them forms, methods or types. The following is a myriad of information summarised from both Raoul Wallenberg Institute (n.d.) and (United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, n.d.).

Bribery

Bribery involves the improper use of gifts and favours in exchange for personal gain. This is also known as kickbacks or, in the Middle East, as baksheesh. It is the most common form of corruption. The types of favours given are diverse and may include money, gifts, sexual

favours, company shares, entertainment, employment and political benefits. The personal gain that is given can be anything from actively giving preferential treatment to having an indiscretion or crime overlooked.

Embezzlement, theft and fraud

Embezzlement and theft involve someone with access to funds or assets illegally taking control of them. Fraud involves using deception to convince the owner of funds or assets to give them up to an unauthorized party.

Extortion and blackmail

While bribery is the use of positive inducements for corrupt aims, extortion and blackmail centre on the use of threats. This can be the threat of violence or false imprisonment as well as exposure of an individual's secrets or prior crimes.

Favouritism, nepotism and clientelism

Favouritism, nepotism and clientelism involve the favouring of not the perpetrator of corruption but someone related to them, such as a friend, family member or member of an association. Examples would include hiring or promoting a family member or staff member to a role they are not qualified for, who belongs to the same political party as you, regardless of merit.

3.5.Consequences of Corruption

Corruption has serious repercussions. If allowed to take root in society, it can lead to a breakdown in social order and lives are affected when ordinary people are prevented from receiving all the essential services that they are entitled to. It also creates unfair competition and increases the cost of doing business. Every form of it is bad for economic growth and the reputation of an entire country can be tarnished. In fact the following consequences are stated by a number of studies namely (Drezgić, Ivošević, 2018); other studies are going to be mentioned afterwards in this chapter.

Corruption increases the volume of public investments (at the expense of private investments), as there are many options that allow for public expenditure manipulation and are carried out by high-level officials so as to get bribes (which means that more general government expenditures or a large budget offer more opportunities for corruption).

Corruption redirects the composition of public expenditure from the expenditure necessary for basic functioning and maintenance to expenditure on new equipment.

Corruption tends to pull away the composition of public expenditure from the necessary fixed assets for health and education, as there is less chance of getting commissions than from other, perhaps unnecessary projects.

Corruption reduces the effectiveness of public investments and the infrastructure of a country.

Corruption can reduce tax revenues by compromising the ability of the state administration to collect taxes and fees, although the net effect depends on how the nominal tax and other regulatory burdens were selected by the officials, exposed to corruption.

The influence of corruption on the economy was studied by the same authors through several factors:

Through the impact of corruption on businesses: The impact of corruption on a business is largely depend on the size of the company. Large companies are better protected in an environment that is prone to corruption, they avoid taxes more easily and their size protects them from petty corruption, while they are often also politically protected, which is why the survival of small (especially start-up companies) and middle-sized companies, regardless of their importance for the growth of the economy and the development, is much more difficult than the survival of large companies.

Through the impact of corruption on investments: Corruption affects (a) total investments, (b) the size and form of investments by foreign direct investors, (c) the size of public investments and (d) the quality of investment decisions and investment projects.

Through the influence of corruption on the allocation of talents: Indirectly, corruption has a negative impact on economic growth through the allocation of talents, since gifted and prospective students are driven, due to the influence of the environment and the situation in the country, for example, to study law rather than engineering, which would add value to the country.

Through the impact of corruption on public spending: Corruption has a negative impact on public spending and has an especially strong impact on education and health. There are also indications of the correlation between corruption and military expenditure, which means that high level of corruption reduces economic growth due to high military expenditure.

Through the impact of corruption on taxes: Because of corruption, fewer taxes are levied than would otherwise be, as some of the taxes end up in the pockets of corrupt tax officials. There are also frequent tax relieves in the corrupt countries, selective taxes and various progressive taxes; in short, there is much less money than the country could have, and so corruption, through the country's financial deficit, also affects the economic growth; and conclude the findings on the negative impact (both indirect and direct) of corruption on economic growth.

Smarzynska and Wei (2001) came to similar conclusions regarding the effects of corruption on the size and composition of investments. Corrupt countries are less attractive for investors, and if they do opt for an investment, due to non-transparent bureaucracy, they often enter the market with a joint venture, as they usually understand or control matters of the home country better. The local partner can also help foreign companies with the acquisition of local licenses and permits or can otherwise negotiate with the bureaucratic labyrinths at lower costs.

Generally inclined (as investors) to the joint venture in the corrupt countries are especially the US investors; however, even investors from those European countries, which are among the highest ranked on the CPI, quickly adapt to local conditions.

Corruption for various reasons also affects the following:

Employment, because the job does not go to the most suitable or qualified person, but the one who is ready to pay for it or in any other way return the favour.

Also affects total investments.

The size and composition of foreign investments and the size of public investments.

The effectiveness of investment decisions and projects. In the presence of corruption, the investments are smaller, as entrepreneurs are aware that they will have to bribe the officials or even give them a profit share for a successful implementation of a business. Due to these increased costs, the entrepreneurs are not interested in investing.

Wei (2001) even made a projection which predicted that in the case of reduction in corruption in Bangladesh to the level of corruption in Singapore, the growth rate of GDP per capita would increase by 1.8% per year between 1960 and 1985 (assuming that the actual average annual growth rate was 4% per year), and the average per capita income could have been more than 50% higher, whereas the Philippines could, if its level of corruption was reduced to that of Singapore (if everything remained unchanged), have raised their investments in relation to GDP by as much as 6.6%, which means a significant increase in the investments. At the same time, he notes that in order to reduce the corruption to the level of Singapore in the countries that he compared (India, Kenya, Sri Lanka, Turkey, Colombia, Mexico and Ghana), the State should raise the salaries of officials by 400—900%. He therefore asks himself whether this would even be possible. However, he notes that in the event of a large increase in salaries, a new form of corruption would likely arise when everyone would be prepared to pay a bribe for a well-paid official job.

Corruption often reduces the effectiveness of various financial assistance programmes (both state and international), as money is “lost somewhere along the way” and does not reach those that need it or for whom it is intended, as the financial benefits, deriving from corruption, are not taxable because they are hidden. The state is thus also losing part of the income from the taxes due to corruption, while the public spending, resulting from corruption (or narrow private interests) leads to negative effects on the budget.

The European Commission in its report found that corruption is costing the European economy about 120 billion a year, and according to the European Commissioner for Home Affairs, Cecilia Malstoström, the corruption in Europe is present in public procurement, financing of political parties and health care.

The United Nations estimate that the cost of corruption in Afghanistan amounted to about $ 3.9 billion in 2012. According to Transparency International, the former leader of Indonesia, Suharto, embezzled between $ 15 and $ 35 billion, whereas the embezzlements of Mobutu in Zaire, Ferdinand Marcos in the Philippines and Abacha in Nigeria are estimated to amount to $ 5 billion. However, the World Bank survey shows that $ 1 billion in bribes, both in rich and developing countries, is paid annually, which means that even the developed countries are not immune to corruption (but in a different form) and that the political corruption is especially present in large infrastructure projects. Bađun on the example of Croatia gives conclusions, which are valid for all post-communist countries.

Impact on enterprises: A survey conducted by the EBRD and the World Bank shows that bribes paid in smaller companies account for 5% of their annual profits and in medium-sized companies 4% of their annual profits. However, both are, compared to large companies, where bribes comprise less than 3%, in a much worse position, which shows how bribes are causing problems or are putting these smaller companies into a subordinate position compared to the large ones, which in turn leads to the collapse of these.

Also, interesting is the study of the Shadow Economy in Highly Developed OECD Countries where Buehn and Schneider (2012) also find the link between the low quality of institutions that are the holders of the rule of law (or degree of corruption) and the shadow economy, and therefore, the weaker the "law" is, the higher the degree of corruption and of shadow economy. In the study Corruption and the Shadow Economy, the same authors explore the relationship between the degree of corruption and the emergence of the shadow economy, and their findings are that the high level of shadow economy and the high degree of corruption are strongly linked to one another. One of the hypotheses in this survey (which has been confirmed) is also: the higher the degree of corruption, the lower the economic development measured by GDP per capita. The authors detected a positive correlation; corruption thus affects the economic development.

However, the extended practice of finding annuity outside the logic of the market and competition can therefore lead to a (neo) liberal conclusion that the root of the existence of corruption is in the very existence of the state—especially in excessive, selective and deforming state interventions and subsidies that create fertile soil for the development of corruption. The truth is that the devastating combination consists of widespread state intervention and subsidies in the simultaneous absence of a strong institutional framework and detailed rules of the game, including the control of public finances and effective anti-trust legislation and legal practices. On the other hand, however, there is no clear evidence that private monopolies are more effective and less corrupt than the public ones and that privatization, especially long-lasting, gradual and non-transparent one (so-called gradualism), reduces positive developmental and social effects, including the reduction of corruption. Yet market deregulation, legal and judicial reform and transparent management of public procurement would significantly reduce corruption in many developing countries (as well as in transition countries), at which point the government should play an important role in the shaping of the anti-corruption policy. There

should be a strong strengthening of the public procurement institution. The law is admittedly strict about the public procurement, but one of the main reasons for public procurement problems is the lack of a skilled workforce, and public procurement is thus still the breeding ground of corruption. There also exists a proverb “poverty is a curse,” which applies largely to all developing countries, as these are the countries that are most affected by poverty. Poverty destroys all ethical and moral values.

One of the important aspects of the damage to the global economy is also the failure to respect copyright and intellectual property. The more corrupt countries are also inclined to lower respect for the aforementioned, and the economic damage amounts to billions of dollars. Cavazos-Cepeda et al. (2010) found that reforms, legal, fiscal and intellectual incentives to respect copyright and intellectual property patents encourage the society to make itself more innovative and economically more effective; however, they underline the importance of human capital and investment in people as one of the most important factors for reducing the level of corruption in the country.

There are also theories that corruption can act as the lubricant of the economic wheel and at least in some cases has a positive impact on the economic growth. The empirical analysis done by Dreher and Gassebner (2013) on a sample of 43 countries between 2003 and 2005 shows that corruption is even useful, but with some reservations. In particular, they investigated the short-term effects of corruption and found, for example, that in countries where corruption is widespread, more new entrepreneurs enter the market (corruption in the public sector is expected to promote private entrepreneurial activity). They are, however, not necessarily to succeed, as there is a high likelihood that they will go bankrupt due to the rigid regulations that block the activity and because of which bribes are needed. They do acknowledge, on the other hand, that most authors who have been doing research for a longer period of time admit the harmfulness of corruption both for society and the economy. Something similar show the data

for some Asian countries, where, unlike their findings (short-term benefit), the high degree of corruption coincides with the long-term economic growth.

Svendson (2005) also notes that, in light of the theoretical literature and various research studies, notwithstanding that these show the negative impact of corruption on the economic growth, but this cannot be said for sure, since there are difficulties in measuring corruption, and at the same time, the question arises whether the econometric models that were made are good enough to capture all the important variables. He also states that corruption appears in many forms and that there is no reason to assume that all types of corruption are equally harmful to the economic growth.

Recent empirical researches also attest to that; while many countries have suffered, as a characteristic consequence of corruption, the decline in economic growth, other countries have had economic growth (in some cases a very positive one) despite corruption. The latter is also to be expected, since corruption has many manifestations and it would be surprising if all types of corrupt practices had the same effect on economic performance. Analyses show that one of the reasons for this is the extent to which the perpetrators of corrupt practices—in this case the bureaucrats—coordinate their behaviour. In the absence of an organized corruption network, each bureaucrat collects bribes for himself, while ignoring the negative impact of others' demands for them. In the presence of such a network, the collective bureaucracy reduces the total value of the bribe, which results in lower bribe payments and higher innovation, and the economic growth is consequently higher in the latter case than in the former case. The interesting question is not so much why is the degree of corruption in poor countries higher than in the rich ones, but rather why the nature of corruption differs between countries. The extent to which corruption is organized is just one aspect of this, but there are other aspects. For example, it is common practice in some countries to pay ex post (as a share of profit, for example) instead of ex ante (in advance, as a bribe) to officials or politicians, so it is assumed

that the effects on the economy will be different. The precise reason why corruption should take on one form and not the other is an important issue which has been largely ignored and which could have to do with cultural, social and political reasons, as well as economic circumstances.

In the fight against corruption, a remarkable role was also played by the debt crisis. The die Welt newspaper (2013) mentions the study of the Hertie School of Governance, which shows that Italy, Spain and Portugal have made great strides in the fight against bribery and corruption of their civil servants due to lack of money, which enabled a significantly more transparent and "pure" practice for the award of public procurement. The crisis is supposed to dry up monetary resources and thus reduce the chances of corruption. In addition, the crisis has changed the perception of the society, and bad business practices, which were acceptable before the crisis, are acceptable no longer. However, the fight against corruption is often similar to the fight against windmills. The case of India shows how corruption is changing, getting new dimensions, not only in scope, but also in methods. Just as the population in India is growing, so is corruption, and there are always new ways how to cheat both the state and the society. The perception of corruption is increasing year after year. Despite all the anti-corruption moves and anti-corruption initiatives, people do not hesitate to offer or accept a bribe. The bribers are becoming innovative, they adapt to the situation and the innovation of companies in paying bribes and hiding them is also visible. However, just as elsewhere in the world, the negative effects of corruption are the same; it reduces foreign direct and domestic investments, increases inequality and poverty, raises the number of freeloaders (renters, free-riders) in the economy, distorts and exploits public investments and reduces public revenues.

Practice on Chapter Five

Section 1: Multiple-Choice Questions

1. Which of the following is not listed, according to the 2017 survey by Enste and Heldman, as one of the possible causes of corruption?

A. High levels of democracy and strong participation of civil society

(B) Large government size

(C) Low levels of education

(D) Political instability

2. What type of corruption is defined as occurring at the highest levels of government and subverting political, legal, and economic systems?

A) Petty corruption

(B) Systemic corruption

(C) Grand corruption

(D) Endemic corruption

3. Which is the main reason, according to Nyre's 1989 definition in the text, that corruption involves behaviour deviating from formal duties?

(A) To benefit the general public

(B) For private or personal gains

(C) Due to organisational weaknesses

(D) That justice be served

True/False Statements

Corruption can only occur in the public sector since private industry lacks public control.

True or False: Lack of transparency, coupled with very low pay, creates the conditions that encourage systemic corruption.

True or False: One common form of police corruption involves officers deliberately and systematically participating in organized crime themselves.

Analysis and Vocabulary

Vocabulary Matching: Match the term with its definition based on the text.

Term	Definition
1. Embezzlement	A type of dishonest behaviour to gain personal advantage.
2. Extortion	takes place at the public services implementation end, for example, the police stations.
3. Petty Corruption:	A particular type of police misconduct intended to secure financial advantages.

4. Political Corruption: The abuse of public power/office by elected officials for personal gain.

6. Describe how the judiciary’s budget being in the hands of the executive branch can undermine the separation of powers and lead to judicial corruption.

Section 2: Multiple-Choice Questions

1. According to the chapter, what form of corruption is presented as the most common?

(A) Embezzlement

(B) Extortion

(C) Bribery

(D) Nepotism

2. What is the main difference between bribery and extortion/blackmail?

(A) Bribery involves money, while extortion involves gifts.

(B) Bribery employs positive inducements, whereas extortion employs threats.

(C) Extortion occurs only in the public sector; bribery occurs in both.

(D) Extortion involves family members whereas bribery involves strangers.

3. Corruption is said to affect the distribution of talent since students are motivated to study which field, according to the text?

(A) Engineering

(B) Health and Education

(C) Law

(D) Military service

Correct Answer: (C)

True/False Statements

1. Favouritism, nepotism, and clientelism involve the favouring of the perpetrator of corruption for personal gain. (False - they favour someone related to the perpetrator)
2. Corruption increases private investments at the expense of public investments.
3. Large firms are less protected in an environment prone to corruption compared to small start-up companies. (False)

Analysis and Vocabulary

Vocabulary Matching: Match the following method of corruption with its description according to the text:

Term	Description
1. Embezzlement	Applying threats of violence or exposure of secrets.
2. Fraud.	Appointing a friend or relative based on favour and not merit.
3. Extortion	use of misrepresentations to trick an owner to relinquish funds to an unauthorised party
4. Nepotism	Any person who has access to funds misappropriating them.

Open-Ended Questions

Explain, based on the chapter, how corruption in public spending may result in negative impacts on the health and education sectors.

Describe how corruption influences foreign direct investors, including the role of a local partner in a joint venture.

Summarise the most important consequences of corruption on employment according to the chapter.

Chapter Six

Ethics in Islam

Introduction

Islam is a comprehensive way of life, and morality is one of the cornerstones Islam. Morality is one of the fundamental sources of a nation's strength, just as immorality is one of the main causes of a nation's decline. Islam has established some universal fundamental rights for humanity as a whole, which are to be observed in all circumstances. To uphold these rights, Islam has provided not only legal safeguards, but also a very effective moral system. Thus, whatever leads to the welfare of the individual or the society and does not oppose any maxims of the religion is morally good in Islam, and whatever is harmful is morally bad.

Given its importance in a healthy society, Islam supports morality and matters that lead to it, and stands in the way of corruption and matters that lead to it. The guiding principle for the behaviour of a Muslim is "Virtuous Deeds". This term covers all deeds, not only acts of worship. The Guardian and Judge of all deeds is God Himself.

The most fundamental characteristics of a Muslim are piety and humility. A Muslim must be humble with God and with other people:

> **“And turn not your face away from people (with pride), nor walk in insolence through the earth. Verily, God likes not each arrogant boaster. And be moderate (or show no insolence) in your walking, and lower your voice. Verily, the harshest of all voices is the voice (braying) of the ass.” (Quran 31:18-19)**

Muslims must be in controls of their passions and desires.

A Muslim should not be vain or attached to the ephemeral pleasures of this world. While most people allow the material world to fill their hearts, Muslims should keep God in their hearts and

the material world in their hand. Instead of being attached to the car and the job and the diploma and the bank account, all these things become tools to make us better people.

> **"The Day whereon neither wealth nor sons will avail, but only he(will prosper) that brings to God a sound heart." (Quran: 26:88-89)**

6.1. Principles of Morality in Islam

God sums up righteousness in verse 177 of Surat Al Baqarah:

> **"It is not righteousness that you turn your faces towards East or West; but it is righteousness (the quality of) the one who believes in God and the Last Day and the Angels, and the Book, and the Messengers; who spends of his wealth, in spite of love for it, to the kinsfolk, to the orphans, to the needy, to the wayfarer, to those who ask and for the freeing of slaves; and who is steadfast in prayers, and gives Zakah (Alms); and those who fulfil their covenants which, they made; and who are patient and perseverant in poverty and ailment and throughout all periods of fighting. Such are the people of truth, the pious."**

This verse teaches us that righteousness and piety is based before all else on a true and sincere faith. The key to virtue and good conduct is a strong relation with God, who sees all, at all times and everywhere. He knows the secrets of the hearts and the intentions behind all actions. Therefore, a Muslim must be moral in all circumstances; God is aware of each one when no one else is. If we deceive everyone, we cannot deceive Him. We can flee from anyone, but not from Him. The love and continuous awareness of God and the Day of Judgment enables man to be moral in conduct and sincere in intentions, with devotion and dedication:

“Indeed, the most honourable among you in the sight of God is the most pious.” (Quran 49:13)

Then come deeds of charity to others, especially giving things we love. This, like acts of worship, prayers and Zakah (mandatory alms), is an integral part of worship. A righteous person must be reliable and trustworthy.

Finally, their faith must be firm and should not wane when faced with adversity. Morality must be strong to vanquish corruption:

“And God loves those who are firm and steadfast.”

Patience is often hardest and most beautiful when it is against one's own desires or anger:

> **“And march forth toward forgiveness from your Lord, and for Paradise as wide as are the heavens and the earth, prepared for the pious. Those who spend (in the way of God) in prosperity and in adversity, who repress anger, and who pardon people; verily, God loves the doers of the good deeds.” (Quran 3:133)**

These three acts are among the hardest things for most people, but they are also the key to forgiveness and to paradise. Are they not the best, those who are able to exercise charity when they are in need themselves, control when they are angry and forgiveness when they are wronged?

This is the standard by which actions are judged as good or bad. By making pleasing God the objective of every Muslim, Islam has set the highest possible standard of morality.

Morality in Islam addresses every aspect of a Muslim's life, from greetings to international relations. It is universal in its scope and in its applicability. Morality reigns must also enjoin virtue. They must not only refrain from evil and vice, but they must also forbid them. In other words, they must not only be morally healthy, but they must also contribute to the moral health of society as a whole.

"You are the best of the nations raised up for (the benefit of) men; you enjoin what is right and forbid the wrong and believe in God; and if the followers of the Book had believed it would have been better for them; of them (some) are believers and most of them are transgressors." (Quran: 3:110)

6.2. Conduct of Muslims

The prophet, may the mercy and blessings of God be upon him, summarised the conduct of a Muslim when he said:

"My Sustainer has given me nine commands: to remain conscious of God, whether in private or in public; to speak justly, whether angry or pleased; to show moderation both when poor and when rich, to reunite friendship with those who have broken off with me; to give to him who refuses me; that my silence should be occupied with thought; that my looking should be an admonition; and that I should command what is right."

Article by Latif (2008, December 22) used for teaching purposes.

Practice on Chapter Six

Section 1: Defining Islamic Ethics (Individual/Quick Write)

The "Good vs. Harmful" Filter

The chapter states that good actions promote well-being and do not violate religious law; bad actions do harm. Identify whether the following actions are *Morally Good* or *Morally Bad* based on that principle, then briefly justify your response.

Action	Moral Classification (Good/Bad)	Justification (Why?)
Donating blood to a hospital	Good	Promotes individual/societal welfare; it saves lives.
Spreading a rumour about a neighbour whom one dislikes.	Bad	Causes harm: gossip/dishonesty likely runs counter to religious maxims and welfare of society.
Usury-interest rates are unreasonably high on a loan	Bad	Causes harm/corruption; probably contradicts some religious maxims about finance.
Planting trees in the communal park to purify the air.	Good	Promotes welfare/benefit to society.

Section 2: Principles of Morality (Group Work)

Unpacking Righteousness (Quran 2:177)

Re-read the long verse in section 6.1 that begins, “It is not righteousness that you turn your faces.” The text delineates three primary areas of being a “pious” individual. Enumerate these three pillars along with the concrete actions that define them.

Pillar of Righteousness	Actions/Behaviours mentioned in the verse
1. True and Sincere Faith (Belief).	Believes in God, the Last Day, the Angels, the Book, and the Messengers.
2. Acts of Charity/Behaviour towards Others.	Spends wealth on kinsfolk, orphans, the needy, wayfarers, freeing slaves; gives Zakah; fulfils one’s covenants/promises.
3. Strength in Adversity (Patience/Perseverance).	Is patient and perseverant during poverty, ailment, and throughout fighting. Represses anger and pardons people.

Section 3: Conduct of Muslims (Role-Play & Discuss)

The Prophet’s Nine Commands in Action

Select one of the imperatives from the Prophet’s saying in Section 6.2, such as “to speak justly, whether angry or pleased.” Then, with a partner, create a contemporary scenario in which it is challenging to carry out that imperative before discussing how the emphasis of the chapter on awareness of God helps you follow that imperative anyway.

(No single answer key for this activity, as the scenarios will vary. The goal is discussion and application of the chapter’s theme of God-consciousness.)

Section 4: Core Characteristics

Key Term Match-Up Name

Draw a line to match the term from the chapter to its correct definition or description as used in the text.

Term	Meaning/Description
Piety	C. An essential attribute of the Muslim, connected to being the "most honourable in the sight of God."
Humility	D. Not walking in insolence through the earth; being moderate, and lowering one's voice.
Ephemeral	E. The material pleasures of this world (temporary).
Righteousness	A. Obligatory alms/charity (Zakah).
Objective of Morality	B. The standard of Islam through which actions are assessed as being either good or bad, pleasing God.

Chapter Seven

Ethics When Conducting Research

Warm-up Activity

The following scenarios are presented for you, and you will try to tell whether they are ethical or not. These scenarios are proposed by Shamoo and Resnik (2015):

Scenarios

Scenario 1:

Two graduate students have made some measurements on a new material. The data points are as shown. To prove their hypothesis, the results should lie on the curve shown.

It is unethical as it would amount to falsification of data. We cannot delete authentic data to benefit a personal belief.

Scenario 2:

A group of undergraduate students planned a research project on the detection of fatal abnormalities in the second trimester, by ultrasound scanning. They collected data from the scan room without informing the mothers.

It is unethical as they did not take the mothers' consent even if the act would not harm them nor their babies.

Scenario 3:

In a clinical trial on new migraine medication, research participants were instructed to take a pill each time they experienced a migraine and rate the intensity of the pain before and after taking the pill. The participants felt that the pill relieved the pain, but at the end of the month they were told that they were given a placebo—a fake or non-existent treatment; it can be a sugar pill or a salt-water injection—and not the new medication. The perceived

improvement they experienced was just due to the idea of taking medicine, which is called the placebo effect.

Some say that it is unethical as it can negatively impact the patient's mental health, affect trust, and threaten the doctor-patient relationship. However, others say that it is ethical because one of the main reasons for using the placebo is to test the power of the mind in stimulating healing. If the participants were told that they were not given the medication, but rather a placebo prior to the experiment, then researchers would not get genuine results, in addition to the fact that, generally, using placebo does not cause any irreversible harm, death, or other serious morbidities.

Scenario 4:

A group of undergraduate students collected data from a group of bank officers, with their consent, regarding their working hours and salary with regard to the prevalence of high blood pressure. Subsequently, the researchers gave the same data to another group who were in need of the same data variables.

It is unethical as they violated principles of consent and confidentiality.

7.1.What are Research Ethics?

We all have agreed that these scenarios were unethical as if there are conventions (unwritten laws) that we follow. This shows that all people share some standard ethical norms, but not everyone is committed to them. Sometimes, people intentionally do the wrong thing even when they know it is wrong, this is why we have laws imposed on us. Since the main concern is conducting a research, there is a set of values and standards developed to help regulate a research process, called research ethics. It involves the application of fundamental ethical principles to the planning, conducting, and publishing of research.

7.2.Approaches to Research Ethics

There are three basic approaches to research ethics that researchers tend to adopt when considering ethical issues in research. These approaches differ in terms of the criteria used to make decisions about what is right and wrong. This means that each approach has its own criteria on which a researcher depends to decide whether an act is ethical or not:

1. Deontology: is an ethical approach that says actions are good or bad according to a clear set of rules or universal codes.

2. Ethical Scepticism: An ethical approach that says concrete and inviolate moral codes cannot be formulated but are a matter of individual conscience.

To make the difference between the two, suppose there is a software engineer and he/she learns that a nuclear missile is about to launch that might start a war and kill thousands of people. Following ethical scepticism, the software engineer would hack the network and cancel the launch. However, following deontology, it is against the software engineer's professional code of ethics to break into any software system without permission.

3. Utilitarianism holds that the most ethical choice is the one that will produce the greatest good for the greatest number, i.e., the benefits of the research is larger than the cost even if it includes harming the participants. Utilitarians are willing to sacrifice the good of the individual for the good of the society. For example, one might argue that a utilitarian would recommend killing an innocent healthy person in order to use their organs to save five people who need organ transplants (O'Fallon & Butterfield, 2005).

7.3.Research Misconduct

Before the mid-1960s, there were many violations of research ethics since there were no rules governing and leading them, nor was there any surveillance on their process. Amongst these actions: falsifying data, manipulating results to support a theory, or reporting data

selectively, in addition to the use of flawed data, failing to present data contradicting one's own work, or sidestepping some basic human participant requirements; all of these acts are considered research misconduct. The increased interest in scientific misconduct has stimulated discussion about its causes and what action needs to be taken to reduce its frequency. That is why some prevention strategies have been designed to make research misconduct difficult to commit. Some of these strategies:

- Ask some of the research participants who should have been seen by each data collector if you can recontact them. Then recontact them to ensure that they participated in the study.
- Make sure there are no deviations from the approved study design.
- Teach students about research ethics. Include reviews of misconduct incidents and examine ethical problems as well as the consequences of research fraud.

History is filled with research scandals and violations of ethical standards. Some scientists in positions of power have mistreated or even abused research participants to investigate research problems at any cost. Research did not always operate to benefit others and experiments were not always conducted in a manner that ensured the safety of participants especially in the medical field, as they were an example of violation of human rights. The ethical issues that educational researchers must face are often not as dramatic or blatant as those that frequently exist in medical research. However, that does not diminish their importance. Consequently, educational researchers should consider designing their study carefully by paying attention to small details and sensitive information or questions provided and must be attuned to other ethical issues that surround their research (National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, 1979).

7.4.Ethical Guidelines for Research with Humans

To avoid those ethical issues, organisations like American Educational Research Association (AERA, 2011) designed a set of ethical standards to guide the researchers in the field of education, and because the population is often composed of children and other vulnerable population, hence the main purpose of this organisation is to protect them.

The association (AERA, 2011), put 5 principles plus 22 standards that researchers should always follow.

The five broad principles you should always follow are:

1) Professional Competence: researchers should only perform in the areas that they are qualified.

   E.g. If you are a professor in the educational system and your research is based on the field of medicine, you cannot perform because it is not your area. You need the help of someone specialised in that area a doctor.

2) Integrity: Always be honest, trustworthy and fair and more importantly never put at risk the security of others.

   E.g. Using a new vaccine on a patient without their consent.

3) Professional, Scientific, and Scholarly Responsibility: All researchers in any field must adhere to all ethical standards created by AERA (American Educational Research Association).

4) Respect for People's Rights, Dignity, and Diversity: Respect cultural and individual differences, and eliminate discrimination.

   E.g. Doing a research about the relation between the type of meats and the amount of energy produced. If someone is eating pork, do not eliminate him or her just because you are Muslim. It is only going to bias the results.

5) Social Responsibility: Act for the benefit of others in the society.

There are several ethical standards other than the previously mentioned five ones, that are important in the conduct of a research study, such as the informed consent, deception and debriefing, freedom to withdraw, confidentiality, anonymity and privacy; in addition to the ethics of research conduct over the internet.

7.5.Informed Consent

The informed consent means to agree to participate in a study after being informed of its purpose, procedures, risks, benefits, alternative procedures, and limits of confidentiality. E.g. If the research is about using the grades of students, you have to explain to the students that their grades are going to be used in another class. The reason is to avoid any problem later because maybe it is embarrassing, and they may not want to be a part of the study **(**Vollmann & Winau, 1996).

The informed consent must be given before using individuals' existing record also for research. For example, the grades done for knowing the student performance cannot be used in another research without the consent of students.

Some information you include in the informed consent are as follows:

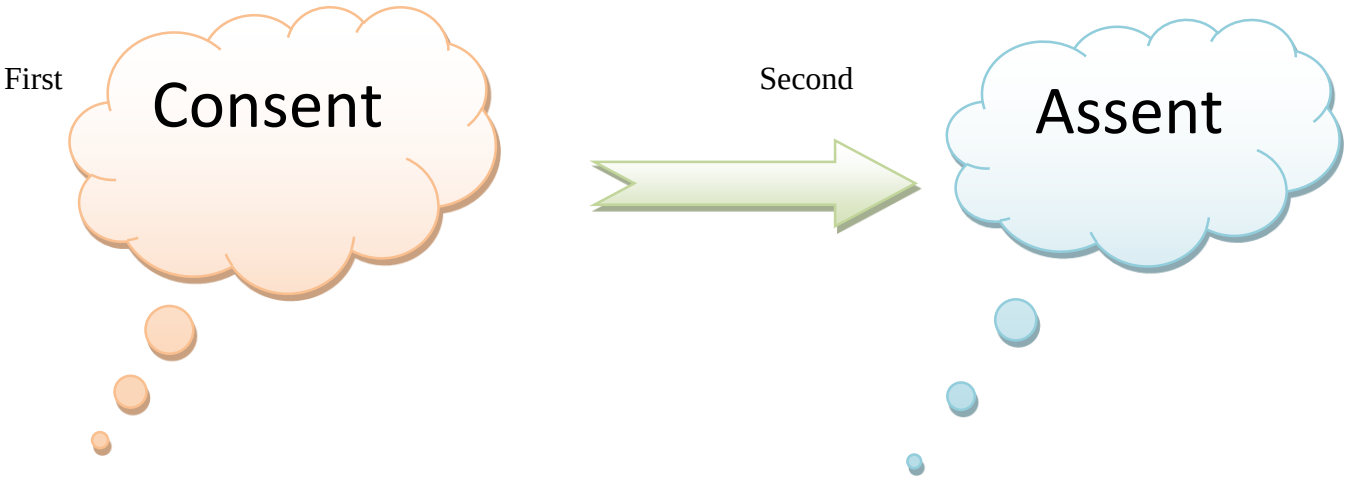
1. Description of physical or psychological risks.
2. Description of any benefits for the participants.
3. To what extent the results will be kept confidential.

Sometimes the consent is not necessary if it alters the outcome of the research, like in scenario 3 if the patients know it is a placebo the experiment will not work.

4. **Informed Consent and Minors as Research Participants**

Participants once they get the information of the informed consent, they are completely and legally free to participate in the study. However, minors are not capable of being a part of the research unless they obtain first the consent of their parents or guardians. Once the parents

give his / her consent, the minor must give his assent if he is capable to understand what they are being told to do (Shuster, 1997).



****Assent:** Agreeing to participate after being informed of all the features of the study that could affect the participant's willingness to participate.

The following informed consent is about predictors of speech rate in normally fluent people.

Consent Form

Informed Consent

Title: Predictors of Speech Rate in Normally Fluent People
Principal Investigator: Sally Smith
Department: Education
Telephone Number: (111) 123-4567

You are invited to participate in a research study investigating the things that affect how fast normal people of different ages speak. If you volunteer to participate in this research study, we will test the clarity of your hearing, language, and speech.

The research will involve asking you to talk about different things such as telling what you see on picture cards, saying words and sounds as fast as you can, and repeating words and sentences. You will be asked to name animals, colours, letters, and numbers as fast as you can and to read a paragraph. If you get tired before the tests are finished, you can rest and finish the study later. Your speech will be recorded so we can study that later.

The study will take between 1.0 and 1.5 hours.

You might not get any benefit from participating in the study, but the tests we give you will help us understand how different things affect how fast people speak.

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you should always remember that you can withdraw and stop participating in the study at any time you wish. You will not be penalized in any way if you withdraw and stop participating in the study.

There are no risks from participating in this study other than; perhaps, you might get tired of doing the tests.

All information that you provide to us will be kept strictly confidential. At no time will we give any information to anyone outside the research staff. The recordings of your speech will be erased when the research is finished. The results of this study may be presented at professional meetings or published in a professional journal, but your name and any other identifying information will not be revealed.

If you have any questions about this study or if you have any questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you can call the Institutional Review Board of the university at (111) 123-5678. You can also contact Dr. Sally Smith at (111) 123-4567.

Agreement to Participate in Research

I have read, or have had read to me, the above study and have had an opportunity to ask questions, which have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree voluntarily to participate in the study as described.

_____	_____
Date	Participants' name
_____	_____
Date	Signature of Consenting Party
_____	_____
Date	Signature of Investigator
_____	_____
Date	Signature of Witnesses

(World Medical Association, 2013).

Passive versus Active Consent

Active consent	Passive consent
A process whereby consent is provided by signing a consent form	A process whereby consent is given by not returning the consent form

Participants are present when they receive the informed consent, but for minors as said before the parents must first give their consent. How the informed consent form is given to them. It is either done via sending it by mailing or sending it with the child. Statistics show that 60% of the parents do not return the form due to lack of time, denying it, or not receiving it at all and this reduces the sample and bias the results of the research. In order to avoid this, Elickson (1989) recommended the passive consent.

Although active consent is preferable and ensures that the participant has understood the demands and risks of the study, passive consent is sometimes used in educational research to increase participation and minimize bias. However, passive consent makes the assumption that non response represents informed consent, which might or might not be the case (Gomez & Spear, 2010).

5. **Additional Consent**

It is a consent related to the organism of education; in this case, the consent is required form different persons, the responsible, teachers and students must all give their consent and the researcher must answer all the questions related to the study.

7.6.Confidentiality, Anonymity, and the Concept of Privacy

American Educational Research Association state that researchers are ethically required to protect the participants and data. This is related to the concept of privacy.

Privacy: Having control of others' access to information about a person. Respecting the privacy of the participants is at the heart to conduct a research, but it can be hard to maintain this privacy, There are two methods to do it:

Anonymity: Keeping the identity of the participant from everyone, including the researcher.

Confidentiality: Not revealing the identity of the participant to anyone other than the researcher and his or her staff.

7.7.Deception and Debriefing

We said that research participants should be informed of the purpose and nature of the study they are participating in, so that they can decide whether they want to participate or not. However, sometimes revealing the purpose and nature of the study will alter the outcomes and invalidate the study. For example, if a researcher is going to observe a certain behaviour of the research participants after providing all of the details, their behaviour will not be genuine and natural. That is why, in some cases, it is necessary to withhold information to ensure the success and validity of the study. This act is called "deception", deception is intentionally misleading or withholding information from a research subject. Some of its forms are withholding information, giving false information or intentionally misleading the participants.

It is a must to do a debriefing session after the study where the researcher does an interview with each participant, explains the reasons behind using deception, answers any questions the participants have and makes sure that the deception did not cause any unnecessary stress or other undesirable feelings.

Deception: is intentionally misleading or withholding information from a research subject.

Debriefing: an interview with each participant to explain the reasons behind any deception used, answer any questions the participants have and make sure that the deception did not cause any unnecessary stress or other undesirable feelings.

It is also important to mention that Research participants must be told that they are free to withdraw from the research study at any time without any punishment. As a general rule, the

dissent of a minor should be respected even if the guardian or parent has provided informed consent. Children below the age of being able to provide consent or infants should be excused from the research study if they seem to be disturbed by or uncomfortable with the procedures (AERA, 2011).

7.8.Institutional Review Board

- After following all of the required guidelines, a researcher must submit a research protocol to the IRB. The Institutional Review Board is an institutional review committee that assesses the ethical acceptability of research proposals in order to protect the rights and privacy of participants. There are types of research studies that fall in the category of exempt studies; studies that have no risk on participants and do not require full IRB review. A large portion of educational research is exempt, so an educational researcher must submit a research protocol to the IRB to determine whether the study is exempt from (free from) ethical oversight. The IRB has the authority to review, approve, modify or disapprove research protocols submitted by researchers (Amdur & Bankert, 2014).

Information to be included in a Research Protocol

- Purpose of the research.
- Relevant background and rationale for the research.
- Participant population.
- Experimental design and methodology.
- Incentives offered, if any.
- Risks and benefits to participants and precautions to be taken.
- Privacy and confidentiality.

7.9.Ethical Issues in Electronic Research

Ethical issues do not only concern the participants, but also the electronic field.

We know that the use of internet increased in the conduct of research due to the advantages:

- ✓ Offering an access to a large number of individuals.
- ✓ The diversity of backgrounds.

The same issues arise in the internet research.

1/ The Informed Consent

It is crucial to obtain the informed consent; if it is a public category like data collected from radio programs, TV and books there is no problem; but, if it is a private category like chat rooms it is obligatory.

How do we get an informed consent in this why?

Knowing that the consent has three parts:

- ➢ Providing the information.
- ➢ Ensuring that the participants understand.
- ➢ Obtaining voluntary consent.

The solution is either you can put in online, but still some will not fully understand all the implication of the research, and the researcher is not available 24/h online to answer all the questions. To avoid this and to give the participants a way to have an answer to all his questions, we add FAQ “Frequently Asked Questions”. It is a section were all the questions are posted by the participants and the researcher answer when he will have time. In addition, it is easy for the new participants.

2/ Privacy

As always privacy is important to avoid harming the participant, we know that all data are encrypted on the internet so the point of the privacy is settled. In addition, the data in the educational filed do not interest the hackers.

3/Debriefing

Debriefing is explaining the procedures, in case there are difficulties doing so while using the internet:

- ❖ The study may be ended early because of a cut in the internet connection.
- ❖ The participant might become irritated by the study or bored.
- ❖ The participant may lack of time because of previous engagements.

To avoid this and have maximum probability:

- ➢ Send the debriefing statement by email.
- ➢ Provide a "leave the study" button that will direct the participants to the debriefing page

To conclude, researches conducted via internet encounter numerous ethical issues without a perfect solution. If a person is conducting a research by using the internet, it should always keep in mind the issues of privacy, informed consent and debriefing/

7.10. Ethical Issues in Preparing the Research Report

After completing the study, the last phase of the research process is to communicate the results of the study to others. Communication most frequently takes place through the professional journals in a field. This means that you must write a research report stating how the research was conducted and what was found. In writing the research report, several ethical issues must be considered (Nosek & Banaji, 2002).

- ➢ **Authorship**

Mentioning the responsible of the study.

For professionals, it is a way to get promotions or new funds.

For students, it is a way to get access to graduate programme or securing a job.

Acknowledging everyone who contributed in the research in a footnote.

- ➢ **Writing the Research Report**

When writing a research report you must abide by these:

- ❖ Integrity and honesty of the work: using the information as founded and the results as it is.
- ❖ Reporting the methodology used in collecting the data
- ❖ Giving credit to others' works otherwise it is plagiarism.

- **Types of Plagiarism**

Plagiarism: Using words or work produced by others and presenting it as your own.

Self-plagiarism: Presenting one's words as original when they have been used previously in another publication.

To avoid plagiarism you have three ways:

1- Using short quotation marks when it is a phrase or proverb.

2- Using block quotation when there are more than 40 words.

3- Using the idea of another person with your own words, here you use either paraphrasing or summarising.

7.11. Why Commit to Research Ethics?

↳ Research ethics matter for scientific integrity, human rights and dignity, and collaboration between science and society. These principles make sure that participation in studies is voluntary, informed, and safe.

↳ Understanding ethical principles and procedures assists a researcher in preventing abuses that could occur and helps outline his or her responsibilities as an investigator.

Practice on Chapter Seven

Section 1: Core Principles

1. A researcher who is an expert in the educational system conducts a study on a new medical procedure. Which ethical principle is primarily violated?

A) Integrity

B) Social Responsibility

C) Professional Competence

D) Respect for People’s Rights

2. Which ethical principle demands honesty, trustworthiness, and commitment to never putting the security of others at risk?

A) Professional Competence

B) Integrity

C) Social Responsibility

D) Professional Responsibility

3. A researcher has designed a study to explore dietary habits; however, he or she decides to exclude participants who eat pork because of his or her own personal religious beliefs. Which principle is being ignored?

A) Social Responsibility

B) Professional Competence

C) Integrity

D) Respect for People's Rights, Dignity, and Diversity

4. A researcher will usually ensure that the benefits of their study to society outweigh any minor costs or inconveniences to individual participants. Which approach to ethics does this best match?

A) Deontology

B) Ethical Scepticism

C) Utilitarianism

D) Integrity

4- Section 2: Informed Consent

1. What is the most important thing that must be disclosed to a participant while obtaining informed consent?

A) The opinion of the researcher on the issue.

B) The exact date the research is going to be published

C) A description of possible physical or psychological hazards

D) The names of all other participants

2. Informed consent, according to the chapter, is not necessary:

A) If the researcher forgets to ask for it.

B) If the research concern is something very ordinary in life.

C) **Obtaining consent would affect the fundamental outcome of the research, for example, a placebo study.**

D) Participants are students in the class of the researcher.

3. What is the required agreement by the child in research involving minors after the parent has given consent?

A) A Contract

B) Signature on the main consent form

C) Assent

D) Active consent

4. What is the major concern regarding the use of passive consent in educational research?

A) It is costlier than active consent.

B) It assumes non-response means agreement to participate.

C) It ensures a biased sample.

D) It requires the researcher to do more paperwork.

5- Section 3: Misconduct and Data Handling

1. Which of the following actions constitutes research misconduct?

A) Obtaining a participant's consent to utilise their already available records.

B) Publish unexpected findings that contradict a theory.

C) Removing real data points to fit the results into a hypothesis.

D) Keeping information about participants in a place securely locked.

2. A researcher promises participants that their data will be kept "strictly confidential" and their names will not be revealed in any publications. Which ethical practice does this demonstrate?

A) Anonymity

B) Assent

C) Confidentiality

D) Social Responsibility

Chapter Eight

Importance of Ethics in Research

8.1.Adhering to Ethical Norms

Ethics, often used interchangeably with morals, is a framework of rules for discerning right from wrong. This can be observed in widely recognised principles such as the Golden Rule, professional guidelines like the Hippocratic Oath, religious doctrines including the Ten Commandments ("Do unto others as you would have them do unto you"), a code of professional conduct like the Hippocratic Oath ("First of all, do no harm"), a religious creed like the Ten Commandments ("Thou Shalt not kill..."), and philosophical teachings like those of Confucius. The predominant definition of ethics is that it constitutes the norms of conduct that differentiate between acceptable and unacceptable behaviour.

Ethical norms are typically learned and internalised during socialisation within the family and other institutions, such as schools. Although the process of moral development starts early, it continues throughout life. Because these norms have become so deeply ingrained, one may be inclined to consider them a matter of plain common sense; yet the fact that so many ethical controversies arise underscores how different individuals interpret, apply, and prioritise these norms in light of their personal values and life experiences.

Most societies also have **legal rules** that govern behaviour, but **ethical norms** tend to be broader and more informal than laws. Although most societies use laws to enforce widely accepted moral standards and ethical and legal rules use similar concepts, it is important to remember that ethics and law are not the same. **An action may be legal but unethical or illegal but ethical.** We can also use ethical concepts and principles to criticise, evaluate, propose, or interpret laws. Indeed, in the last century, many social reformers urged citizens to disobey laws in order to protest what they regarded as immoral or unjust laws. Peaceful civil disobedience is an ethical way of expressing political viewpoints.

However, another sense of "ethics" denotes the academic fields that study standards of conduct, such as philosophy, theology, and law. Ethics can also be understood methodologically as a way of framing questions about contested problems. Whereas an economist might frame questions regarding global warming in terms of the relative costs and benefits of policies, an environmental ethicist would examine the values and principles at stake.

Many different disciplines, institutions, and professions have **norms** for behaviour that suit their particular aims and goals. These **norms** also help members of the discipline to coordinate their actions or activities and to establish the public's trust of the discipline. For instance, ethical norms govern conduct in medicine, law, engineering, and business. Ethical norms also serve the aims or goals of research and apply to people who conduct scientific research or other scholarly or creative activities. There is even a specialised discipline, research ethics, which studies these norms.

There are several reasons why it is important to adhere to ethical norms in research. First, **norms promote the aims of research**, such as knowledge, truth, and avoidance of error. For example, **prohibitions against fabricating, falsifying, or misrepresenting research data promote the truth and avoid error.** Second, since research often involves a great deal of cooperation and coordination among many different people in different disciplines and institutions, **ethical standards promote the values that are essential to collaborative work, such as trust, accountability, mutual respect, and fairness**. For example, many ethical norms in research, such as guidelines for authorship, copyright and patenting policies, data sharing policies, and confidentiality rules in peer review, are designed to protect intellectual property interests while encouraging collaboration. Most researchers want to receive credit for their contributions and do not want to have their ideas stolen or disclosed prematurely. Third, **many of the ethical norms help to ensure that researchers can be held accountable to the public.** For instance, federal policies on research misconduct, conflicts of interest, the human subjects

protections, and animal care and use are necessary in order to make sure that researchers who are funded by public money can be held accountable to the public. Fourth, **ethical norms in research also help to build public support for research.** People more likely to fund research project if they can trust the quality and integrity of research. Finally, **many of the norms of research promote a variety of other important moral and social values, such as social responsibility, human rights, and animal welfare, compliance with the law, and health and safety.** Ethical lapses in research can significantly harm human and animal subjects, students, and the public. For example, a researcher who fabricates data in a clinical trial may harm or even kill patients, and a researcher who fails to abide by regulations and guidelines relating to radiation or biological safety may jeopardise his health and safety or the health and safety of staff and students .

8.2.Codes and Policies for Research Ethics

Given the importance of ethics for the conduct of research, it should come as no surprise that many different professional associations, government agencies, and universities have adopted specific codes, rules, and policies relating to research ethics. Many government agencies, such as the National Institutes of Health (NIH), the National Science Foundation (NSF), the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), and the US Department of Agriculture (USDA) have ethics rules for funded researchers. Other influential research ethics policies include the Uniform Requirements for Manuscripts Submitted to Biomedical Journals (International Committee of Medical Journal Editors), the Chemist's Code of Conduct (American Chemical Society), Code of Ethics (American Society for Clinical Laboratory Science) Ethical Principles of Psychologists (American Psychological Association), Statements on Ethics and Professional Responsibility (American Anthropological Association), Statement on Professional Ethics (American Association of University Professors), the Nuremberg Code and the Declaration of Helsinki (World Medical Association).

The following is a rough and general summary of some ethical principles that various codes address:

Honesty

Strive for honesty in all scientific communications. Honestly report data, results, methods and procedures, and publication status. Do not fabricate, falsify, or misrepresent data. Do not deceive colleagues, granting agencies, or the public.

Objectivity

Strive to avoid bias in experimental design, data analysis, data interpretation, peer review, personnel decisions, grant writing, expert testimony, and other aspects of research where objectivity is expected or required. Avoid or minimise bias or self-deception. Disclose personal or financial interests that may affect research.

Integrity

Keep your promises and agreements; act with sincerity; strive for consistency of thought and action.

Carefulness

Avoid careless errors and negligence; carefully and critically examine your own work and the work of your peers. Keep good records of research activities, such as data collection, research design, and correspondence with agencies or journals.

Openness

Share data, results, ideas, tools, resources. Be open to criticism and new ideas. Respect for Intellectual Property. Honour patents, copyrights, and other forms of intellectual property. Do not use unpublished data, methods, or results without permission. Give credit where credit

is due. Give proper acknowledgement or credit for all contributions to research. Never plagiarize.

Confidentiality

Protect confidential communications, such as papers or grants submitted for publication, personnel records, trade or military secrets, and patient records.

Responsible Publication

Publish in order to advance research and scholarship, not to advance just your own career. Avoid wasteful and duplicative publication.

Responsible Mentoring

Help to educate, mentor, and advise students. Promote their welfare and allow them to make their own decisions. Know and obey relevant laws and institutional and governmental policies.

Animal Care

Show proper respect and care for animals when using them in research. Do not conduct unnecessary or poorly designed animal experiments.

Human Subjects Protection

When conducting research on human subjects, minimise harms and risks and maximise benefits; respect human dignity, privacy, and autonomy; take special precautions with vulnerable populations; and strive to distribute the benefits and burdens of research fairly.

Adapted from Shamoo, A. and Resnik D. 2009. Responsible Conduct of Research, (2nd ed). (New York: Oxford University Press).

Practice on Chapter Eight

Section 1: True or False (Understanding Key Concepts)

Read each statement below. Based on Chapter 8.1, decide if the statement is true or false.

1. Ethics and morals are totally different concepts; they are never used interchangeably.

True

False

2. An action that is legal can sometimes be considered unethical.

True

False

3. Ethical norms are normally set and learned solely through laws passed by governments.

True

False

4. The major aim of ethical norms within collaborative research is for all the researchers to protect their ideas and never share data.

True

False

5. Perhaps one of the more significant reasons for following norms of ethical conduct in research involves imposing accountability to the public and the public trust.

True

False

Section 2: Matching (Codes and Policies for Research Ethics)

Match the specific action/behaviour on the left with the general ethical principle it aligns with from the list on the right, then list the principles.

Action/Behaviour	Relevant Ethical Norm
1. Reporting all results exactly as measured, even if they contradict your theory.	[D] Honesty
2. Re-reading the drafts of your paper several times to avoid simple mistakes.	[F] Carefulness
3. Declining to review a grant application from a close friend or relative.	[C] Objectivity
4. Citing every source you use in your paper and obtaining permission before using unpublished data.	[B] Respect for Intellectual Property
5. Ensuring that a student who made a significant contribution to a project is named as co-author.	[G] Responsible Mentoring
6. Not sharing private patient data with any individual outside of the authorised research team.	[E] Confidentiality

Principles List:
A. Integrity
B. Intellectual Property Respect
C. Objectivity

D. Honesty
E. Confidentiality
F. Carefulness
G. Responsible Mentoring

Section 3: Short Answer (Application of Principles)

Answer the following questions using information from the chapter.

1. Briefly explain the difference between ethics and laws, using the explanation from the chapter – one is broader/informal, the other is formal/enforced.

Laws are formal rules enforcing some moral standards while ethical norms usually are more informal and broader than laws. Therefore, actions can be legal and at the same time unethical.

2. What, according to Section 8.1, is the potential consequence of an ethical lapse regarding health and safety guidelines by a researcher? Give two examples of harm mentioned in the text.

Answers should indicate that they could substantially harm human and animal subjects, students, and the public, for example, by harming or killing patients in a trial, or jeopardizing health and safety by exposure to radiation or biological hazards.

3. Why is “Openness” an important ethical norm in research collaborations?

Discussion of data, results, ideas, and tools helps to coordinate various actions by different persons/institutions and encourages collaboration and trust.

Chapter Nine

Ethical Decision Making in Research

However, as helpful as they may be, guidelines in general, and rules, policies, and principles in particular, do not have an answer for everything. As in any set of guidelines, sometimes they do conflict and you often have to work out what they are trying to say. That's why it is essential for researchers to learn how to apply the rules, exercise good judgement, and make decisions about what is the right thing to do. Usually, the ethical decision is self-evident. For example, consider the following situations:

Case 1:

The research protocol for a study of a drug on hypertension requires the administration of the drug at different doses to 50 laboratory mice, with chemical and behavioural tests to determine toxic effects. Tom has almost finished the experiment for Dr. Q. He has only 5 mice left to test. However, he really wants to finish his work in time to go to Florida on spring break with his friends, who are leaving tonight. He has injected the drug in all 50 mice but has not completed all of the tests. He, therefore, decides to extrapolate from the 45 completed results to produce the 5 additional results.

Many different research ethics policies would hold that Tom has acted unethically by fabricating data. If this study were sponsored by a federal agency, such as the NIH, his actions would constitute a form of research misconduct, which the government defines as "fabrication, falsification, or plagiarism" (or FFP). Actions that nearly all researchers classify as unethical are viewed as misconduct. It is important to remember, however, that misconduct occurs only when researchers intend to deceive: honest errors related to sloppiness, poor record keeping, miscalculations, bias, self-deception, and even negligence do not constitute misconduct. In

addition, reasonable disagreements about research methods, procedures, and interpretations do not constitute research misconduct. Consider the following case:

Case 2:

Dr. T has just discovered a mathematical error in a paper that has been accepted for publication in a journal. The error does not affect the overall results of his research, but it is potentially misleading. The journal has just gone to press, so it is too late to catch the error before it appears in print. In order to avoid embarrassment, Dr. T decides to ignore the error. Dr. T's error is not misconduct nor is his decision to take no action to correct the error. Most researchers, as well as many different policies and codes, including ECU's policies, would say that Dr. T should tell the journal about the error and consider publishing a correction or errata. Failing to publish a correction would be unethical because it would violate norms relating to honesty and objectivity in research.

There are many other activities that the government does not define as "misconduct" but which are still regarded by most researchers as unethical. These are called "other deviations" from acceptable research practices and include:

- Publishing the same paper in two different journals without telling the editors.
- Submitting the same paper to different journals without telling the editors.
- Not informing a collaborator of your intent to file a patent in order to make sure that you are the sole inventor.
- Including a colleague as an author on a paper in return for a favour even though the colleague did not make a serious contribution to the paper.
- Discussing with your colleagues confidential data from a paper that you are reviewing for a journal.

- Trimming outliers from a data set without discussing your reasons in paper.
- Using an inappropriate statistical technique in order to enhance the significance of your research.
- Bypassing the peer review process and announcing your results through a press conference without giving peers adequate information to review your work.
- Conducting a review of the literature that fails to acknowledge the contributions of other people in the field or relevant prior work.
- Stretching the truth on a grant application in order to convince reviewers that your project will make a significant contribution to the field.
- Stretching the truth on a job application or curriculum vitae.
- Giving the same research project to two graduate students in order to see who can do it the fastest.
- Overworking, neglecting, or exploiting graduate or post-doctoral students.
- Failing to keep good research records.
- Failing to maintain research data for a reasonable period of time.
- Making derogatory comments and personal attacks in your review of author's submission.
- Promising a student a better grade for sexual favours
- Using a racist epithet in the laboratory.
- Making significant deviations from the research protocol approved by your institution's Animal Care and Use.

- Committee or Institutional Review Board for Human Subjects Research without telling the committee or the board.
- Not reporting an adverse event in a human research experiment.
- Wasting animals in research.
- Exposing students and staff to biological risks in violation of your institution's biosafety rules.
- Rejecting a manuscript for publication without even reading it.
- Sabotaging someone's work.
- Stealing supplies, books, or data.
- Rigging an experiment so you know how it will turn out.
- Making unauthorised copies of data, papers, or computer programmes.
- Owning over $10,000 in stock in a company that sponsors your research and not disclosing this financial interest.
- Deliberately overestimating the clinical significance of a new drug in order to obtain economic benefits.

These actions would be regarded as unethical by most scientists and some might even be illegal. Most of these would also violate different professional ethics codes or institutional policies. However, they do not fall into the narrow category of actions that the government classifies as research misconduct. Indeed, there has been considerable debate about the definition of "research misconduct" and many researchers and policy makers are not satisfied with the government's narrow definition that focuses on FFP. However, given the huge list of potential offenses that might fall into the category "other serious deviations," and the practical problems

with defining and policing these other deviations, it is understandable why government officials have chosen to limit their focus .

Finally, situations frequently arise in research in which different people disagree about the proper course of action and there is no broad consensus about what should be done. In these situations, there may be good arguments on both sides of the issue and different ethical principles may conflict. These situations create difficult decisions for research known as ethical dilemmas. Consider the following case:

Case 3:

Dr. Wexford is the principal investigator of a large, epidemiological study on the health of 5,000 agricultural workers. She has an impressive dataset that includes information on demographics, environmental exposures, diet, genetics, and various disease outcomes such as cancer, Parkinson's disease (PD), and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS). She has just published a paper on the relationship between pesticide exposure and PD in a prestigious journal. She is planning to publish many other papers from her dataset. She receives a request from another research team that wants access to her complete dataset. They are interested in examining the relationship between pesticide exposures and skin cancer. Dr. Wexford was planning to conduct a study on this topic.

Dr. Wexford faces a difficult choice. On the one hand, the ethical norm of openness obliges her to share data with the other research team. Her funding agency may also have rules that oblige her to share data. On the other hand, if she shares data with the other team, they may publish results that she was planning to publish, thus depriving her (and her team) of recognition and priority. It seems that there are good arguments on both sides of this issue and Dr. Wexford needs to take some time to think about what she should do. One possible option is to share data, provided that the investigators sign a data use agreement. The agreement could define allowable uses of the data, publication plans, authorship, etc.

The following **are some step that researchers**, such as Dr. Wexford, can take to deal with ethical dilemmas in research:

What is the problem or issue?

It is always important to get a clear statement of the problem. In this case, the issue is whether to share information with the other research team.

What is the relevant information?

Many bad decisions are made as a result of poor information. To know what to do, Dr. Wexford needs to have more information concerning such matters as university or funding agency policies that may apply to this situation, the team's intellectual property interests, the possibility of negotiating some kind of agreement with the other team, whether the other team also has some information it is willing to share, etc. Will the public/science be better served by the additional research?

What are the different options?

People may fail to see different options due to a limited imagination, bias, ignorance, or fear. In this case, there may be another choice besides 'share' or 'don't share,' such as 'negotiate an agreement.'

How do ethical codes or policies as well as legal rules apply to these different options?

The university or funding agency may have policies on data management that apply to this case. Broader ethical rules, such as openness and respect for credit and intellectual property, may also apply to this case. Laws relating to intellectual property may be relevant.

Are there any people who can offer ethical advice?

It may be useful to seek advice from a colleague, a senior researcher, your department chair, or anyone else you can trust. In the case, Dr. Wexford might want to talk to her supervisor and research team before making a decision.

After considering these questions, a person facing an ethical dilemma may decide to ask more questions, gather more information, explore different options, or consider other ethical rules. However, at some point he or she will have to make a decision and then take action. Ideally, a person who makes a decision in an ethical dilemma should be able to justify his or her decision to himself or herself, as well as colleagues, administrators, and other people who might be affected by the decision. He or she should be able to articulate reasons for his or her conduct and should consider the following questions in order to explain how he or she arrived at his or her decision:

- Which choice could stand up to further publicity and scrutiny?
- Which choice could you not live with?
- Think of the wisest person you know. What would he or she do in this situation?
- Which choice would be the most just, fair, or responsible?
- Which choice will probably have the best overall consequences?

After considering all of these questions, one still might find it difficult to decide what to do. If this is the case, then it may be appropriate to consider others' ways of making the decision, such as going with one's gut feeling, seeking guidance through prayer or meditation, or even flipping a coin. Endorsing these methods in this context need not imply that ethical decisions are irrational or that these other methods should be used only as a last resort. The main point is that human reasoning plays a pivotal role in ethical decision-making but there are limits to its ability to solve all ethical dilemmas in a finite amount of time.

Promoting Ethical Conduct in Science

Many of you may be wondering why you are required to have training in research ethics. You may believe that you are highly ethical and know the difference between right and wrong. You would never fabricate or falsify data or plagiarise. Indeed, you also may believe that most of your colleagues are highly ethical and that there is no ethics problem in research.

If you feel this way, relax. No one is accusing you of acting unethically. Indeed, the best evidence we have shown that misconduct is a very rare occurrence in research, although there is considerable variation among various estimates. The rate of misconduct has been estimated to be as low as 0.01% of researchers per year (based on confirmed cases of misconduct in federally funded research) to as high as 1% of researchers per year (based on self-reports of misconduct on anonymous surveys). See Shamoo and Resnik (2009), cited previously.

Clearly, it would be useful to have more data on this topic, but so far there is no evidence that science has become ethically corrupt. However, even if misconduct is rare, it can have a tremendous impact on research. Consider an analogy with crime: it does not take many murders or rapes in a town to erode the community's sense of trust and increase the community's fear and paranoia. The same is true with the most serious crimes in science, i.e., fabrication, falsification, and plagiarism. However, most of the crimes committed in science probably are not tantamount to murder or rape, but ethically significant misdeeds that are classified by the government as 'deviations.' Moreover, many situations in research pose genuine ethical dilemmas.

Will training and education in research ethics help reduce the rate of misconduct in science? It is too early to tell. The answer to this question depends, in part, on how one understands the causes of misconduct. There are two main theories about why researchers commit misconduct. **According to the "bad apple" theory**, most scientists are highly ethical. Only researchers who are morally corrupt, economically desperate, or psychologically

disturbed commit misconduct. Moreover, only a fool would commit misconduct because science's peer review system and self-correcting mechanisms will eventually catch those who try to cheat the system. In any case, a course in research ethics will have little impact on "bad apples," one might argue. **According to the "stressful" or "imperfect" environment theory**, misconduct occurs because various institutional pressures, incentives, and constraints encourage people to commit misconduct, such as pressures to publish or obtain grants or contracts, career ambitions, the pursuit of profit or fame, poor supervision of students and trainees, and poor oversight of researchers. Moreover, defenders of the stressful environment theory point out that science's peer review system is far from perfect and that it is relatively easy to cheat the system. Erroneous or fraudulent research often enters the public record without being detected for years. To the extent that research environment is an important factor in misconduct, a course in research ethics is likely to help people get a better understanding of these stresses sensitise people to ethical concerns, and improve ethical judgment and decision making. Misconduct probably results from environmental and individual causes, i.e., when people who are morally weak, ignorant, or insensitive are placed in stressful or imperfect environments. In any case, a course in research ethics is useful in helping to prevent deviations from norms even if it does not prevent misconduct. Many of the deviations that occur in research may occur because researchers simply do not know or have never thought seriously about some of the ethical norms of research. For example, some unethical authorship practices probably reflect years of tradition in the research community that have not been questioned seriously until recently. If the director of a lab is named as an author on every paper that comes from his lab, even if he does not make a significant contribution, what could be wrong with that? That's just the way it's done, one might argue. If a drug company uses ghost-writers to write papers "authored" by its physician-employees, what is wrong about this practice? Ghost-writers help write all sorts of books these days, so what is wrong with using ghost-writers in research?

Another example where there may be some ignorance or mistaken traditions is conflicts of interest in research. A researcher may think that a "normal" or "traditional" financial relationship, such as accepting stock or a consulting fee from a drug company that sponsors her research, raises no serious ethical issues. Alternatively, perhaps a university administrator sees no ethical problem in taking a large gift with strings attached from a pharmaceutical company. Maybe a physician thinks that it is perfectly appropriate to receive a $300 finder's fee for referring patients into a clinical trial.

If "deviations" from ethical conduct occur in research as a result of ignorance or a failure to reflect critically on problematic traditions, then a course in research ethics may help reduce the rate of serious deviations by improving the researcher's understanding of ethics and by sensitising him or her to the issues.

Finally, training in research ethics should be able to help researchers grapple with ethical dilemmas by introducing researchers to important concepts, tools, principles, and methods that can be useful in resolving these dilemmas. In fact, the issues have become so important that the NIH and NSF have mandated training in research ethics for graduate students.

Adapted from Resnik, D. B. (2024, December 23). What is ethics in research & why is it important? National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences.

Practice on Chapter Nine

Section 1: Case Analysis and Justification (focuses on ambiguity and decision making).

- Navigating an Ethical Dilemma (Case 3 Analysis)

Students identify conflicting ethical principles in a gray-area case and design a compromise that attempts to balance competing norms like "openness" and "intellectual property protection".

- Ethical or Legal? A Quick Sort

Students classify behaviours, such as "paying taxes," "citing sources," as primarily ethical or legal or both, to reinforce one of the chapter's main points: that the two are not the same.

- The "Misconduct vs. Unethical" Sorting Challenge

Students would classify unethical behaviours as falling specifically under the narrow "Misconduct (FFP)" category or the broader category "Other Deviation," with explanation/justification of the categorisation based on intent to deceive.

Section 2: Critical Thinking and Application

- The "Bad Apple vs. Stressful Environment" Debate

Students debate two competing theories for why misconduct occurs and use evidence from the text to argue whether ethics training is useful for "morally corrupt" people or for sensitising people to "institutional pressures."

- Accountability Check-in

Have students select one ethical rule, for example "Do not fabricate data", and indicate which of the five reasons for ethics promoting the truth, building trust, accountability, etc. are supported by obeying that rule.

Section 3: Multiple Choice and Short Answer

1. Which of the following actions is considered research misconduct according to the government's definition (FFP)?

A) Overworking a graduate student.

B) Making an honest and significant mathematical mistake in a complex calculation.

C) Fabricating data to produce five additional results for the experiment.

D) Publishing the same paper in two different journals without informing editors.

2. True or False: An act can be illegal yet ethical; for example, peaceful civil disobedience

True

3. According to the "Stressful/Imperfect Environment Theory," why does misconduct occur?

A) Only researchers who are morally corrupt commit misconduct.

B) Institutional pressures, incentives, and constraints encourage people to commit misconduct.

C) The peer-review system is perfect; it catches all the cheaters.

D) Ethics courses will have little impact on behaviour.

4. When an ethical dilemma cannot be solved by reasoning, what is an acceptable method of "last resort"?

Answer should include going with a gut feeling, prayer/meditation, or tossing a coin.

Section 4: Case Study

Read the following scenario and answer the questions that follow it, using concepts from the chapter.

Scenario: Dr. Smith is serving on a study section for a federal agency that is reviewing grant applications. She realises that an applicant has not cited several key papers from a rival laboratory that developed a similar method years earlier. Dr. Smith is aware that this oversight makes the applicant's project look more novel and significant than it actually is. She also knows that the director of this rival laboratory tends to exaggerate their own findings.

Questions:

1. What ethical norm is most clearly transgressed by the applicant's failure to cite relevant prior work?

   Answer: Respect for Intellectual Property (or Honesty/Integrity).

2. Does applicant's action meets the definition of "research misconduct" as per FFP? Briefly explain your answer.

   Answer: Probably not misconduct, but an "other deviation." It is a failure to acknowledge contributions, but likely not explicit plagiarism or falsification with intent to deceive in the narrow, legal sense.

3. If Dr. Smith decides to reject the paper just because she does not like the director of the rival lab, what ethical norm is she violating?

   Answer: Objectivity (or Integrity/Fairness).

Chapter Ten

Plagiarism

Introduction

While presenting and publishing any document, it is imperative to ensure its uniqueness and credibility attempts of manipulation, fabrication of the data, experiments, procedures, observations and results lead to issues of misconduct, which are unethical.

Plagiarism is another type of misconduct. It may be illegal for some jurisdictions and not everyone is educated about it.

The Josephson Institute Centre for youth Ethics surveyed 43,000 high school students in public and private schools and found that:

- Fifty nine (59) % of high school students have admitted cheating on a test during last year.
- One out of three of high school students admitted using the internet to plagiarise an assignment.

This report was published in June 2017(https://www.plagiarism.org/article/plagiar ism- facts-and-stats).

10.1.Definition of Plagiarism

Plagiarism is the act of claiming credit or ownership of someone else's work; it has been a common occurrence since the beginning of human life. The word "plagiary" originated in the first century AD and it involves a Roman poet, Martial, who complained that another poet had "kidnapped his/her verses". It was first used in English in 1601 by Ben Jonson to describe someone guilty of literary theft.

According to Merriam-Webster's Online Dictionary, plagiarism is an act of fraud that involves

both stealing someone else's work and lying about it afterward. To plagiarise means to:

- Steal and pass off the ideas of another as your own.
- Using another work or idea without crediting him or her.
- Commit a literary theft.
- Present an idea or product derived from an existing source.

Note that copying words or sentences from others' work without citing or crediting them including incorrect information about the source, changing the words but copying the sentence structure are all examples of plagiarism.

10.2.Examples of Plagiarism

A) A researcher working on a problem in biomedical imaging uses "Delaunay Triangulation" to identify overlapping chromosomes and publishes his contribution in a reputed journal. Another researcher working in the domain of automation of manufacturing process copies just one word "Delaunay Triangulation" and publishes an algorithm for extrication of overlapping using gears. Only one word is plagiarised in this case, but it is the key word.

B) Plagiarism occurs when a postgraduate student copies the aim, objectives, and the hypothesis from another report. In addition, the number of the words copied are smaller than the total. This is considered plagiarism because the content copied is crucial to the overall dissertation. Similarly, researchers may use a published survey paper as a chapter in their own theses, even though it is not a critical factor. The dictionary meaning of the word "substantial" is not always applicable from the perspective of plagiarism but it depends on the significance of the text that is copied, i.e., images, photographs, tables and so on.

10.3.Reasons for Resorting to Plagiarism

There are reasons for people's plagiarism whether intentionally or unintentionally end up

cheating:

1. Human nature: people tend to postpone their assignments and tasks to the last moment and so they end up running out of time. Procrastinators avoid their work simply because of their indiscipline, their hidden fears and perpetual struggle against themselves. With consistent efforts, it is possible to overcome the habit of procrastination.
2. People lack knowledge about proper citation. They often use easily available information without citation.
3. Students are not fully aware about plagiarism and its consequences.
4. Overconfidence can lead to individuals committing plagiarism, even when they know their content was not submitted to plagiarism detection tools or uploaded on other internet sources.
5. Negative emotions and competitive urges can lead to students plagiarising without any serious efforts.

Colleges and universities are educating society about plagiarism through online courses and policies. This can lead to loss of personal pride and fabricated achievements.

10.4.Types of Plagiarism

These are some of the types of plagiarism that students may resort to when doing research.

10.4.1. Plagiarism of Words

A direct plagiarism; direct use of the entire statement/definition, where the writer copies and pastes the same structure, or a line or two in a row directly from the original source without putting quotation marks or including in-text citation or sufficient acknowledgment.

10.4.2. Stitching Sources: (Also called **Potluck Plagiarism)**

An attempt to hide or disguise plagiarism by mixing and matching key information derived from various sources. The next step is trying to adjust the sentences taken from these sources so that the final product looks fitting together with keeping and maintaining the same original wording, language and structure and presenting them as your own without proper credit. However, the final result is not integrated smoothly.

10.4.3. Patchwork Plagiarism

The writer borrows many phrases from different sources identical to the original source and inserts or weaves them together with his own words randomly to form a cohesive new text.

10.4.4. Self-Plagiarism (Also called **the Self-stealer)**

The concept of this type is that it happens! You can even steal from your own works, not only those of others. It represents stealing from your own ideas, phrases or data that you already published or submitted before. It is not acceptable for the reason that a previous work is presented as a new one without citation and this can mislead readers. For example: reusing content from an essay you wrote two years ago about the impact of social media on the mental health of Gen Z in a research you are doing now on the change that social media has brought between the past decade and the recent one.

10.4.5. Cyber and Digital Plagiarism

Copying and downloading content found in online articles, websites, videos and multimedia without acknowledgement or proper citation.

How to avoid: You need to respect copyright and intellectual property rights.

Examples: Translating someone else's work into a different language using online translation tools and presenting it as an original content / buying essays found on online platforms and submitting them as your own work without citation.

10.4.6. Accidental Plagiarism

While intentional plagiarism is about taking someone else's work and claiming it as your own and stealing ideas on purpose without citation, accidental plagiarism occurs when you do not have enough knowledge or fail to understand the correct way of citation or you do not even realise you are plagiarising. The ignorance in accidental plagiarism is intolerant and considered as ethical violation

Examples: Forgetting to cite a quote or to put quotation marks.

Improper paraphrasing: You might unintentionally use the same words or phrases/misunderstanding a given information and paraphrasing it in a different meaning with citation; this will lead to plagiarism because your paraphrasing and the original source are not identical.

10.4.7. Plagiarism of Authorship

It is related to the concept of plagiarism as a whole. It is claiming to be the original author of research findings, data and articles of another author and publishing the work under your name while neglecting the original author completely and pretending like it is a ghost.

Plagiarism of Ideas

The Basic and general idea of plagiarism. It involves stealing other people's ideas and claiming them as your own creativity. Here are some examples where a temptation to in human resource development. In A. L. Wilson & E. R. Hayes (Eds.), *Handbook of adult and continuing education* (pp. 278-293). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Example 1: Wrong version

Workforce development is more closely linked to job performance than to larger

educational goals. Some business environments are inhospitable to learning and business goals fail to plagiarize ideas in academic writing occurs: online sources, stealing ideas from your classmate's work without their permission (collusion),books and journals, essay mills, failing to credit your classmate's contributions in group work assignments, social media.

6.4.8. Reuse of Programming Code

Programming code: set of instructions written by a programmer using computer programming languages, it is the foundation for software creation.

It is considered a form of plagiarism when the source code is copied or adapted without citing or referencing. Using another's source code with citation or reference will save you from plagiarism. However, it is preferred to create your own code to get extra marks, and to expand your learning and creativity.

Examples of Correct vs. Wrong Versions of Citation

Original source material

Business plays a mammoth role in workforce development, but many environments are inhospitable to learning, and business goals may fail to serve the learner. The competitive global economy has caused employers to take a greater interest in human resource development because it is through people, not technology, that competitive edge is gained.

Source:

Bierema, L.L. (2000). Moving beyond performance paradigms serve the learner, although competitive edge is gained with the human capital and not with technological advances.

Reference

Bierema, L. L. (2000). Moving beyond performance paradigms in human resource development. In A. L. Wilson & E. R. Hayes (Eds.), Handbook of adult and continuing

education (pp. 278-293). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Example 2: Correct Version

"Workforce development" is more closely linked to job performance than to larger educational goals. Some business environments are "inhospitable to learning" and business goals "fail to serve the learner", although "competitive edge" is gained with the human capital and not with technological advances (Bierema, 2000, p. 278).

Reference

Bierema, L. L. (2000). Moving beyond performance paradigms in human resource development. In A. L. Wilson & E. R. Hayes (Eds.), Handbook of adult and continuing education (pp. 278-293). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

10.5.Plagiarism in Various Fields and Its Consequences

10.5.1. Music Industry

Plagiarism in the music industry is the imitation of copyrighted music that is legally protected under Music Plagiarism Law without permission and claiming it as your own.

Plagiarism in music industry occurs due to:

4. Lack of creativity since a good music composition requires creativity and efforts.
5. The greed for popularity and gaining money since some imitated songs have gained more popularity than the original ones.
6. It may even happen accidentally for need of inspiration

It can take different ways: musical idea (melody imitation or the theme), reusing lyrics, sampling, which is stealing a portion from an original song or sound recording and mixing it with a different song.

Plagiarism in music industry leads to lawsuits, and causes damage to the reputation and fame of

the original artists.

International Cases of Plagiarism in Music Industry

- **Case 1: Lana Del Rey Vs. Radiohead**

Lana was accused of copying Radiohead's song "creep" in her song "get free", and their publishers claimed finding similarities between the two songs although Lana's acknowledgment of the influence and giving the credit to Radiohead.

- **Case 2: George Harrison vs. Chiffons**

George was sued for finding similarities between his song "my sweet lord" and Chiffon's "he's so fine" which resulted in a financial settlement

10.6.Plagiarism in Academia

Plagiarism in academic writing is taken seriously and has severe consequences because creativity, critical thinking and ethics are one of the most encouraged key characteristics in university students. Students face several challenges in avoiding plagiarism because it is not an easy task and can be even a tricky one to present information taken from a previous work, source in a creative way and original way with acknowledgment. Nevertheless, this process has a beneficial side; it helps in keeping you relevant and up-to-date in the domain that interests you, developing your own ideas, voice and judgements, which will lead you to academic growth, and helps in the uniqueness and creativity in presenting your different findings.

Universities around the world put emphasis on the seriousness of plagiarism guidelines, reputed institutions such as The Open University, University of Oxford, and The University of Cambridge deal with plagiarism harshly with serious penalties and take this act as an offense. To detect plagiarism the majority of universities use plagiarism detection software, The Open University follows text comparison software for example. Ten to fifteen percentages are considered acceptable but beyond 15 percent leads to academic penalties depending on the

percentage, they would lead either to mark reductions or expulsion.

To avoid academic penalties students need to consider plagiarism guidelines of their university.

10.7.Plagiarism in Journalism

The key values of journalism are integrity, truthfulness, accuracy, objectivity and public accountability. Therefore, plagiarism in this field leads to severe consequences for both the journalist and the news organisation:

1. Damaging the reputation and losing credibility among the public.
2. Lawsuits for intellectual property theft.
3. The end of the professional career.

Famous cases:

- Nada Behziz: an ex-reporter at The Bakersfield Californian, she was fired in 2005 for plagiarism in her article.
- Jayson Blair: a reporter for The New York Times, in 2003 an investigation revealed plagiarism and fabrication in around 36 of his articles

10.8.Software Used to Identify Plagiarism

After writing any paper or story, it is important to check if there is any plagiarism; plagiarism free paper is beneficial for the quality of your work the testing of plagiarism done by software. There are many tools are used for checking plagiarism. Software available online is of two types:

1. Paid plagiarism also divided into three types

A. Ithenticate, such as:

Turnitin

Urkund

Ithenticate Plagiarism: These are very famous software used in famous publications Elsevier and springer; it lets you upload different types like Microsoft work Pdf without any restrictions but your paper cannot be longer than 400 pages and the file should be under 100Mb.

Ithenticate offers some awesome features here's some of them:

- ❖ Plagiarism checking.
- ❖ Match report show you similarities between your work and other sources.
- ❖ Review report provide a comprehensive analysis of your work; major matches online support and guidance offers.
- ❖ Multiple use collaboration allows multiple people to work together on a document API organisation can integrate into their system.

Turnitin is a popular plagiarism checking used by universities and other organisations.

- When you submit a manuscript to Turnitin it checks it line by line.

It also calculates the percentage of similarities found if different papers are matched. It also lets users decide whether to save their work their work to the repository or not while urkund automatically saves without giving users a choice.

Urkund is used in Europe universities and colleges automated tool that checks your submitted document against three main sources.

The internet published materials and submitted students work.

By comparing your paper to these sources, he determines the percentage of plagiarism and generated a report.

Free plagiarism with modern technology and the internet we have access to a wealth of information stored in the cloud it is natural for people to search for information and used them in their research and studies however to avoid plagiarism there are several free software tools available online these tools help users check their work for any similarities or copying some popular ones include:

- ✓ **Dupli checker**
- ✓ **Copy leaks**
- ✓ **Paper rater**
- ✓ **Plagiarisma**
- ✓ **Plagiarism tracker.**

Dupli checker is the most effective free plagiarism detection tool registered users can do up to 50 scam per day, while unregistered users are limited to one search per day. These tools have their own rules; they mainly focus on checking text content for plagiarism but it is also important to check diagrams, images, and figures.

10.9.Plagiarism Policies

IEEE INSTITUTE OF ELECTRICAL AND ELECTRONICS ENGINEERS is a global organization and scientists who want to share their research and develop new technology.

When people submit their paper to IEEE they make sure to check for plagiarism. They use a strict plagiarism checker to make sure all papers are original. If a paper fails, the check it gets rejected the levels described in the section.

- Level 01..50 to 100 percent is copied. It is like taking a large portion of someone else and not acknowledge it.
- Level 02..20 to 50 percent of paper is copied. It is like taking a large portion of someone

else work and not acknowledge it.

- Level 03...less than 20 percent it is like taking individual elements like paragraphs sent without paper credit.
- Level 04..when someone improperly paraphrase it means they try to rephrase someone else work
- Level 05..when someone gives credit, but it is not clear which parts are from others it is important to show what you've created and what you have borrowed. SPRINGER is a publisher that uses software called ithenticate to check if submitted articles match existing content, while software helps identify similarities. this process help ensure the integrity of published articles , so it has the right to reject manuscript that involve copy right infringement this is especially true where there are repeat offenders on the use of offensive language editorial board of a springer journal can reject this kind of manuscript they have the authority to make that decision .

ELSEVIER follows some code of ethics, which includes but not limited to authorship of the paper to be considered as an author you need to meet three criteria:

6. Made significant contribution to the study helped in writing the article approve the final version before publishing.
7. Originality and plagiarism make sure that your work is original if you used other people work you need to cite.
8. Data access and preservation sometimes you may be asked to provide the raw data of your paper you should be prepared to share it.
9. Fundamental errors in published work if you discovered errors in your work, you need to inform the journal editor and work together to correct the paper.

10. When it comes to ethical consideration in research, there are a few things to keep in mind: If your work involves equipment or the use of animal or human subjects, you need to ensure protocols Elsevier has a helpful plagiarism fact sheet that outlines unethical actions related to plagiarism.

COMMITTEE OF PUBLISHING ETHICS COPE

This committees was created globally to empathizing the importance of ethics and integrity in publishing, it provides resources and support to scholarly journal editors, publishers, educational institutions.

GOVERNMENT RULES AND POLICIES

Government including in India are taking steps to ensure integrity in research. The ministry of human resources in India has been strict against cases of plagiarism to address plagiarism in higher education. The universities grants commission has introduced regulations to promote academic integrity and prevent plagiarism these regulations aim to encourage research and implement systems to detect plagiarism.

10.10. Techniques to Avoid Plagiarism

Referencing: acknowledge the sources whether published or unpublished.

Giving credit to the work of other writers guides readers with relevant sources and allows them to distinguish your work from reported literature. With referring to records, volumes, articles, newspapers and other documents in your work.

To properly cite references in an article, it is crucial to understand the difference between statements, facts, and opinions. For example, a well-known fact like “India celebrates its Independence day on 15th August” does not need referencing, but lesser known facts may require citation. There is no universally accepted agreement of common knowledge, so there is a need to cite source in uncertain cases. For example, Jwaharlal Nerhru, the first prime minister

of independent India delivered a speech on ‘Tryst with Destiny’ on 14/8/1947.

Quotations are indispensable for incorporating various statements of the speech and citations are obligatory. Text referencing is preferred for slogans in speeches. If the author finally concludes the assignment with his/her opinion and unique concluding remarks, referencing is definitely not expected. However, if the opinion (positive, negative or neutral) is formulated based on some survey or existing reports it is necessary to give due credit to the sources.

Reference list and bibliography are often used interchangeably which may not be accepted for some journals according to their policies. It is also necessary to understand the difference between citation and referencing. These terms are explained here:

1. **Citation:** it is an act of mentioning a specific source in the body of your paper. From the common styles (MLA, APA) which include year of publication and page number. In the text citation, when referring to seizeble chunk in the write-up, you may use round or square brackets or quotations.
2. **References:** it is a list of sources explicitly used in completing the write-up. It includes information of the author, journal, volume, and publication year.
3. **Bibliography**: it is the list of all references, which provided background information of the topic not explicitly mentioned in the manuscript.

The research paper should be well cited. If an existing concept is explained well, it should be enclosed within quotes and cited. Diagrams, images, and tables used in the article should be also acknowledged using acceptable referencing style.

A research paper should be balanced in academic arguments and written in concise manner and comprehensive analysis of the topic.

Paraphrasing: some of the literature on plagiarism consider Paraphrasing as a type of

plagiarism, whereas others describe it as a technique to avoid plagiarism. This section presents both the cases considering appropriate examples.

Paraphrasing is expressing an idea or contribution in one's own words or text by changing the words using synonyms.

Original Text

"Results-based instruction has been the theme of caustic discussions in numerous states and educational systems. The tumult amazed a few instructors who, follow-ing quite a while of hearing calls for "comes about" from political and business pioneers, accepted that most guardians and nationals would bolster a move to more unmistakable results and methods for surveying them. Maybe the lion's share of individuals do concur with the standards of OBE – or would in the event that they comprehended them – however exceptionally vocal commentators have how brought up enough issues about how OBE may function by and by to make questions among educated individuals from the general population about its allure. Should instruction be result based? Some may contend that it as of now is, to some degree. Almost all training organizations have objectives that apparently direct their work. At the point when instructors design educational programs or educators design exercises for their classes, they typically begin by clearing up the reasons" (Source: Curriculum Handbook: An Overview of Outcome Based Education, by Ron Brandt).

Unacceptable Paraphrase or Plagiarism

"Outcome-based education has been the subject of discordant discussions in many states and school systems. This surprised some of the educators because they assumed that society would appreciate the students being assessed on definite outcomes and means of assessing them. Perhaps the majority of people were in favor of the principles of OBE, however some concerns were also registered among the members of the public. There is also ongoing debate on the issue that is the education outcome based with supports in favor and against. Nevertheless all the institutes are driven by goals, purposes and objectives."

In the first example, the author attempts to summarize the original text by using synonyms. The original text is rearranged for uniqueness, resulting in modified version that does not reflect the author's ideas even if referenced it is still a case of plagiarism.

Acceptable Paraphrase

"Outcome Based Education (OBE) is emerging as an inevitable dimension in the education system demanding a complete shift of teaching-learning paradigm. Ron Brandth, in the Curriculum Handbook has presented an overview of "Outcome Based Education (OBE)." The author has presented various dimensions of OBE highlighting the importance of definite outcomes achieved by the students and measureable means of assessing them from the prospective of the parents and citizens. The author also clarifies the role of goals set by the respective education institute which defines the expected outcomes and obviously the corresponding objectives of the courses."

This example that demonstrates acceptable paraphrase involves acknowledging the sources and integrating the context of the original source, retaining the attribution to the original source. It is always important to provide footnotes and endnotes indicating the broader idea used. A genius writer uses multiple sources while paraphrasing providing further clarification.

*with the increasing need for paraphrasing and automation, the internet is filled with free online tools and software for automated paraphrasing and text rewriting. Some of them are listed here:

- https://paraphrasing-tool.com/
- http://www.paraphrasing-tool.org/
- https://www.prepostseo.com/free-online-paraphrasing-tool
- http://www.paraphrasing-tool.net/
- https://seomagnifier.com/online-paraphrasing-tool
- https://www.rewritertools.com/paraphrasing-tool

10.11. Tips and Strategies to Avoid Plagiarism

- You need to be aware of the different types and forms of plagiarism.
- Do not assume what you know is common knowledge.
- Do a deep and wide number of researches and experiments on the subject that interests you; doing researches on your subject based on the facts that you find while distinguishing the necessary information from the irrelevant ones will make you capable of writing your essay in an original and creative way with your own words, conclusions, and logical judgments.
- Learn how to properly cite sources and references following the required citation style.
- Improve your academic skills and keep yourself updated.
- Take permission from others and give them credit when you take large sections from

their texts.

- Read about plagiarism guidelines in your university and respect the terms of software licenses.
- Learn about the techniques of paraphrasing and summarising.
- Collaboration and collusion differ in purpose. You can benefit from collaboration (group projects, peer-to-peer learning) as it will help in sharing ideas and knowledge to improve your work. However, do not confuse it with collusion, which is sharing ideas with the intention of cheating and misleading others.
- If you are in doubt, consider using a plagiarism checker tool.

10.12. Creative Common License Organisation help people to share their work, provide free legal tools to make it easier for creators to allow others to use and build upon their work.

- CC are used when an author wants to give people the right to share, give author flexibility in how their work can be used.
- There are different types of CC created by CC non-profit organisations.
- CC is a way for teachers to make their work available without any restrictions put their work to public domain, which means any one can use their work for any purpose.

The first type is CREATIVE COMMON ATTRIBUTION CCBY.

People have chances to create things, as summaries include in the collection of work. The second type is CREATIVE COMMON ATTRIBUTION NON COMMERCIAL NO DERIVES CCBY.NC.ND.

For non commercial purposes, copy share articles they also can include it in their work. But they cannot modify it.

Summary

To conclude, intellectual theft is an ethical violation that involves presenting work or ideas from another source as one's own without correct citation; plagiaristic behaviour damages one's future and career, as well as academic penalties. To avoid it in your academic writing, it is necessary to acknowledge other's ideas, learn and use your academic skills, and do not hesitate to see guidance from your tutor, or organisations specialised in that.

Practice on Chapter Ten

Section 1: Multiple Choice

- Read each question carefully and select the best response based on the chapter material.

1. Plagiarism, according to Merriam-Webster's Online Dictionary as cited above, is an act of fraud that involves:

A) Stealing another's ideas only.

B) Only lying about the act afterward.

C) Both stealing someone else's work and lying about it afterwards.

D) Using only another work without a proper citation.

2. What type of plagiarism occurs when a writer borrows many phrases from different sources and weaves them together with their own words to form a new text?

A) Word Plagiarism

B) Patchwork Plagiarism

C) Sources Stitching -Potluck plagiarism

D) Plagiarism of Authorship

3. A student submits an essay to their ethics class that they wrote for a history class two years prior, making no significant changes and without citation. This would constitute:

A) Accidental Plagiarism

B) Cyber and Digital Plagiarism

C) Self-Plagiarism

D) Plagiarism of Ideas

4. The text claims that in deciding whether plagiarism has taken place, the dictionary meaning of "substantial" is less important than:

A) The plagiarism was committed either deliberately or unconsciously.

B) The student utilised a plagiarism detection tool.

C) The total number of words copied.

D) The importance of what was copied, such as images, aims, objectives.

Section 2: True/False

- Identify whether the statement is true or false according to the chapter material.

1. According to the chapter, procrastination is one of the primary human nature reasons people resort to plagiarism.

   True

2. Accidental plagiarism-by this, meaning a lack of knowledge about citation-is viewed differently and is entirely acceptable as an ethical violation.

   False

3. It is effective and acceptable to paraphrase by changing the words only in exactly the same sentence structure from an original source.

   False

Section 3: Scenario Analysis

- Read the scenario and answer the following questions.

Scenario: A biomedical researcher uses a two-word phrase, “Delaunay Triangulation”, to describe their algorithm in a published paper. A second researcher, in some unrelated manufacturing domain, copies the two-word phrase, without citation to describe their own algorithm.

- According to the chapter, Case A in Section 10.2, is this plagiarism? Why or why not?

Yes, this is plagiarism. The explanation should justify that the word/phrase is a “keyword” or “crucial content” to the methodology in the original work; therefore, because of the importance, it is plagiarized content, even though the word count is low.

- If the second researcher claimed they simply did not know they had to cite such a short phrase, what specific type of plagiarism would the text classify this as?

Answer: Accidental Plagiarism.

Section 4: Spot the Plagiarism Type Scenario Matching

Scenario Description	Plagiarism Type
A student submits an essay they wrote for a history class last year to their current ethics class without significant changes or citation.	Self-Plagiarism
A researcher copies a direct, two-sentence definition from a website into their paper without using quotation marks or citing the source.	Plagiarism of Words
A student copies paragraphs from three different websites, changes only a few adjectives and adverbs in each, and rearranges the paragraphs into a new paper.	Stitching Sources (Potluck)
A graduate student genuinely forgets to include citation information for one specific quote because they lost their notes during final edits.	Accidental Plagiarism
A lab director takes a master’s student’s entire dataset, analyses it herself, writes the paper, and publishes it under	Plagiarism of Authorship

her own name only.	
A student translates someone else's work using an online tool and presents the translated version as original content.	Cyber and Digital Plagiarism

Chapter Eleven

Research Trustworthiness

Research trustworthiness represents the quality of the qualitative and quantitative enquiry (Schwandt, 1997). To assure the rigour of the research, a set of evaluative criteria have been put in place. These criteria include dependability, credibility, transferability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 2007) for qualitative research and internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity for quantitative research. Threats to the research trustworthiness affect the findings of the undertaken research. For this reason, it is important to try to limit the threats to ensure the quality and goodness of the research.

Research trustworthiness refers to the appropriateness of the research tools, processes, and the data. It revolves around the adequacy of the research design for answering the inquiry's questions, the appropriateness of the sampling and data analysis, and the validity of the results and the conclusions vis-à-vis the sample and the context. Trustworthiness indicates consistency regarding the activities and events associated with the phenomenon as signified by the study results explored in the research (Golafshani, 2003). It helps in increasing transparency and decreasing the chance of research bias in research (Singh et al., 2014).

11.1.Quantitative Research Trustworthiness Criteria

This section deals with the trustworthiness criteria associated with the qualitative and quantitative research types and approaches. Mentioning how your research meets these criteria or how they are ensured is beneficial for the clarity of your writing and the strength of your approach.

11.1.1. Trustworthiness Criteria of Quantitative Research Internal Validity

Internal validity refers to the degree of confidence that the causal relationship being tested is trustworthy and not influenced by other factors or variables. Internal validity examines

whether the manner in which a study was designed, conducted, and analysed allows trustworthy answers to the research questions in the study. For example, improper randomisation and missing data can undermine the fidelity of the results and conclusions of your research.

Internal validity is based on judgment and is not a computed statistics. Internal validity examines the extent to which systematic error (bias) is present. Such systematic error can arise through selection bias, performance bias, detection bias, and attrition bias. If internal validity is compromised, it can occasionally be improved, for example, by a modified plan of analysis.

11.1.1.1. Key Issues for Internal Validity

Internal validity is concerned with the rigor of the study design. That is, the degree of control that you exert over potential extraneous variables. Controlling these variables minimizes the potential for alternative explanation and provides more confidence that the effects are generated or caused by the independent variables. There are several threats to internal research validity such as: history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, and selection.

- **History**

History becomes a threat when other factors (external to the conducted research) occur by virtue of the passage of time. For example, the reported effects of a one-year research to improve a virus immunity can be confounded by continuing research and medical errors carried out after the end of your research.

- **Maturation**

The maturation threat can occur when biological or psychological changes occur within your subjects. For example, a reported decrease in the contamination rate may be due to the growing herd immunity of people by time rather than the medication or vaccine given.

- **Testing**

This threat may occur when changes in test scores occur, not because of the intervention but because of the repeated testing. This can be an issue when researchers administer identical pre-tests and post-tests. For example, the improvement of students' responses and performance may be due to the repeated administration of the same quiz. That is, students simply learned to provide the right answers rather than truly demonstrating the level of their current performance.

- **Instrumentation**

This threat refers to how instruments are used in the study, which may cause a threat to **the internal validity** of that study. An instrumentation effect may occur in several ways. One way is through what is referred to as instrument decay. The procedure for administering the instrument changes over a period of time. For example, if a person is collecting data by making observations, **they may start looking for different things** over a period of time. This change can cause the results of the observations to change significantly.

Another way in which an instrument may decay is through **the fatigue of the person administering the instrumen**t. As the research is conducted, the data collector may get tired and then miss certain behaviours that are important for the study. A third type of threat to the instrumentation of a study is **the attitude of the subjects** toward the instrument. This can be caused by something such as test fatigue of students taking the instrument. The students may feel that they are being tested too often. This feeling could cause them to get tired of having to take another test and not do their best. This change in attitude could cause the results of the study to be biased.

11.1.1.2. Threats to Internal Validity

- **Selection Interaction**

This denotes the interaction of the selection threat with any of the previously mentioned

threats. The selection interaction is most commonly confronted with maturation. The selection maturation threat revolves around the assignment of subjects to groups in a way that relates to their maturation. For example, two groups of diabetic patients may have similar disease indicators at the beginning of the research, but a treatment effect can result if the researcher assigns a larger percentage of patients in whom the effect of maturation (progressive worsening disease) is more prevalent to the same group.

- **Diffusion or Imitation of Treatment**

Participants in one treatment group become familiar with the treatment of another group. They then either copy that treatment or are just otherwise affected by what they have learned. As such, they are no longer "naive" and this changes their behaviour. This will minimise or mask completely the difference between your groups in an experiment. We try to prevent this from happening by asking people to refrain from talking about the experiment with any other participant until the experiment is over.

11.1.1.3. External Validity

External validity refers to the extent to which results from a study can be applied (generalised) to other situations, groups or events. In other words, to what extent does the size or direction of a researched relationship remain stable in other contexts and among different samples? In an effort to measure precise effect sizes and control for confounding variables, many scholars use survey methods featuring hypothetical or retrospective reports, whereas others examine communication phenomena in sterile research labs. In addition, the findings of many social scientific studies are based on the responses of convenience samples consisting of college students and volunteers. While these studies contribute to the growing body of communication scholarship, concerns about their results' applicability to broader, more diverse populations of people in real-life contexts remain.

11.1.1.4. Key Issues with External Validity

- **Sampling**

The results of a well-designed social scientific communication study should be generalisable beyond its own participants. Campbell & Stanley (1966) explained that researchers may seek to (a) generalise their results to a wider group of people, (b) apply findings to a smaller group of people, or (c) make predictions about a single person or dyad. For example, imagine a researcher tested the efficacy of an intervention program that aimed to significantly reduce young teachers' communication apprehension. In its inaugural edition, 70 high school teachers from a wealthy school district participated in the study. Half of the sample completed the intervention program, and the other half did not. The results indicated that the communication apprehension of those who participated in the intervention program decreased significantly more than those in the control group. While the findings from the study are promising, are they replicable among young teachers who work in an impoverished school district? Will the intervention program be effective for older teachers? When a researcher begins to design a communication study, important methodological decisions must be made about the project's desired sample and sampling techniques, since they will affect its external validity (Hanasono, 2017).

While good in theory, it is very difficult to collect data from every single person in a population. Due to limited resources, time, and availability, most researchers opt to collect data strategically from a sample, which is a subset of a larger population. For example, some researchers depend on convenience samples of highly accessible people, such as students or individuals who regularly frequent online survey sites. This technique might ensure higher response rates and sample sizes, but associated research findings might not be representative of its population or generalizable beyond its participants. Other sampling techniques that use referral or relational connections to recruit participants, such as snowball and network sampling,

can limit studies' external validity, because people tend to recommend like-minded and similar people. In other words, snowball and network samples may limit the amount of variance in a study's sample and thus reduce its generalizability. Furthermore, volunteer samples can be problematic, as they tend to consist of individuals who are particularly invested or interested in the research study's topic. Finally, researchers must be wary of low response rates, as they may signal an increased likelihood of self-selected participation, and researchers should be careful of small sample sizes, as they may limit the ability to find meaningful patterns in the data that could then be generalised to other people and context.

To avoid these threats to external validity, researchers should aim to collect data from a sample that is representative of a particular population of interest and has limited bias. Researchers can employ random sampling techniques, where each member of a population has an equal opportunity to participate in the study. Using a slightly different approach, researchers may attain a proportional stratified sample so participants share similar characteristics of interest and are representative of the larger population.

- **Replication**

Studies with strong external validity produce findings that can be replicated across different contexts and time periods. In other words, if a researcher replicated a research project, the direction and strength of the researched relationships should be relatively similar. While social scientific studies that simply replicate the findings of previous research are usually not featured in peer-reviewed journals, scientists are guided by the assumption that statistically significant results are not the product of chance. This means that scientific research findings should be replicable. More research should be conducted to test the generalizability and robustness of scholarly findings in diverse contexts and across time periods. Indeed, some researchers will report multiple studies in a single article that demonstrate how a particular research finding is consistent across different cultural settings, industries, organisations, or

geographic locations. Alternatively, scholars who do not wish to conduct exact replications of prior studies could apply the same methods to different populations or settings.

- **Reporting**

In addition to carefully designing and implementing their research studies, scholars can demonstrate their commitment to external validity by reporting their projects in a transparent, comprehensive, and clear manner. It is recommended that researchers discuss their project's reach, which refers to the study's sample and sampling techniques. When writing reports, researchers should describe (a) how they selected and recruited their participants, (b) key characteristics of their sample, including how representative it is of a larger population, and (c) participants' response and attrition rates. Most research studies provide information about their participants' demographics and sample size. However, to what extent do they share information about their sample's representativeness? Second, it is important to communicate the study's effectiveness, efficacy, or results. What were the key findings and relationships among the study's variables? Third, if the study focuses on an intervention or treatment, researchers should also discuss adoption recommendations, which refer to the representativeness of the project's settings and the degree to which it has been applied in different contexts like local communities or clinical settings. Fourth, implementation considerations include information about how the study was conducted or how the intervention was delivered. Finally, maintenance focuses on follow-up observations, long term effects, and the sustainability of the research project's findings or the intervention.

- **Objectivity**

Objectivity is the third criterion associated with quantitative inquiry. It refers to the extent to which research projects are undistorted by the biases of researchers. Objectivity means that the researcher should maintain a distance from the research so that the findings of the research are based on the data collected and not on the values, beliefs or opinions of the

researcher. Reiss and Sprenger (2014) provide strategies for maintaining objectivity in quantitative research:

1- Focus on the facts and data collected- your interpretation should be based on the factual data that you have collected.

2- Ensure that the research is value free- as far as possible, your research should not reflect your own values alone. Our values influence the choice of the research design, the selection of the tools of measurement, the development of a hypothesis/research statement as well as the interpretation of the results.

Scientific objectivity is a property of various aspects of science. It expresses the idea that scientific claims, methods, results—and scientists themselves—are not, or should not be, influenced by particular perspectives, value judgments, community bias or personal interests.

- **Reliability**

Reliability refers to the extent to which the results can be reproduced when the research is repeated under the same conditions. We know that an instrument is reliable when the same result can be consistently achieved by using the same methods under the same circumstances. For example? You measure the temperature of a liquid sample several times under identical conditions. The thermometer displays the same temperature every time, so the results are reliable.

A doctor uses a symptom questionnaire to diagnose a patient with a long-term medical condition. Several different doctors use the same questionnaire with the same patient but give different diagnoses. This indicates that the questionnaire has low reliability as a measure of the condition.

11. Types of Reliability

1- Test - Retest

The consistency of a measure across time: do you get the same results when you repeat the measurement?

- Example: A group of participants complete a questionnaire designed to measure personality traits. If they repeat the questionnaire days, weeks or months apart and give the same answers, this indicates high test-retest reliability.

2- Interrater

The consistency of a measure across raters or observers: do you get the same results when different people conduct the same measurement?

- Example: Based on an assessment criteria checklist, five examiners submit substantially different results for the same student project. This indicates that the assessment checklist has low inter-rater reliability (for example, because the criteria are too subjective).

3- Internal consistency

The consistency of the measurement itself: do you get the same results from different parts of a test that are designed to measure the same thing?

-Example: You design a questionnaire to measure self-esteem. If you randomly split the results into two halves, there should be a strong correlation between the two sets of results. If the two results are very different, this indicates low internal consistency.

Ensuring reliability

- **Apply your methods consistently**

Plan your method carefully to make sure you carry out the same steps in the same way for each measurement. This is especially important if multiple researchers are involved.

For example, if you are conducting interviews or observations, clearly define how specific behaviours or responses will be counted, and make sure questions are phrased the same way each time.

● **Standardise the conditions of your research**

When you collect your data, keep the circumstances as consistent as possible to reduce the influence of external factors that might create variation in the results.

For example, in an experimental setup, make sure all participants are given the same information and tested under the same conditions.

11.1.1.5. Qualitative Research Trustworthiness Criteria

- **Credibility**

Credibility is the confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings (Macnee & MacCabe, 2008). It determines whether the research findings represent plausible information derived from the interpretation of data provided by the participants' experiences and views (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Merriam, the qualitative investigator's equivalent concept, i.e. credibility, deals with the question, "How congruent are the findings with reality?" (1998) Lincoln and Guba argue that ensuring credibility is one of most important factors in establishing trustworthiness (1985).

The following provisions may be made by researchers to promote confidence that they have accurately recorded the phenomena under scrutiny and ensure the research credibility:

- **The development of an early familiarity** with the culture of participating organizations before the first data collection dialogues take place. This may be achieved via consultation of appropriate documents and preliminary visits to the organizations themselves. Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Erlandson et al. (1995) are among the many who recommend "prolonged engagement" between the investigator and the participants

in order both for the former to gain an adequate understanding of an organization and to establish a relationship of trust between the parties.

- **Random sampling of individuals to serve as informants**

  Although much qualitative research involves the use of purposive sampling, a random approach may negate charges of researcher bias in the selection of participants. As Preece notes, random sampling also helps to ensure that any "unknown influences" are distributed evenly within the sample (1994)

- **Triangulation**

  Triangulation involves the use of different data collection methods. According to Guba (1985) and Brewer and Hunter (1989), the use of different methods in research compensates for their individual limitations and exploits their respective benefits.

- **Frequent debriefing sessions** between the researcher and his or her superiors, such as a project director or steering group

- **Peer scrutiny of the research project**. Opportunities for scrutiny of the project by colleagues, peers and academics should be welcomed, as should feedback offered to the researcher at any presentations (e.g., at conferences) that are made over the duration of the project.

- **Member checks,** which are considered as one of the most important provisions that can be made to bolster a study's credibility. Checks relating to the accuracy of the data may take place "on the spot" in the course, and at the end, of the data collection dialogues. Informants may also be asked to read any transcripts of dialogues in which they have participated.

- **Thick description of the phenomenon under scrutiny**. Detailed description in this area can be an important provision for promoting credibility as it helps to convey the actual situations that have been investigated and, to an extent, the contexts that surround

them. Without this insight, it is difficult for the reader of the final account to determine the extent to which the overall findings “ring true”.

- **Transferability**

Bassey (1987) proposes that, if practitioners believe their situations to be similar to those described in the study, they may relate the findings to their own positions.

- Transferability refers to the ability to transfer findings to different similar contexts. That is the degree to which the findings can be applied to other contexts with other participants.

- The transferability is facilitated by the researcher through providing the reader with a rich description of the context and the sample (Bitsch 2005, p. 85).

- It is important that sufficient thick description of the phenomenon under investigation is provided to allow readers to have a proper understanding of it, thereby enabling them to compare the instances of the phenomenon described.

Thus, information on the following issues should be given at the outset.

- **Ensuring Transferability**

a) The number of organizations taking part in the study and where they are based;

b) Any restrictions in the type of people who contributed data;

c) The number of participants involved in the fieldwork;

d) The data collection methods that were employed;

e) The number and length of the data collection sessions;

f) The time period over which the data was collected.

- **Dependability**

- Dependability revolves around the stability of the data over time (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

- Dependability is focused on the researcher's ability to ensure that the process of inquiry was logical, well documented, and traceable.

- One of the techniques followed to ensure dependability is the inquiry or external audit. This involves having an external researcher outside of the data collection and data analysis examine the process of data collection, data analysis, and the results of the research. This is done to confirm the accuracy of the findings and ensure that they are supported by the data.

- To ensure dependability, you need to document well all the procedures of the research so as to allow other researchers to follow, audit, or critique the research process (Polit et al. 2006).

- Another way of ensuring dependability is the research reflexivity. Reflexivity, i.e., a self assessment of subjectivity can reduce bias and increase dependability by increasing the transparency of the research process (Tong et al.2007).

- **Confirmability**

- Confirmability aims at illustrating that the evidence from one research can generate for another researcher the same data conclusions as in the studied context (Streubert, Speziale & Carpenter, 2003). In other words, the findings of one inquiry can be confirmed by other researchers.

- Confirmability revolves around the steps that the researcher takes to ensure that the data and the findings are not due to any bias (it is opposed to objectivity in quantitative research). This can be done through checking and rechecking the data collection and analysis to be able to establish confidence in the fact that the results are based on appropriate collection of the data and on the participants' words and experiences rather than the researcher's preferences and subjectivities.

- Confirmability can be ensured through explaining and justifying the decisions that are being made in the research process. Providing details about your research process can help the reader have insights to understand how the themes emerged from your data.

Practice on Chapter Eleven

Section 1: Scenario Analysis Threat to Internal Validity

Scenario Description	Threat to Internal Validity
A study on a new anti-pollution campaign shows success, but a major new federal environmental law was passed halfway through the study period.	History
A long-term study on student happiness sees a natural decrease in negative feelings simply because the students are growing up and gaining emotional regulation skills.	Maturation
Students improve their scores on a math test the second time they take it, not because of the new teaching method, but because they are familiar with the test format.	Testing
A research assistant collecting observational data on classroom behaviour gets tired by the afternoon and starts missing certain key behaviours they observed in the morning.	Instrumentation
Two groups of patients start a study with similar disease indicators, but the researcher assigns more progressively worsening cases to the control group, masking the treatment effect.	Selection Interaction (with maturation)
Participants in a control group learn about the "new diet" treatment being used by the experimental group and start using aspects of that diet themselves.	Diffusion or Imitation of Treatment

Section 2: Multiple Choice and Definitions

- Select the best answer for each question based on the chapter material.

1. Which of the following is not a trustworthiness criterion for quantitative research according to Lincoln and Guba (2007) and the text?

A) Internal Validity

B) External Validity

C) Credibility (This is a qualitative criterion).

D) Reliability

2. The degree of confidence that a causal relationship being tested is trustworthy and not influenced by other factors or variables is known as:

A) Internal Validity

B) External Validity

C) Objectivity

D) Reliability

3. When a threat to internal validity occurs because of biological or psychological changes within the research subjects over time (e.g., people naturally gaining immunity), this is called:

A) History

B) Maturation

C) Testing

D) Instrumentation

4. A study uses a convenience sample consisting entirely of college student volunteers tested in a sterile lab setting. Concerns about the applicability of these results to a broader population relate to which type of validity?

A) Internal Validity

B) External Validity

C) Reliability

D) Objectivity

Section 3: Case Scenarios

- Read the scenario and answer the questions using concepts from the chapter.

Scenario A: A researcher tests a new educational program with a pre-test and a post-test. They notice that student scores improved significantly. However, they realize the improvement might be because the students became familiar with the questions on the pre-test itself, rather than the educational program.

- What specific threat to internal validity does Scenario A present?

Answer: Testing (threat occurs due to repeated testing).

Scenario B: A research team studies the efficacy of an intervention program using 70 high school teachers from a single, wealthy school district.

- The findings of this study are likely to have issues with which type of validity? Explain why using concepts from the text.

Answer: External Validity.

Explanation: The convenience sample used (only 70 teachers from one wealthy district) makes it difficult to generalise the results to "broader, more diverse populations of people in real-life contexts," as the text describes.

Scenario C: A research assistant conducting observational data collection on children with ADHD changes their observation criteria halfway through the study because they are fatigued and bored.

- What specific internal validity threat does Scenario C contain?

Answer: Instrumentation (specifically "instrument decay" or data collector fatigue).

Chapter Twelve

Crucial Ethical Concepts in Research

12.1.Voluntary Participation

- It is applicable in the case of research involving people.

- It means that human subjects should not be forced into participating in research but must participate voluntarily.

- Anyone who is willing to participate can withdraw at any time with penalty.

(Scribbr, 2025)

12.2.Informed Consent

- In research involving human subjects, prospective participants must be fully informed about the procedures and risks involved, and their consent to participate must be obtained.

- It is considered unethical to collect information without the knowledge of participants and their expressed willingness.

- Informed consent entails full disclosure of the risks and intended benefits of the research; and it also recognises the right of subjects to refuse to participate.

(Scribbr, 2025)

12.3.Risk of harm -Human Subjects Protection

- When conducting research involving human subjects, adequate precautions should be taken to minimise harms and risks.

- Researchers should respect human dignity, autonomy, and privacy at all times.

- Researchers have to take all precautions to minimize or completely avoid harm and risk.

- Researchers should aim at maximizing the benefits of their participants through the research. Example: if a biologist discovers through her research a cure for a disease in indigenous plants, who would be the people who deserve to have a patent of the cure.

(Beauchamp & Childress, 2019)

12.4.Intellectual Honesty

- Researchers ought to honestly report the data and results of the

research including methods and procedures employed to gather data as well as publications relied on.

- Researchers should not fabricate, falsify, or misinterpret data and results.

- At times, it is possible that some researchers ignore evidence that deviates from expected lines. 'Conditioned thinking' is a problem of established researchers.

Tendency to think in a specific way (become conditioned) and ignore the new developments brought by data that oppose that specific way or thinking This can be overcome through continuous reflections on our personal biases.

(Beauchamp & Childress, 2019)

12.5.Confidentiality and Anonymity

- Two specified standards—confidentiality and anonymity—are applied to protect the privacy of those who participate in experimentation.

- When human beings are made subjects in experimentation or are being observed or interviewed, the information gathered about respondents should be kept confidential.

- Confidentiality represents an agreement that is formed between the researcher and participant, via the informed consent process, that ensures the participant's identity, personal information, responses, etc. will not be disclosed to anyone outside of the research team unless otherwise agreed upon.

- Sharing information for purposes other than research is unethical.

- Anonymity entails that researchers should not reveal identifying details to anyone who is not directly involved in the study (e.g., coding the names). (Steneck, 2007)

12.6.Non-discrimination

Avoid discrimination against colleagues or students on the basis of sex, race, ethnicity, or other

factors that are not related to their scientific competence and integrity.

- In a scientific endeavour, the choice of participants, for example, should be ethical and not subject to any biased judgment.

Discrimination can be based on; Race and ethnicity - Sexual orientation - Relgion - Gender - Age - Social status – Disability.

(Ali et al. 2025)

12.7.Integrity

- Research integrity entails the use of honest and verifiable methods in proposing, performing, and evaluating research.

- Researchers need also to honour their agreements and promises.

- Research integrity is vital because it creates trust, and trust is at the heart of the research process. Researchers must be able to trust each other's work, and "they must also be trusted by society since they provide scientific expertise that may impact people's lives".

- Data integrity is a broad term that describes the overall accuracy, consistency and completeness of a dataset. In the context of research, maintaining data integrity also includes making sure that data is accessible to those seeking to validate it.

(Ali et al. 2025)

Practice on Chapter Twelve

Section 1: Multiple Choice and Definitions

- Choose the best response for each question based on the chapter material.

1. If a participant is willing to be part of a research, which right does he have at all times according to the principle of Voluntary Participation?

A) The right to be paid extra for their time.

B) The right to withdraw at any time with no penalty.

C) The right to alter the research procedures.

D) The right to skip sections of the study they find boring.

2. What ethical concept requires that researchers take all precautions to reduce or eliminate physical or psychological harm and risks to participants?

A) Informed Consent

B) Risk of Harm / Human Subjects Protection

C) Non-discrimination

D) Integrity

3. According to the chapter, when are confidentiality and anonymity standards usually applied?

A) When human beings are made subjects in experimentation, observed, or interviewed.

B) Only for data gathering from government sources.

C) Only when publishing data, never when collecting it.

D) Only in medical research cases.

4. An investigator "thinks only in a specific, conditioned way and. ignores evidence from new data that contradicts their long-held beliefs." Which concept did they fail to achieve?

A) Integrity

B) Non-discrimination

C) Confidentiality

D) Intellectual Honesty

Section 2: Case Scenario Analysis

- Read the scenario and then answer the questions based on concepts in the chapter.

Scenario A: A research team in the area of psychology informs the participants in their survey that their personal details, such as their responses and identity, will not be shared with any member outside the research team. For this purpose, they maintain a secure coding system for names and personal information.

- By keeping the identity of participants undisclosed to anybody other than the team, for example, by using coding names, which particular standard are the researchers following?

Answer: Anonymity.

- The agreement the team formed with the participant via the consent process to protect identity and personal information is called?

Answer: Confidentiality.

Scenario B: A strict policy of the research lab is to accept only those who show scientific competence and integrity as research collaborators or students. The director of this lab had rejected a student application in recent days without considering the age factor or social status of the application.

- By refraining from judgement based on characteristics such as age or social status, which ethical principle is the laboratory director following?

Answer: Non-discrimination.

- According to the text, research integrity is important because it forms a necessary element "at the heart of the research process." What is that element?

Answer: Trust.

Chapter Thirteen

Commissioned Research/ Research Dissemination

Both researchers and research institutions must ensure that the funding and organisation of research is not in conflict with the norms of open, reliable and independent research. An overarching responsibility of research policy is to maintain the balance between different types of research, both between different disciplines and between commissioned research and researcher-driven research (pure and applied research). Different types of funding and organisation give rise to different research ethics issues and dilemmas in the relationship between science and society. Many of the challenges that used to be restricted to commissioned research, relating to norms such as openness, accountability and independence, may be equally relevant today for other types of research as well.

Research communities interact with society in general. When society funds research, it is because it expects something in return. Society's expectations concerning utility and relevance are not irreconcilable with the requirement that research must be free and independent, but this places demands on transparency with respect to terms of contract, ownership, confidentiality and the right to publish.

Knowledge is a collective good, and if research becomes too privatised, it will inhibit both the development of knowledge and the contribution of research to society. At the same time, commissioned research, where external principals decide on the subject, are an important part of society's aggregate knowledge development. For that reason, there must be a balance between commissioned research and researcher-driven research. Research funders should be aware of established standards for the organisation of research and reporting assignments.

12.1. Commissioned Research

Both public and private commissioners have a legitimate right to set the parameters for research assignments, as long as those parameters does not conflict with the other requirements

made with regard to the research. However, that does not exempt researchers and research institutions from their share of the responsibility for the agreements they sign with commissioners (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

Researchers and research institutions do not merely report their own results; they also represent the credibility of the research community as a reliable source of knowledge. The commissioner has a right to steer or influence the subject and issues addressed, but not the choice of method, results or conclusions drawn by the researcher on the basis of the results. Both researchers and research institutions have a right and a duty to point out the uncertainties and limitations of the research, for example when the results are to be used in policy decisions (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

12.2.Responsibility of Researchers in Large Projects

Researchers who take part in large research projects have a shared responsibility for those projects. It should be clear how an individual researcher has contributed to a research project. When research is organised into large, hierarchically managed projects, the relationship between individual researchers and the project management is analogous to the relationship between the researcher/research institution and the commissioner. If researchers experiences a conflict between loyalty to the institution or project and an ethically acceptable approach, the basic principle is that the individual researcher has a responsibility for their own participation. Researchers are also responsible for disclosing circumstances that are not acceptable according to research ethics (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019). Copyright and the right to publish must be regulated by explicit agreements. This also applies to the relationship between the commissioner, the research institution and the researcher in connection with commissioned research and reports.

13.3. Independence and Conflict of Interests

Both researchers and research institutions should maintain their independence in relation to their principals. Both researchers and research institutions must avoid becoming dependent on their commissioners. Dependence may undermine their impartiality and the scientific quality of the research. This is particularly true if a single commissioner is responsible for a substantial portion of the researcher's or research institution's funding. It is therefore important for the researcher/institution and the commissioner not to have convergent interests to the point that they threaten the independence of the research (the vested interest threat). The sale of advisory or consulting services to actors who also have an interest in the research having a particular outcome may increase the vested interest threat (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

Non-financial factors may also threaten independent research. Personal ties, either through family relations or as a result of long-term connections between the research institution/researcher and those taking part in the research projects may lead to dependence in several ways. These ties may lead to the research being used to promote the views and interests of certain parties (representative party threat), or it may lead to there not being sufficient distance between the researcher and the participants (threat to confidentiality), or it may lead to independence being threatened because the participants are in a position where they can influence the researcher (threat of pressure) (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

In some situations, the role of independent research may come into conflict with other roles the researcher may have, for example as adviser or consultant. If a researcher accepts an assignment that may undermine the institution's credibility, it is necessary to report the situation at the very least. In some situations, the conflict between roles will be so strong that the roles should not be combined.

13.4.Transparency in Research Funding

Both researchers and commissioners have a duty to make it publicly known who is funding the research.

It must be clear who is funding the research. Transparency concerning funding makes it easier for researchers to protect themselves against undue pressure and thus ensure the freedom and independence of the research. Moreover, commissioners have a reasonable claim to have their funding of research publicly known (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

When researchers are going to publish and use results, they have an independent responsibility to be open and transparent about all ties (commissioners and funding etc.) that might have a bearing on the credibility of the research/reporting that has been conducted.

13.5.Presentation and Use of Results

Both researchers and commissioners have a responsibility to prevent research results from being presented in a misleading manner. It is unethical to delimit the subject of the research with a view to producing particularly desirable results, or to present research results in an intentionally skewed manner.

Commissioners may not withhold research results in such a way that the findings that are made public give a distorted picture of one or more circumstances. Researchers must be protected against undue pressure from the commissioner to draw particular conclusions, and in certain situations should invoke their right to withdraw from assignments (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

Commissioners must accept that researchers have a right to discuss their mandates as part of research reporting: for example, to point out that perspectives, interpretations or considerations of manifest professional or practical relevance have been omitted from the mandate. The requirements regarding source material and valid reasoning are especially important when research may have consequences for the reputation or integrity of individuals

or groups, or when it may affect political decisions. In such cases, it is particularly important for researchers to discuss alternative interpretations of their findings, or to point out scientific uncertainty. If the results are used in a selective or tendentious manner by a commissioner, researchers has an obligation to point this out, and to demand that the misleading presentation be corrected (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

13.6.Right and Duty to Publish

Knowledge is a collective good, and as a general rule, all results should be published. This is also important to enable the results to be critically examined or re-used.

Generally, researchers have a right and duty to publish complete descriptions and results of research projects. This may be important both for preventing research results from being presented selectively or in a skewed manner, and for giving others the opportunity to test the results (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

However, private companies and government agencies may have a legitimate desire to protect themselves and their interests. Both negotiating strategies and the interests of national security may dictate that publication should be postponed or, in special cases, that the results should not be published. With exceptions for such situations and privacy considerations, commissioners and researchers should endeavour to ensure that the public has access to results. Any restrictions on the right to publish must be stipulated by contract at the start of the project (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

13.7.Dissemination as an academic responsibility

Researchers and research institutions are obliged to disseminate scientific knowledge to a broader audience outside the research community.

Dissemination of research involves communicating scientific results, methods and

values from specialised research fields to people outside the disciplines. Dissemination may be aimed at researchers in other disciplines, or at a broader audience. It may be a matter of disseminating established insights into the discipline, or results from more recent research.
The relationship between research and reporting is especially close in the humanities and social sciences, where a scholarly publication often also is a form of dissemination. In some cases there is not even a clear line between research and dissemination, because the knowledge is mediated as part of a public debate which in turn influences the research questions and answers (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

One of the main reasons for dissemination of research is to satisfy the intellectual curiosity of the general public. Dissemination is also important for a well-functioning democratic society. Dissemination should contribute to maintaining and developing cultural traditions, to informing public opinion and to the dissemination of knowledge of relevance to society. Society has invested large sums in research, and therefore has a right to share the results (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

13.8. Requirements for Individuals and Institutions

Research institutions must create conditions for extensive and broad dissemination of research characterised by high quality and relevance.

Research dissemination makes ethical demands on individuals and institutions alike. Universities and university colleges have a special responsibility to disseminate knowledge, results and scientific norms and values, both in their teaching of students and in relation to public administration, cultural life and business and industry. For example, appointing staff, in teaching, or through financial incentives is one of illustrations. Institutions should also encourage dissemination in different arenas and through new kinds of learning, knowledge sharing and discourse, whether it be through the media, lecture series, conferences for non-academics or through public hearings.

Good dissemination calls for interaction and cooperation between research institutions and other institutions such as the mass media, schools, art institutions, communities with various beliefs and voluntary associations. Dissemination may take place with varying participation by researchers and others (such as journalists and teachers), and may be written, verbal or based on other approaches (such as exhibitions and electronic media). All those who take part in such dissemination are subject to the same norms of research ethics (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

13.9.Interdisciplinary Discourse and Public Deliberation

An important part of dissemination of research in a modern society emerges from the interaction between specialists in various academic disciplines and the public discourse.
Many of the major challenges facing society related, for example, to ecology, globalisation and human rights, call for interdisciplinary cooperation and the integration of academic knowledge from a number of fields. There is therefore a strong need to translate and communicate knowledge both across different disciplines and to a broader public. The development of multi-disciplinary fora at research institutions provides a good basis both for discourse among specialists and for dissemination to the broader public (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

Interdisciplinary discourse can define the basic demands made of a culture of academic discourse. Researchers must express themselves clearly enough for colleagues from other fields and other participants in the discourse to take a reasoned position on their assertions. As in the case of internal academic discussions, renderings of the contributions of others must not be tendentious and persons with other opinions must not have unreasonable views falsely attributed to them (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

Dissemination should be clear and plainly express both academic uncertainty and the limitations of individual disciplines. Researchers should express clearly the limitations from the perspective of their own discipline and expertise in the field in question, which may make it easier for readers and the general public to determine whether other disciplinary perspectives could lead to other interpretations. Such interdisciplinary and inter-institutional discussions can serve as a sort of extended peer review (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

13.10. Participation in Public Debate

Researchers should contribute scientific arguments to the public debate. Researchers should express themselves fairly and clearly in order to avoid tendentious interpretations of research results. When researchers take part in public debate, they are using academic expertise as a basis for contributions to the formation of public opinion. They may contribute information in an area that is being debated, they may take a reasoned position on controversial topics, or they may seek to introduce new topics onto the public agenda.

Researchers have a responsibility to express themselves clearly and precisely, so that their research cannot be interpreted tendentiously and misused in political, cultural, social and economic contexts. Researchers should also engage in discussions about reasonable interpretations and justifiable use of research results. Other organisations and institutions, such as public relations departments, the mass media, political parties, interest organisations, enterprises and administrative bodies also have a responsibility to conduct themselves reasonably and acceptably in this context (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

Participation in public debates places great demands on fairness, reasoning and clarity. There may be grey areas between participation as a researcher and participation as a citizen. Researchers should state their discipline and not only their degree or position, when acting in

the capacity of expert. When academics take part as citizens, they should not use their titles or refer to special academic expertise.

13.11. Accountability in Dissemination

The requirement of accountability is equally stringent in dissemination as in publication. The audience of popularised academic presentations cannot be expected to be able to verify assertions made by specialised researchers. Accordingly, the requirement of accountability is equally stringent in dissemination as in academic publication.

Footnotes/endnotes and reference lists may seem cumbersome, but they can also help the interested reader to navigate through a large body of literature. It is also important to remember that specialists in other disciplines are part of the relevant audience.

Researchers may share hypotheses, theories and preliminary findings with the public in the course of a project, but must be cautious about presenting preliminary results as final conclusions (The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

13.12. Reporting Results to Participants

Researchers have a special obligation to report results back to the participants in a comprehensible and acceptable manner(The National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities, 2019).

Participants in research have a right to receive something in return. This also applies to research where large groups of informants are involved. Dissemination of research may help to meet this requirement when direct contact with each participant is not possible.

Participants must also have the opportunity to correct misunderstandings where this is possible. Dialogue between researchers and participants in the course of the research project may often strengthen the research. Researchers must present the results so that key findings and insights are communicated in a manner that can be understood by the participants.

Practice on Chapter Thirteen

Section 1: Case Study "Transparency and Influence" Analysis

- Analyse the following scenarios based on what is mentioned in Sections 13.1, 13.3 and 13.4 of Chapter Thirteen.

Scenario A: A researcher obtains major funding from one pharmaceutical company to research its new pharmaceutical agent. The contract contains a clause that would allow the pharmaceutical company to delay or veto publication of negative results.

Scenario B: A university research institution sells consulting services to the same local government agency that commissions most of their environmental impact studies.

Discussion Questions:

1. What is the inherent ethical threat in this situation, for example Vested Interest Threat, Lack of Independence?
2. What are the specific ethical concepts (e.g. transparency, right to publish) in Chapter 13 that are violated?
3. What is the best ethical course of action for the researcher/institution?

Section 2: Multiple Choice Questions

1. According to Chapter 13, in commissioned research, which party decides on the choice of method, results, or conclusions drawn by the researcher?

A) The Public

B) The Commissioner

C) The Researcher/Research Institution

D) A Funding Agency

2. With what is the "vested interest threat" primarily associated?

A) Financial dependence on a single commissioner is jeopardising its independence.

B) The convenience sample of college students used in research.

C) Personal family ties influencing research decisions.

D) Delays in publishing for an unreasonably longer duration.

3. When does the chapter suggest that the roles of independent researcher and adviser/consultant are likely to conflict too strongly to be combined?

A) Anytime the researcher sells any consulting services whatsoever.

B) At the request of the commissioner quarterly.

C) If accepting the assignment may undermine the credibility of the institution.

D) Only if the researcher receives over $10,000 in consulting fees.

4. Why might researchers and commissioners have a responsibility to make funding sources publicly known?

A) To fulfil a legal obligation only.

B) So that commissioners receive credit for their generosity.

C) To speed up the publication of research results.

d) The protection against undue pressure for researchers; independence and transparency.

Section 3: Case Scenario Analysis

- Read the scenario and answer the questions using concepts from the chapter.

Scenario A: A large research project is managed hierarchically. A junior researcher learns that the approach to the treatment of data used by the management of the project is ethically unacceptable.

- What does the individual junior researcher in this position bear responsibility for according to this chapter, despite the hierarchy in Section 13.2?

Answer: The individual researcher is responsible for his or her own contribution and must declare circumstances that cannot be accepted according to research ethics.

Scenario B: A government principal has funded a study on climate change. When the results are made public, the government agency withholds a few specific findings that were inconvenient for current policy, giving the public a skewed picture of the overall results.

- Has the government agency acted unethically? Using a concept from Section 13.5, explain why or why not.

Answer: Yes, it is unethical. The commissioner must not "withhold research results in such a way that the findings that are made public give a distorted picture of one or more circumstances" or present them in a "misleading manner."

Scenario C: The researcher conducts research on a particular topic provided by a pharmaceutical company, which also employs the spouse. A researcher needs to declare all links before publication. This is an example of a potential nonfinancial conflict of interest. Name two possible threats, identified in Section 13.3, to the research integrity that could emanate from this personal relationship.

Answer: Threat of confidentiality or representative party threat (advancing the interests/views of a particular party).

Chapter Fourteen

Fundamental Principles of the University Charter of Ethics and Deontology

The university charter at hand is a translation of a document provided by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in Algeria (May, 2010)

14.1.Integrity and Honesty

The quest for probity and honesty means refusing all forms of corruption. Such a quest ought to be one's own concern before extending it to others. Hence, ethics and deontology must reflect the best practices ever.

14.2.Academic Freedom

The academic activities of teaching and research cannot be conceived without academic freedom as their very foundation. The latter guarantees free and critical opinion for all without fear of censorship or coercion, with all due respect to others and in all professional conscience.

14.3.Responsibility and Competence

The notions of responsibility and competence are complementary. They are developed through the democratic and ethical management of the university institution. The latter ensures a good balance between the need for an efficient administration and that of encouraging the participation of the members of the university community by involving all the actors of the university in the decision-making process. However, scientific questions remain the exclusive responsibility of teacher-researchers.

14.4.Mutual Respect

Respecting others is based on self-respect. All members of the academic community must refrain from any form of symbolic, physical or verbal violence. They must be treated with respect and equity and should be committed to behaving in the same way, regardless of the hierarchical level of their partners.

14.5.Scientific Truth, Objectivity and Critical Thinking

Questioning the knowledge that the University transmits and produces have as fundamental principles the search for scientific truth and critical minds. Scientific truth requires competence, critical observation of facts, experimentation, confrontation of views, relevance of sources and intellectual rigor. Scientific research must be based on academic probity.

14.6.Equity

Objectivity and impartiality are the main requirements in evaluations, promotions, recruitments and appointments.

14.7.Respect of academic freedom:

All stakeholders in the academic community contribute with theirbehaviour to the enhancement of academic freedom in such a way as to guarantee their specificity and immunity. They shall refrain from promoting or encouraging practices, which may undermine the principles, freedoms and rights of the university. Moreover, they must refrain from any partisan political activity within all academic spaces.

14.8. Rights and Obligations

14.8.1. Rights and Obligations of the Teacher-researcher

The teacher-researcher has a leading role to play in the training of the national executives and in participating in the socio-economic development of the country through research. The State, by allowing it to assume their missions, must meet all their needs. Job security for the teacher-researcher is guaranteed by the State through public higher education institutions.

14.8.1.1. Rights of the Teacher-researcher

The higher education institutions must guarantee access to the profession of teacher-researcher solely on the basis of academic qualifications and experience. They must take all necessary measures to ensure that the teacher-researcher has the right to teach free from any interference, provided that they respect the principles of ethics and professional conduct.

All questions concerning the design and administration of curricula, research, per university activities and resource allocation should be based on transparent mechanisms within the framework of current regulations.

When the teacher-researcher is called upon to perform administrative functions, they must meet the requirements of compliance and efficiency.

The evaluation and assessment of the teacher-researcher's work are an integral part of the teaching and research process. The evaluation should focus solely on the academic criteria for assessing teaching, research and other professional activities in relation to the university.

The Teacher-researcher should benefit from adequate working conditions and the necessary teaching and scientific means which allow them to devote their time and energy fully to their tasks and to have the necessary time to benefit from continuing training and periodic updating of their knowledge. The treatment granted must be commensurate with the importance that this function, and consequently the one exercising it, plays in society for the training of the elite, as well as the significance of the various responsibilities pertaining to the teacher-researcher, as soon as they take office.

14.8.1.2. Obligations of the Teacher - researcher

The teacher-researcher must be a reference in terms of competence, morality, integrity and tolerance. They must reflect an image worthy of the university.

The teacher-researcher, like other members of the university community, are also responsible for abiding by the principles of ethics and academic deontology set out above. In carrying out their duties, they must act with care, diligence, competence, integrity, independence, loyalty and good faith in the best interests of the academic institution.

In the event of professional misconduct by the teacher-researcher and appearance before the authorized disciplinary bodies, they may, depending on the seriousness of the offense and in accordance with the disciplinary procedures provided for by the regulations in force, propose penalties which may extend to the forfeiture of the status of a university teacher.

The primary responsibility of the teacher-researcher is to ensure that they fully perform their academic duties as a teacher-researcher. To this end, they shall:

- Strive to comply with the highest possible professional standards.

- Ensure the confidentiality of the content of the deliberations and debates held within the various bodies in which they participate.

- Demonstrate professionalism in the performance of their duties.

- Contribute to the revitalization of the evaluation function of the pedagogical and scientific activities at all levels

- Establish the principle of transparency and the right of appeal.

- Refrain from abusing the power conferred on them by their profession.

- Refrain from using their academic status and engage the responsibility of the university for purely personal purposes.

- Honestly manage all funds entrusted to them to finance research activities or any other professional activity.

- Preserve their freedom of action as an academic.

- Demonstrate readiness to perform the duties of their position and be present in higher education institutions for the performance of these duties.

- Acting as an education professional by keeping abreast of innovations, ensuring constant updating of their knowledge and methods of teaching and training, by conducting self-assessment, showing a critical mind, autonomy and a sense of responsibility.

- Teach and conduct research in accordance with universal ethical and professional standards, away from any form of propaganda.

The teacher-researcher is thus obliged to provide education efficiently making the best of the means made available by the higher education institutions, in a spirit of justice and equity towards all students without distinction, encouraging the free exchange of ideas, and to be at their disposal for tutorship.

- Refrain from any form of discrimination in relation to gender, nationality, ethnicity, social status, religion, political opinion, disability and illness.

- Clearly state the pedagogical objectives of teaching, and respect the pedagogical rules of progress (periodicity, duration, scoring system, accessibility of exam sheets and meeting students before final validation of the marks).

- Have the most objective appreciation of the students' performance.

- Direct expertise and advisory activities towards work that can enrich teaching, contribute to the advancement of research, or participate in its outreach as an academic.

- Base research on a sincere quest for knowledge, with due respect to the principle of proof and impartiality of reasoning.

- Respect the scholarly work of their university colleagues and the work of the students and acknowledge authorship as plagiarism constitutes a major and inexcusable fault which can lead to exclusion.

- Contribute to respect to the academic freedom of other members of the academic community and accept a fair confrontation of different points of view.

- Demonstrate fairness and impartiality in the professional or academic assessment of colleagues.

14.9.Rights and Duties of the Student of Higher Education

The student must have all the possible conditions to evolve harmoniously within the institutions of higher education. They thus have rights which are meaningful only if they are side by side with responsibility that translates into duties.

14.9.1. Rights of the Student

- The student is entitled to quality teaching and research training. To do this, they are entitled to quality supervision that uses modern and adapted teaching methods.
- The student has the right to respect and dignity on the part of the members of the university community.
- The student must not be subject to discrimination against by gender or other characteristics.
- The student has the right to freedom of expression and opinion in accordance with the rules governing university institutions.

- The program of the course must be given to them at the beginning of the year. The course materials (references of works and handouts ...) must be made available.
- The student is entitled to a fair, equitable and impartial assessment.
- The notes, accompanied by the answers and the scale of the examination and, if necessary, the consultation of copies, must be submitted within a reasonable period of time not exceeding those fixed by the pedagogical committees.
- The student has the right to appeal if they consider that they have been unfairly assessed in an examination.
- The post-graduate student is entitled to quality supervision as well as to adequate support in their research.
- The student has the right to safety, hygiene and health prevention, both inside the universities and in university residences.
- The student is entitled to information about the higher education structure to which they belong, in particular its internal regulation.
- The student has access to the library, the computer resource center and all the necessary means for quality training.
- The student elects their representatives to the pedagogical committees without hindrance or pressure.
- The student may create, in accordance with the legislation in force, student associations of a scientific, artistic, cultural and sport nature. These associations must not interfere in the administrative management of academic institutions outside the limits set by the regulations in force.

14.9.2. Duties of the Student

- The student must respect the regulations in force.

- The student must respect the dignity and integrity of the members of the university community.
- The student must respect the right of the members of the university community to free expression.
- The student must respect the results of the deliberation juries.
- The student has to provide accurate information about themselves when registering and to fulfil their administrative obligations towards the institution.
- The student must show civic-minded attitudes in all their behaviour.
- The student must never cheat or resort to plagiarism.
- The student must preserve the premises and the materials made available for them and respect the rules of safety and hygiene all over the establishment.
- The student is duly informed of whichever misconduct of which they are accused. The sanctions are incurred pursuant to the regulations in force and the internal regulations of the institution of higher education. They fall within the competence of the Disciplinary Board and may go as far as definitive exclusion from the institution.

14.10. The Rights and Obligations of Administrative and Technical Personnel in Higher Education

The teacher-researcher and the student are not the only actors of the University. They are closely associated with the administrative and technical staff of institutions, which have rights that are accompanied by obligations.

14.10.1. Rights of Administrative and Technical Personnel

Administrative and technical staff should be treated with respect, consideration and equity in the same way as all the actors in higher education.

Administrative and technical staff are entitled to an objective and impartial treatment in the recruitment, evaluation, appointment and promotional reviews.

Administrative and technical personnel shall not be subjected to any harassment or discrimination in the course of their career.

Administrative and technical staff is provided with adequate conditions enabling them to fulfil their mission to the best of their ability and, as such, they benefit from continuous training and continuous improvement of their qualifications.

14.10.2.Obligations of Administrative and Technical Personnel

The mission of the administrative and technical staff is to guarantee optimal conditions for the researcher teacher to perform their teaching and research functions in the best way possible, and for the student to succeed in their academic career.

This mission, carried out through the administrative and technical staff of the higher education institutions, must be in accordance with the fundamental values of the public service, which are competence, impartiality, integrity, respect, confidentiality, transparency and loyalty.

These standards of behaviour represent the major principles that each member of the administrative and technical staff must respect and promote, including:

- ***Competence:*** The administrative and technical staff must carry out their duties with professionalism. They are responsible for their decisions and actions as well as for the judicious use of resources and information at their disposal.

- ***Impartiality:*** The administrative and technical staff should demonstrate neutrality and objectivity. They take decisions in accordance with the regulation in force, and by giving everyone a fair treatment. They should fulfil their functions without partisan considerations and should avoid any form of discrimination.

- ***Integrity:*** The administrative and technical personnel must behave in a fair and honest manner. They should avoid situations where they would be indebted to anyone who might unduly influence them in the performance of their duties.

- ***Respect***: The administrative and technical staff must show consideration for all individuals with whom they interact in the performance of their duties. They must show courtesy, attentiveness and discretion. They shall also exercise diligence and promptness in the performance of their duties.

This respect must also include the areas of their competence. Thus, this staff must refrain from any interference in pedagogical and scientific acts. The administration of higher education institutions shall refrain from interference in these areas.

- Confidentiality: The administrative, technical, educational and scientific records must be subject to confidentiality.

- ***Transparency:*** The staff should perform their duties and the various acts resulting from them in a way that allows useful information access to the members of the university community, the possibility of verifying good professional practices and their traceability.

- ***Performance:*** The public service rendered through the administrative and technical staff of the higher education institutions must also abide by the quality criteria, which involve the obligation to treat their actors with due care and diligence. In practice, the obligation to treat the teacher and the student with respect means that the administrative and technical personnel should behave politely and courteously towards them. As for the duty of care, it requires that the administrative and technical staff hasten to deal with the files entrusted to them and which directly concern both the teacher and the student. The administrative and technical staff are finally obliged to provide students and teachers with all the information they require and which they are entitled to obtain.

The members of the academic community, committed to promoting ethical and ethical standards, are also committed to respecting the spirit and the letter of this charter.

Adapted from the Fundamental Principles of the University Charter of Ethics and Deontology by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research in Algeria (May 2010) and Translated by the author of this course.

Practice on Chapter Fourteen

Activity 1: Principle Identification and Justification

- Case Table and Answer Key

Scenario Description	Relevant Principle/Obligation	Key Justification from Text
A professor grades all students' final exams without knowing their names or identities.	Equity	Objectivity and impartiality are main requirements in evaluations.
A student expresses a controversial political opinion in a seminar discussion, and the professor listens respectfully without penalising the student's grade.	Academic Freedom / Mutual Respect	Guarantees free/critical opinion without censorship, with due respect to others.
A teacher-researcher ensures that students can access their exam sheets and meet before final validation of marks.	Teacher-researcher Obligation	Establish the principle of transparency and the right of appeal.
A lab director ensures that funds for a research project are used strictly for that purpose and not for personal benefit.	Integrity and Honesty / Obligation	Honestly manage all funds entrusted to them; refuse all forms of corruption.

Section 2: Role-Play (Mutual Respect and Morality)

Role-Play Scenarios: Students work in trios: an Observer, a Teacher-Researcher, and a Student/Colleague. They role-play one of the following scenarios:

A student challenges the grading system; the teacher-researcher must respond with respect and equity.

A colleague makes a derogatory comment in a lab meeting; the observer must choose to intervene ethically.

The observer provides feedback based on the principles of Mutual Respect and Integrity/Morality.

Anticipated Result: Students demonstrate appropriate, ethical communication and intervention skills in difficult situations, upholding the university's expected standards of conduct.

Section 3: Multiple Choice and Definitions

- Select the best answer for each question based on the chapter material.

1. According to the charter, which two concepts are complementary and developed through the democratic and ethical management of the university institution?

A) Honesty and Freedom

B) Objectivity and Equity

C) Responsibility and Competence

D) Rights and Responsibilities

2. The fundamental principles for questioning knowledge at the university are the search for scientific truth and what other concept?

A) Academic Freedom

B) Efficiency

C) Critical Minds (or Critical Thinking)

D) Job Security

3. What action must all members of the academic community take regarding behaviour, regardless of the hierarchical level of their partners?

A) Ensure efficiency in administration.

B) Deal exclusively with scientific questions.

C) Refrain from any form of symbolic, physical or verbal violence.

D) Have the most objective appreciation of student performance.

4. The evaluation and assessment of a teacher-researcher's work should focus solely on what type of criteria?

A) Administrative criteria

B) Financial criteria

C) Academic criteria

D) Political criteria

Section 4: Case Scenario Analysis

- Read the scenario and answer the questions using concepts from the chapter.

Scenario A: A teacher-researcher is highly competent but often engages in partisan political activity within academic spaces and uses their academic status for purely personal, non-university purposes.

- Which two specific obligations of the teacher-researcher, as listed in Section 14.8.1.2, are violated here?

Answer 1: Shall not engage in any partisan political activity in all academic areas.

Answer 2: Refrain from using their academic status and engaging the responsibility of the university for purely personal purposes.

Scenario B: A university administration makes a decision about resource allocation for a new lab without using transparent mechanisms or involving relevant teacher-researchers in the decision-making process.

- Which principle or right, listed in Section 14.8.1.1, has the administration violated?

Answer: All questions concerning resource allocation should be based on transparent mechanisms within the framework of current regulations.

Scenario C: A teacher-researcher is a reference in competence but consistently fails to update their knowledge or teaching methods, relying on old information from a decade ago.

- Which specific obligation regarding professional development has this individual neglected?

Answer: Acting as an education professional by keeping abreast of innovations, ensuring constant updating of their knowledge and methods of teaching and training.

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