

*National College of Business
Administration and Economics
Lahore*



**TITLE OF THE THESIS TITLE OF THE
THESIS TITLE OF THE THESIS TITLE OF
THE THESIS**

BY

NAME OF THE STUDENT

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
YOUR DISCIPLINE YOUR DISIPLINE YOUR
DISIPLINE**

December, 2016

**NATIONAL COLLEGE OF
BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION AND
ECONOMICS**

**TITLE OF THE THESIS TITLE OF THE
THESIS TITLE OF THE THESIS TITLE OF
THE THESIS**

BY

NAME OF THE STUDENT

**A dissertation submitted to
School of Business Administration**

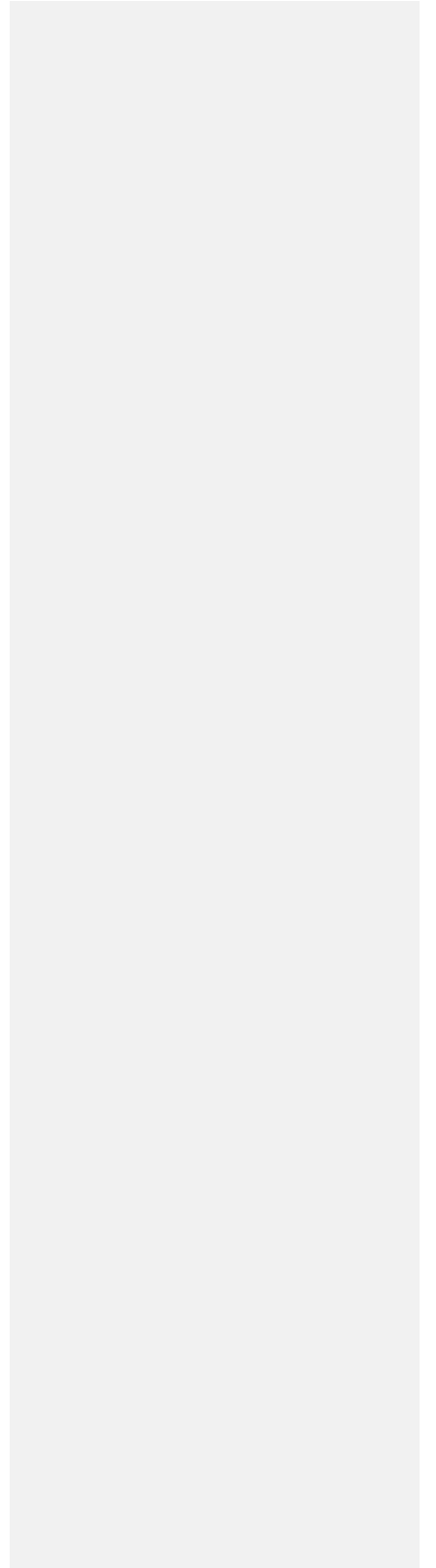
**In Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of**

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
YOUR DISCIPLINE YOUR DISIPLINE YOUR DISIPLINE**

December, 2016



*In the name of ALLAH,
The Most Beneficial,
The Most Merciful,*



**NATIONAL COLLEGE OF BUSINESS
ADMINISTRATION AND ECONOMICS
LAHORE**

**TITLE OF THE THESIS TITLE OF THE THESIS
TITLE OF THE THESIS TITLE OF THE THESIS**

**BY
NAME OF THE STUDENT**

A dissertation submitted to School of Business Administration, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN YOUR DISCIPLINE YOUR
DISIPLINE**

Dissertation Committee:

Chairman

Member

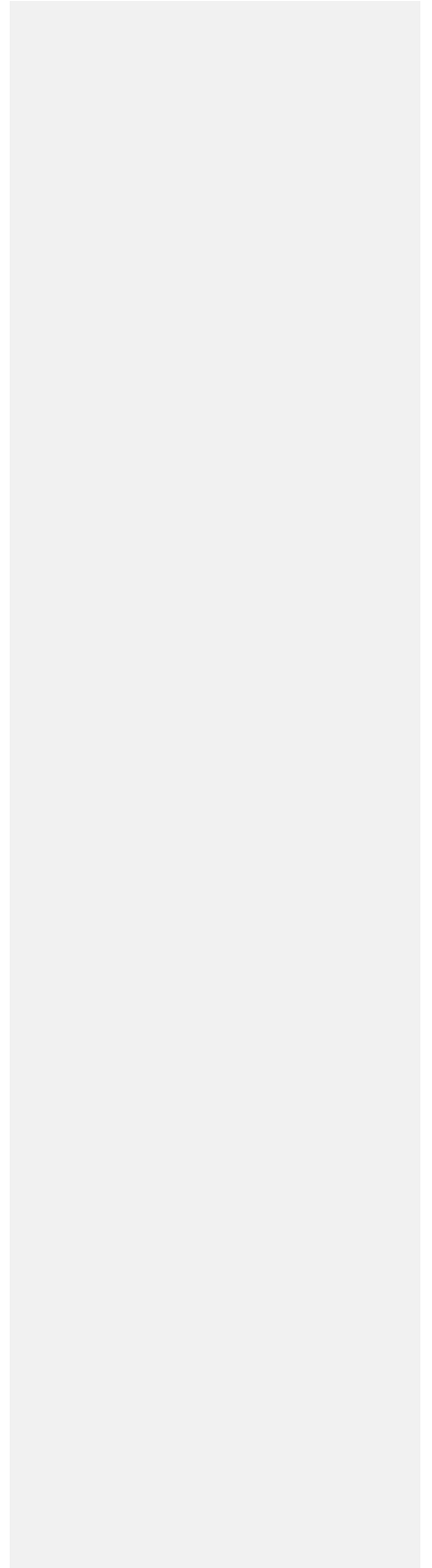
Member

Rector
National College of Business
Administration and Economics

DECLARATION

It is to declare that this research work has not been submitted for obtaining similar degree from any other university/college.

NAME OF THE STUDENT
December, 2016

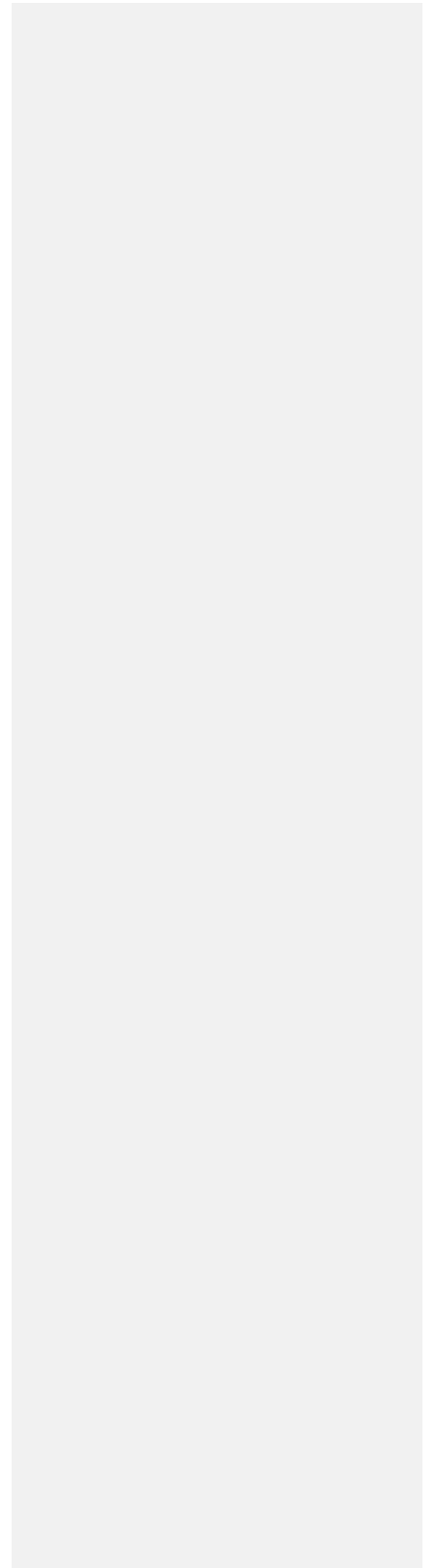


ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Xxxx
xx
xx
xx

xx
xx
xx
xx
xx

xx
xx



RESEARCH COMPLETION CERTIFICATE

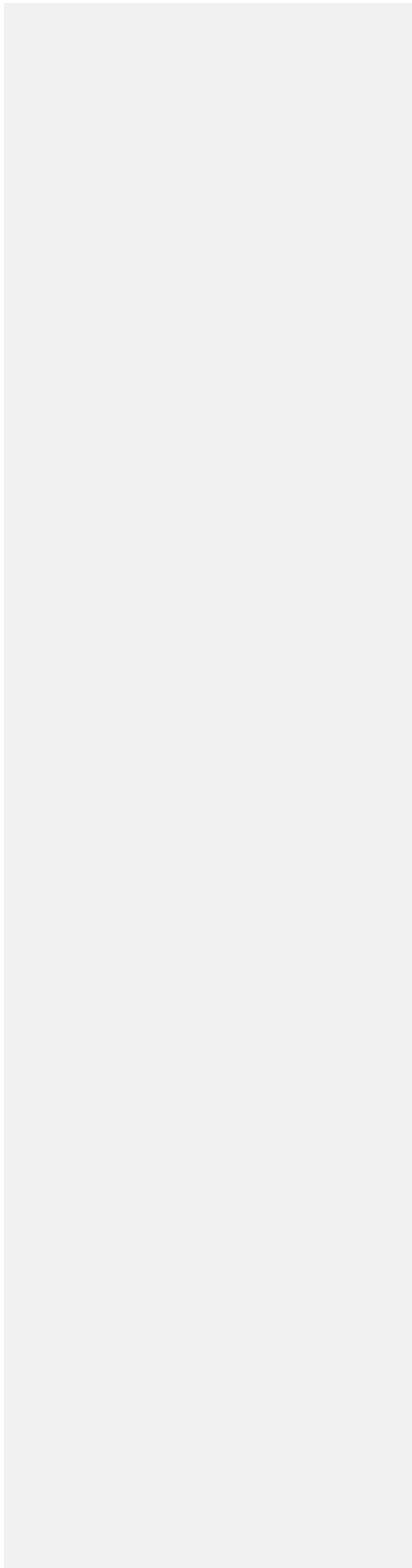
Certified that the research work contained in this thesis entitled “**Title of the thesis Title of the thesis Title of the thesis**” has been carried out and completed by **Name of the student** under my supervision during his **Ph.D. your discipline your discipline your discipline** Programme.

(Dr. xyzxyzxyz)
Supervisor

SUMMARY

Xxx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xxxxxx

Xxx
xx
xx
xx
xx
xxxxx.



LIST OF TABLES

Table No	Table Title	Page No
1.1	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	
2.1		
2.2		
3.1		
3.2		
3.3		
3.4		
3.5		
3.6		
3.7		
3.8		
3.9		
3.10		
3.11		
3.12		
3.13		
3.14		
3.15		
3.16		
3.17		
3.18		
3.19		
4.1		
4.2		
4.3		
4.4		
4.5		

4.6
4.7
5.1

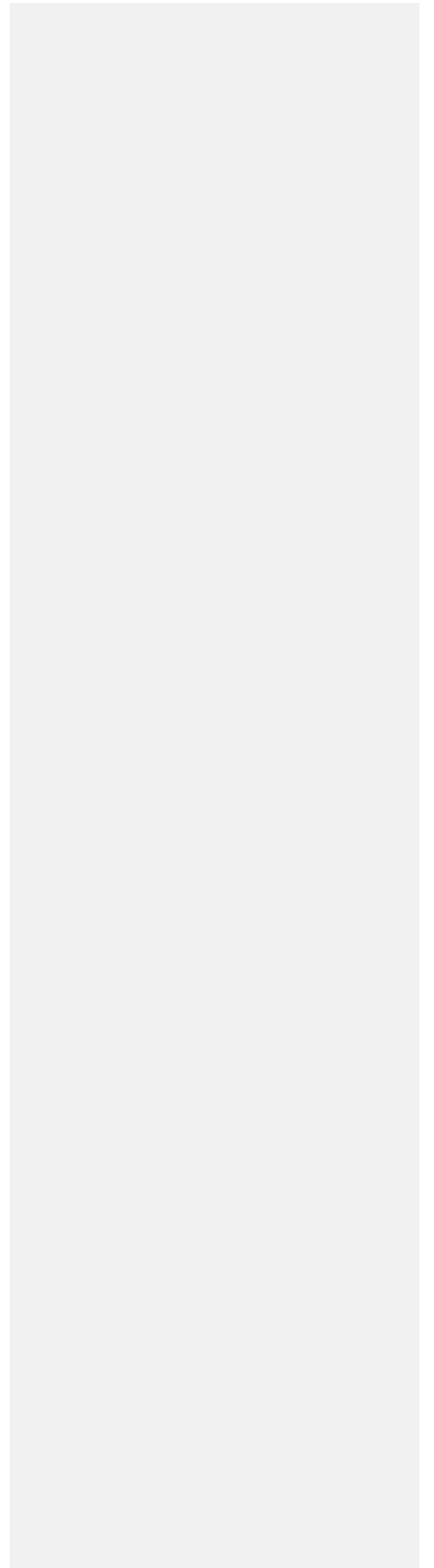
5.2
5.3
5.3.1

5.4
5.5
5.6
5.7
5.8
5.9
5.10

5.11

5.12
5.13
5.14
5.15
5.16

5.17
5.18
5.19
5.20
5.21
5.22



LIST OF FIGURES

Figure No	Figure Title	Page No
2.1		
3.1		
3.2		
3.3		
3.4		
4.1		
5.1		
5.2		
5.3		
5.4		
5.5		
5.6		
5.7		
5.8		
5.9		
5.10		
5.11		
5.12		
5.13		
5.14		

ABBREVIATIONS

XYX	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX
ABCD	XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX

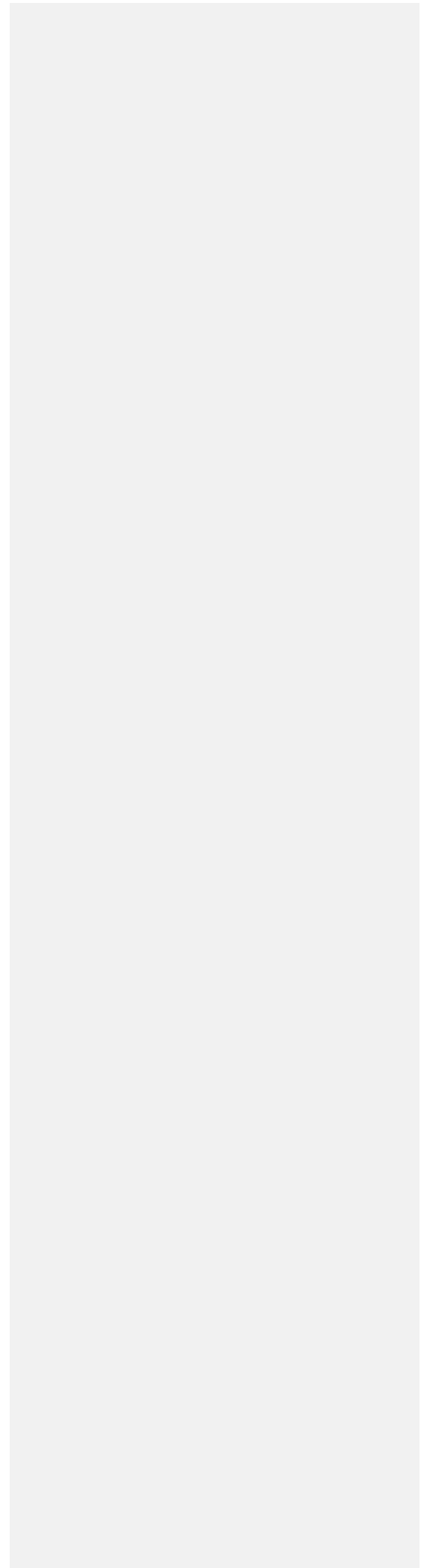


TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION
DEDICATION
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT
SUMMARY
LIST OF TABLES
LIST OF FIGURES
ABBREVIATIONS

Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Context and Scene Setting
1.2 Problem Area and Research Emphasis
1.3 Key Research Questions and Research Objectives
1.4 Research Methodology
1.5 Key Definitions
1.5.1 xxxxxxxx
1.5.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
1.6 Thesis Organization

Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 xxxxxxxx
2.1.1 xxxxxxxx
2.1.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
2.1.3 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
2.1.4 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
2.1.4.1 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
2.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
2.2.1 xxxxxxxx
2.2.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
2.2.2.1 xxxxxxxx
2.2.2.2 xxxxxxxx
2.2.2.3 xxxxxxxx
2.2.2.4 xxxxxxxx
2.2.2.5 xxxxxxxx

Chapter 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 xxxxxxxx
3.2 xxxxxxxx
3.3 xxxxxxxx Data Collection

Chapter 4: RESULTS

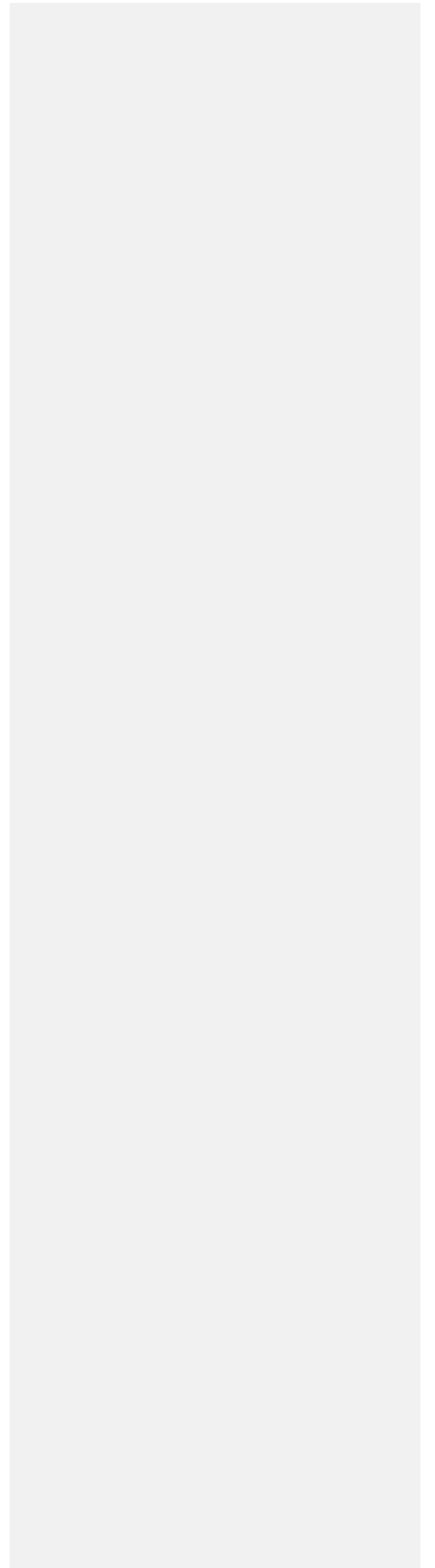
- 4.1 xxxxxxxxxx
 - 4.1.1 xxxxxxxxxx
 - 4.1.1.1 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 4.1.1.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 4.1.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 4.1.2.1 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 4.1.2.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 4.1.2.3 Integrity Awareness Program

Chapter 5: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

- 5.1 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
- 5.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 5.2.1 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 5.2.2 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 5.2.3 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
 - 5.2.3 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
- 5.3 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
- 5.4 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
- 5.5 xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx

REFERENCES

- ANNEXURE-A: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
- ANNEXURE-B: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
- ANNEXURE-C: xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
- ANNEXURE-D:
- ANNEXURE-E:
- ANNEXURE-F:
- ANNEXURE-G:
- ANNEXURE-H:



Source: <http://www.hec.gov.pk/InsideHEC/Divisions/QALI/Others/Pages/-Enrollment.aspx> and <http://www.hec.gov.pk/insidehec/divisions/qali/others/Pages/StatisticalInformationUnit.aspx>

Considering the significance of the study it is recognized that previously there have been numerous attempts to examine integrity in HEIs in different settings within different cultural context; nevertheless these studies carry some limitations that have encouraged the current study. For instance preceding studies either used qualitative research methods (e.g., Rossouw and Vuuren, 2003; Macaulay, Newman and Hickey, 2014) or quantitative techniques (e.g., Itzkovich and Alt, 2015; Denisova-Schmidt et al., 2016), whereas mixed method approach; both qualitative and quantitative research, has not been deployed yet, which the present study adopts. It is expected that the strength of the present study could be enriched with quantitative approach blended with analysis of the focus group discussions and semi-structured interviews (Fowler, 2009).

Second, to best of our knowledge there is not any single framework yet proposed covering both set of activities; administrative and academic to measure integrity level by computing HEI integrity index. Most of the relevant research has either focused on academic misconducts, or administrative integrity issues in HEIs, whereas our study is coupling both. Furthermore, relatively, even less is discussed and identified about integrity in HEIs of Pakistan’s public sector, up to now, no study has had an explicit emphasis on exploring a framework that could compute HEI integrity index reflecting the level of integrity in Pakistan’s HEIs. Without having the framework (*which is one of the outcomes of extensive literature review and qualitative research*) there is a potential risk of overlooking factors that may contribute toward institutional integrity. Thus, there seems to have a need to fill this gap.

Building on the argument given above, it is important to develop a geographically contextualized holistic approach that fully encapsulates integrity issues in HEIs. Thus, the key aim of this thesis is to offer a framework that reveals the level of integrity in HEIs by computing integrity index using multipronged approach in the context of Pakistan’s public sector higher education.

1.3 KEY RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Keeping in mind the public sector HEIs of Pakistan, the current research aims to answer some key research questions, for instance (i) what are the most significant integrity issues?, (ii) what factors influence the integrity of any HEI the most? (iii) what could be the holistic approach to comprehend integrity of any HEI? and (iv) how can we measure the integrity level of any HEI? These questions lead us to the objectives of this study.

An objective of this investigation, among others is to identify critical factors that assure integrity and its magnitude in HEIs, encompassing administrative and academic activities. Moreover this thesis contributes in theoretical and methodological aspects to explore the integrity framework, customized to HEIs in Pakistan. The argument is that beside commonalities, the issue of integrity is rather contextualized, thus, any research in the field of integrity must not overlook such aspect.

Hence, the outcomes of the study focus on guiding investigators, policy-makers, consultants, and educators in dissemination of the identified critical factors to compute HEI integrity index that measure the magnitude of integrity in HEIs and suggest corrective measures accordingly. This study thus contributes to new knowledge in three (3) areas. First, the results of current research deliver a better understanding of the integrity issues in HEIs of Pakistan. Second, specific and most critical factors have been identified that build up integrity structure of HEI. Third, this study offers a comprehensive, multipronged and pragmatic mechanism integrity index of any HEI.

Comment [DAA1]: Wouldn't it be better if stated in bullets?

1.4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To accomplish the research objectives outlined above, a 'positivism' paradigm is adopted for our research design. Positivism believes that research processes in social science could perhaps adapt the same operative mechanism used by the natural scientists (Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 2002). This opinion encourages the application of the methods of natural sciences to investigate social reality (Bryman and Bell, 2007). To know about the reality; through positivism lens, the researchers mainly trust on the use of scientific methods, for instance experiments or surveys to acquire rigorous and meticulous results (Neuman, 1997). Bryman and Bell (2007) advocated that it is extremely possible that the reality could be encapsulated, via the use of research instruments such as survey questionnaires.

As this thesis intends to propose a integrity framework to compute HEI integrity index that represents the level of integrity in any HEI, therefore primarily the quantitative research approach was proposed. But prior to empirical examination a qualitative method was used by conducting focus group discussions (FGDs) and semi-structured interviews to construct a conceptual framework. Afterward the quantitative research design involves developing rationale, grounded in the review of prior literature and qualitative analysis; employing the survey instrument like the questionnaire, to collect data for testing and analysis; and using statistical techniques and self-designed formula to compute integrity index. These activities are in line with the positivist paradigm, as suggested by Bryman and Bell (2007). Based on the above, the study has been conducted in following steps:

Comment [DAA2]: Rationale? Right?

- Thorough literature review present an overview of the prevailing knowledge in the area of anti-corruption and integrity approach to curb corruption, in the global context as well as in the context of Pakistan's public sector HEIs.
- Collection of data through FGDs and semi-structured interviews with experienced individuals in the sector, and students to develop a conceptual framework, whereby relevant variables/ themes are generated that contribute toward integrity of HEIs.
- Collection of quantitative data from an HEI of Pakistan and calculating integrity index of selected university using the proposed framework and integrity scores.

1.5 KEY DEFINITIONS

There are two (2) pivotal words; corruption and integrity, around which this thesis orbits. Section below provides definitions of these two opposing concepts, offered by different scholars, and at the close of following section we present our operational definition that we will carry throughout our study.

1.5.1 Corruption

In a scholarly debate defining corruption is a Herculean and Sisyphean act; Herculean because doing so involves extremely enormous volume of historical knowledge, and it is Sisyphean because human perception about

corruption has grown and still evolves over time, therefore today's acceptable behavior may be considered deviant or corrupt in the times yet to come. But scholarly movement to define corruption was never stationary. Most of the scholars agree that a general "one line fits all" definition of corruption is perhaps unattainable (Philps, 1997), still the question arises that what exactly is corruption?

The definition matters because how corruption is defined results in efforts to fight it. Word 'corruption', derived from a Latin term 'Corruptus' translated as 'to break', has various meanings. Literally, it means a broken object and conceptually, it means "impairment of integrity, virtue, or moral principle; inducement to wrong by improper or unlawful means" (Wikipedia); corrupt means crooked; not straight; dishonest or immoral or evasive (Webster's dictionary). According to the Oxford English dictionary "corruption means to destroy by putrid decomposition; to turn from a sound into an unsound condition; to infect, taint and render morbid". It means to destroy the moral purity or chastity; induce to act dishonestly or unfaithfully, and by the 'Lectric Law Library's Lexicon' "corruption is an act done with an intent to give some advantage inconsistent with official duty and the rights of others". In a layman's terms corruption is a dishonest practice or an illegitimate exchange of resources; accepting money, or asking favors in return of doing some legal or illegal job for others.

In early years of the discussion on corruption, the division was among moralists and revisionists illustrated differences over the outcomes of corruption. The moralists collectively denounced corruption because they believed corruption as a curse on the social, economic and political welfare of society. Instead the revisionists claimed that objectivity must not be overlooked while studying and defining corruption. Even for revisionists corruption is not always damaging, in reality it should be considered unavoidable and essential function of the adjustment process (Leff, 1964; Bayley, 1966; Nye, 1967; Huntington, 1968). Revisionist view of corruption was confronted in the mid and late 1970s by scholars of next generation, like Krueger (1974) and Ackerman (1978). They contended that corruption or deviant behavior is not a structural phenomenon or necessary element of adjustment process rather an individual choice that maximizes benefits for the individuals involved, but ultimately damages society. Moreover, a considerable amount of scholars advocated that corruption should be studied in the context of the institutional structures in which they exist.

Then the debate shifted among public office, market and public interest-centered definitions in the following years. Although the debate on defining corruption never fully resolved, but the public office centered approach gained extensive acceptance in the 1980s and 1990s; among those Joe Nye's definition was most popular that says "Corruption is behavior which deviates from the formal duties of public role (elective or appointive) because of private gain (personal, close family, private clique), wealth or status gains; or violates rules against the exercise of certain types of private influence" (Nye, 1967). International organizations and aid agencies converge on a public-centered definition, and their working definition of corruption is an abuse/ misuse of public office/ entrusted power/ for private direct or indirect gain/ benefit that hampers public interest" (World Bank, 1997; USAID, 1999; **NACS, 2002**; UNO, 2004; TI, 2013). In fact the public office-centered approach dominates the recent literature and our study considers the same approach most workable.

The operational definition of corruption for our study is - corruption is a deviant behavior that breaks norms and explicit code of conduct, and abuses/ misuses public office/ entrusted power, for private financial or nonfinancial and direct or indirect gain.

1.5.2 Integrity

Integrity is a simple and extensively used term in our regular discussion on and about corruption. Though, researchers such as Becker, DeFond, Jiambalvo and Subramanyam (1998), Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2002) have openly admitted the lack of clarity in the meaning of integrity. Mentioning the wide variety of meanings of integrity, Audi and Murphy (2006) propose that clarification of what one means by integrity is an initial requirement to further the discussion.

In *Webster's New World Dictionary* 'integrity' is defined as: "i. the quality or state of being complete; unbroken condition; wholeness; entirety; ii. the quality or state of being unimpaired; perfect condition; soundness; and iii. the quality or state of being of sound moral principle; uprightness, honesty, and sincerity". Thus integrity is the personal characteristic of consistency, honesty, and trustworthiness (Peterson and Seligman, 2004; Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992).

Some authors (e.g. Trevino, Hartman and Brown, 2000; Worden, 2003; Lowe, 2006) have picked up on its common theme and mentioned that integrity is all about wholeness. After noticing the numerous uses of integrity,

Koehn (2005) describes integrity as the “precondition for being human”. The behavioral view of integrity considers it as a consistency in behavior; the perceived match between an actor’s words and actions. Simons (1999) operationalized this concept and named it as behavioral integrity (BI), but today Simons’ behavioral integrity is a key theme in other debates of integrity (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996; Palanski and Yammarino, 2007; Leroy, Palanski and Simons, 2012).

An alternative aspect of integrity is unchangeable behavior in the circumstances full of hardship, enticement, or challenge (Posner, 2001; Worden, 2003) to control personal desires and wishes. Similarly Worden (2003) remarks, “the hallmark of integrity is an acted out commitment to principled behavior in the face of adversity or temptation at great cost to oneself”. Carter (1996) endorses by saying “we admire those who stand up for their beliefs when they have something to lose”.

Many authors have coupled integrity to one’s own collection of morals and values along with acting upon them correspondingly (Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992; Morrison, 2001; Cox, La Caze and Levine, 2003; Koehn, 2005). Lowe (2006) argues that dimension of integrity, where one has to stand against adverse conditions, is related to the one’s own inner perception of genuineness in which s/he owns their individual experiences and acts accordingly. Several authors have associated integrity to a usual conceptualization of morality in some respect, therefore in the integrity literature the terms “ethics/ethical” and “morality/moral” generally refer to actions which are in accordance with socially acceptable behavior. Prior studies also consider integrity as synonymous with honesty (Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992; Posner, 2001; Den-Hartog, Shippers and Koopman, 2002; Newman, 2003; Peterson and Seligman, 2004) or being trustworthy (Trevino, Hartman and Brown, 2000; Den-Hartog et al., 2002; Paine, 1994). Similarly experts also consider integrity related to justice (Rawls, 1971; Rossouw and Van Vuuren, 2003), respect (Baccili, 2003), openness (Rawls, 1971; Baccili, 2003; Peterson and Seligman, 2004; Koehn, 2005), empathy and compassion (Koehn, 2005).

The operational definition of integrity for our study is - integrity is an honest (Trevino et al., 2000), and ethical conduct (Peterson and Seligman, 2004) that exhibits respect (Baccili, 2003), openness (Peterson and Seligman, 2004) commitment to principles (Worden, 2003), owning set of values and act accordingly (Koehn, 2005) to maintain justice (Rawls, 1971).

1.6 Thesis Organization

Overall arrangement and content of this thesis is based on the 'functionalist'. As a quick sight to this thesis; chapter 1 gives a general introduction of entire study, including our research questions leading to study objectives, and significance of the investigation. In rest of the five (5) chapters, we provide an overview of the relevant literature available regarding integrity approach to handle corruption and misconduct, in general and specific to higher education institutions (chapter 2) and then describe research methodology (chapter 3) before describing qualitative data gathering, analysis, results, on the basis of which we established our conceptual framework (chapter 4), that could help in computing integrity index in HEIs. Afterward we explain the quantitative results (chapter 5). Lastly we discuss relevant implications for practitioners, academicians and policy makers in public sector higher education institutions, and close the thesis with appropriate conclusions (chapter 6). Figure 1.1 provides a pictorial representation of the organization of the thesis.

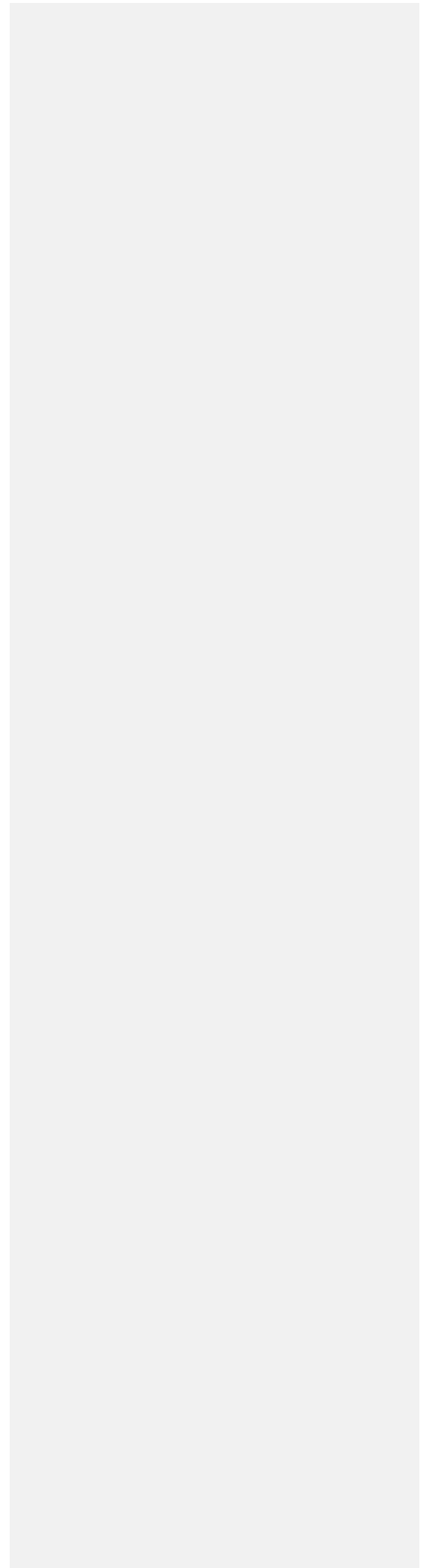
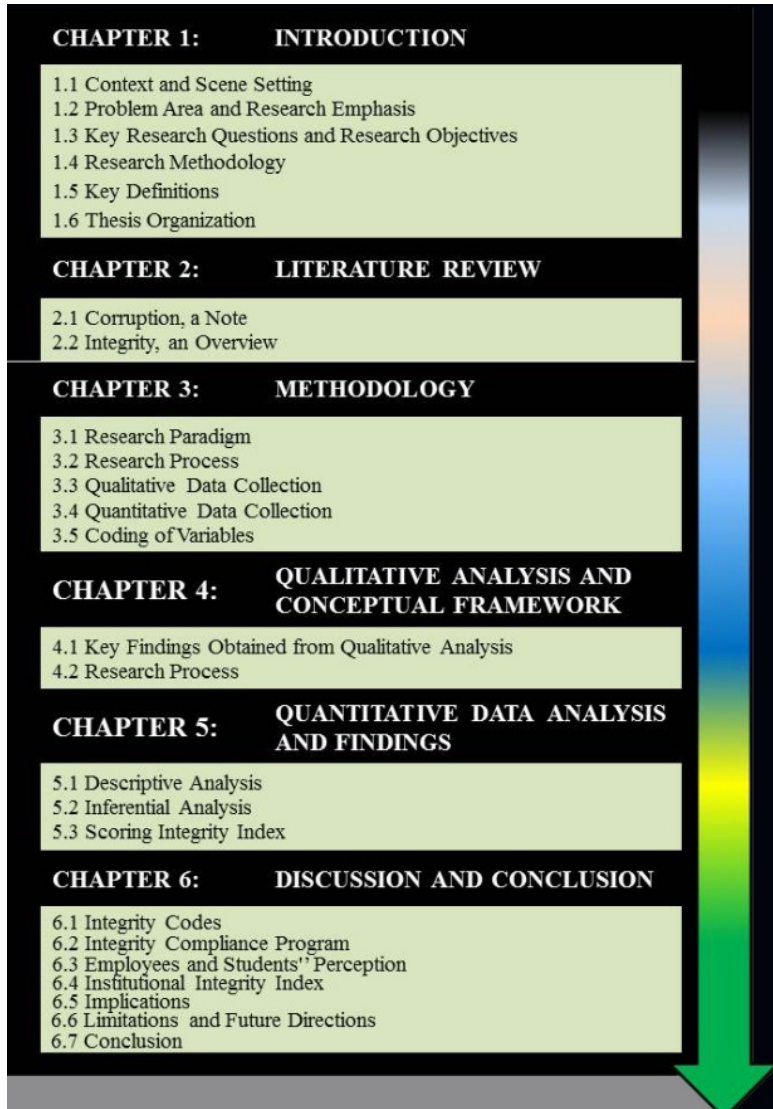


Figure 1.1: Thesis Organization



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 CORRUPTION; A NOTE

Corruption is a fierce and offensive expression. It calls consideration to undesirable behavior in a manner that resounds instantly and viscerally with researchers and practitioners alike. In the last ten to fifteen years an enormous interest of scholars to study corruption has been witnessed. This special focus is mostly motivated by increasing agreement among scholars, that corruption has many harmful consequences at individual, institutional and national level (Elliott, 1997; Rose-Ackerman, 1999; Wei and Wu, 2002; Rose-Ackerman, 2004; Basu, 2006; Toma, 2006; Rose and Peiffer, 2015). The symptoms of such harmful consequences could be, jeopardized economic growth and development (Wilhelm, 2002; Svensson, 2005), aggravated poverty (Gundlach and Paldam, 2008), income disparities (Li, Xu and Zou, 2000; Gupta, Davoodi and Alonso-Terme, 2002; Gyimah-Brempong, 2002; Gyimah-Brempong and de Gyimah-Brempong, 2006; Tebaldi and Mohan, 2010), dysfunctional institutions (Gould and Amaro-Reyes, 1983; Mauro, 1995; Gupta and Abed, 2002; Narasaiah, 2005), decline in foreign direct investment (Wei, 2000; Wei and Wu, 2002; Habib and Zurawicki, 2002; Hakkala, Norbäck and Svaleryd, 2008; Al-Sadig, 2009), erosion in fiscal stability, distortion of public expenditure decisions, reduction in the impact of development assistance, erosion of rule of law (Goudie and Stasavage, 1997; Elliot, 1997; Gupta, Davoodi, and Alonso-Terme, 1998), worse standard of living (Schedler, 1999; Seligson, 2002; Rothstein, 2011), boost brain drain; out-migration (Dimant, Krieger and Meierrieks, 2013; Cooray and Schneider, 2014), and the list is never ending.

Corruption is as old as organized human life (Klitgaard, 1998). Examples from the earliest human civilizations illustrate the eternal nature of corruption. For instance according to Llaca (2005) it was Aristotele who used the term corruption first time to explain cruelty, oligarchy and populism linked with the collapse of monarchist and democratic governments. Cicero; another roman philosopher, added the word bribe and rejection of good habits. European scholars highlighted the widespread corruption in Rome and Greece. Among others MacMullen (1988) contends that one of the major reasons for the fall of Roman Empire was corruption. Wilson (1989) mentions that corruption was prevailing in Athenian democratic state, even corruption were

such a major issue that an institution to investigate; the Council of Areopagus, was assigned a duty to report corrupt conduct (Everson, 1996).

Ancient world was not limited to Europe, likewise corruption was also evident beyond European boundaries, so an advisors to the emperor of India notes down in approximately 2400 years old text *The Arthashastra*, about the inexorableness of corruption, and of the need to capture it:

“It is impossible not to taste honey or poison that one may find at the tip of one’s tongue, so it is impossible for a government servant not to eat up at least a bit of the King’s revenue. And there are about forty ways of embezzlement by the government servant”.

China; another old civilization was not free from corruption. Lambsdorff, Taube and Schramm (2004) explain that in 300 B.C., the Qin dynasty disciplinary code specifies severe penalties for corruption. In the 11th century, Chinese reformer Wang An Shih noticed that corrupt practices can occur even under laws, and history witnessed that governance by depending only on the authority of law to regulate public servants is impossible unless public servants were not rightfully selected (Alatas, 1990). Park (1997) mentions, that among others, corruption and inadequate reforms were the reasons for collapse of Qing dynasty in 20th century.

Moving forward, exploitation of authority and fraudulent practices did not exist in distant past only, and no more remains a problem of developing countries alone. Rather now, it has emerged as a serious global issue and to secure their own economic interest the developed countries too are getting involved in controlling corruption in the developing countries (Basu, 2006). World Bank reports indicate that approximately more than 1 trillion US dollars annually are being paid as actual bribes worldwide, in both rich and developing countries. This amount was computed using economic data of 2001-02, when the size of world economy was approximately just over 30 trillion US dollars and this 1 trillion US dollars is bribe money alone, minus the misuse and misappropriation of public money or pilferages of public assets (Kaufmann, 2005). The estimated 1 trillion US dollars figure roughly equals to 3% of the world GDP (Svensson, 2005) and just over 3% of world income in 2002 (Rose-Ackerman, 2004).

Many have contended that state of corruption in China has really exacerbated since the mid of 1980s (Manion, 2004; Wedeman, 2005-2012). Despite numerous anti-corruption campaigns, corruption is successfully flourishing and apparently becoming even more active over time. Furthermore embezzlement of funds by some of the world leaders such as Mohamed Suharto of Indonesia embezzled 15 to 35 billion US dollars, Ferdinand Marcos in the Philippines is accused of 5 to 10 billion US dollars fraud, and Abacha in Nigeria may have embezzled up to US\$ 2 to 5 billion (GCR, 2004). Mobutu Sese Seko, former President of Zaire, was allegedly involved in embezzlement of US\$ 5 billion, an amount equivalent to total external debt of the country, when he was removed from power in 1997 (Svensson, 2005). The crackup and collapse of Enron, Global Crossing, Adelphia, Qwest, Tyco, and WorldCom; due to a series of fraudulent activities within (Ashforth, Gioia, Robinson and Treviño, 2008), are some examples of modern day corruption.

Very recently Panama Leaks reveals the greatest corruption scandal of the last and present century. On 3rd April 2016, news channels around the world started reporting about a shocking data leak of classified documents concerning the business activities of Mossack Fonseca; a law firm based in Panama and provider of corporate services. Along with this revelation came first news stories concerning firms and politicians, based on 150 of the leaked documents. Soon after, it was confirmed that the leaked data overall comprised an unprecedented 2.6 terabytes of data, or 11.5 million confidential documents. The leaked documents provided insights into the uses of more than 214, 000 shell companies during the past 45 years. Of the 214, 000 companies that appear in Mossack Fonseca's files, 90 percent were incorporated in just four tax havens, i. the British Virgin Islands (114, 000 firms), ii. Panama (48, 000 firms), iii. the Bahamas (16, 000 firms), and iv. the Seychelles (15, 000 firms). The remaining firms were incorporated in Niue (9, 600 firms), Samoa (5, 300 firms), British Anguilla (3, 200 firms), Nevada (1, 300 firms), Hong Kong (450 firms), the UK (150 firms), and a few other countries. Beside tax avoidance purposes, notably, offshore vehicles appear to be used to hide other value-enhancing but illegal activities (O'Donovan, Wagner and Zeume, 2016).

Names appeared in panama paper include politicians, government officials, celebrities from sports, superstars of entertainment realm, and business persons. Prominent names in the leak include "Malcolm Turnbull (*Prime Minister of Australia*), Sigmundur Davio Gunnlaugsson (*Former Prime Minister of Iceland*), Salman of Saudi Arabia (*King of Saudi Arabia*), Hamad bin Khalifa Al Thani (*former Emir of Qatar*), Petro Poroshenko

(*President of Ukraine*), Nawaz Sharif (*Current Prime Minister of Pakistan*), Benazir Bhutto (*former Prime Minister of Pakistan*), Ian Cameron (*Father of David Cameron; Prime Minister of Britain*), Amitabh Bachchan (*Bollywood actor*), Aishwarya Rai Bachchan (*former Miss World*), Jackie Chan (*Hollywood actor*), Lionel Messi (*Argentinian soccer player*), Bobby Fischer (*American former chess grandmaster*), Tiger Woods (*American professional golfer*), Louise Blouin (*Canadian, former businesswoman*), Mallika Srinivasan (*Indian businesswoman*), Bank Leumi (*Israeli bank*), Zulfiqar Lakhani (*Pakistani businessman and owner of Lakson Group and Express Media Group*) etc. (See: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/List_of_people_named_in_the_Panama_Papers#Heads_of_state).

Thus, it is uncontroversial to state that corruption is persistent and global (Gardiner, 1970). As a fact of the matter, corruption is cross-systemic, cross-temporal and cross-cultural; which means it can occur in any country, at any time, and under any rule of law or form of government. Therefore developing countries particularly in a fragile democracy like Pakistan are also badly plagued with the curse of corruption.

In a broader manner corruption appears in either financial or non-financial shape, but it can also appear to be non-financial for financial gain and vice versa. Corruption includes several behavioral actions: fraud, theft, money laundering of funds, and bribery (Cavill and Sohail, 2007). Likewise quid pro quo, manipulation of finances, exploitation of authority (Burke et al., 1997), criminal bribery, flourishing disparity, drowned voices, quenching hope from public, lack of integrity (Teachout, 2009), distortion of judgment, misuse of influence, deal of favors (Hellman, 2012), grand or political corruption, bureaucratic or petty corruption, and legislative corruption (Jain, 2001; Wong et al., 2012) are different shapes and shades in which corruption can appear. But what encourages corruption to occur is a question that requires real attention.

Attempts at answering, what are the causes of corruption progressed into comprehensive literature pointing at plentiful sets of independent variables. Some have adopted cultural and anthropological approaches (Banfield, 1958; Del Monte and Pagagni, 2007; Mocan, 2008), as well as psychological and criminological explanations (De Graaf and Huberts, 2008). Others have concentrated on elements of social and economic structure, such as inequality (Uslaner, 2005), or studied the influence of mixtures of economic and cultural factors such as capitalism (Sandholtz and Koetzle, 2000). Moreover, a World

Bank's in-depth study in six countries (Guatemala, Kenya, Latvia, Pakistan, Philippines, and Tanzania) identified four key corruption drivers; i) state fails to establish its role as guardian of public interest and public officials believe in "Clientelism" and focus on attending particular client groups linked to them by ethnic, geographic, or other ties ii) the rule of law is weak and accountability is not above board iii) there are obvious flaws in the accountability institutions and iv) the national leaders don't have the will and commitment to combat corruption (Shah and Schacter, 2004). Somewhat similar causes have been highlighted in the National Corruption Perception Surveys and they are; lack of accountability, low wages of government employees, and domination of authority or discretionary authority.

Corruption evidently seems to exist everywhere, afflicting for profit, not for profit, governmental, and, to the deep disappointment of many, even religious organizations. Involvement of a number of international organizations such as the Transparency International, the World Bank and other financial institutions that are constantly engaged in fight against corruption have given forums, and have generated public debates on, the issue (Armstrong, 2005). These organizations have publicized the problem and started anti-corruption movements in many countries. Pakistan as a developing democracy is severely plagued with the leprosy of corruption. Following subsection provide an overview of the magnitude of the problem.

2.1.1 Corruption in Pakistan

Pakistan is located in South Asia with a population of approximately 166 million, and remains in a list of lower middle-income country with GNI per capita of

"I see corruption as a mortal enemy for young democracies and a true enemy to development".

Tsakhiagiin Elbegdorj

US\$ 981. Corruption is pervasive, systemic and deep-rooted in Pakistan. It has become a way of life and is devouring the resources and moral values of the society. The founding father of Pakistan; Quaid-e-Azam Muhammad Ali Jinnah, considered bribery and corruption as poison and the biggest curses of all that needed to be dealt with an iron hand. But sadly, even after elapse of 68 years, Pakistan seems to be a classic case of a corruption ridden developing country, where corruption has become a way of life (Quah, 1999). Severe adverse effects of prevalent corruption can be seen in the development and progress of Pakistan. Corruption is actually restricting growth and

development in the country and various indices corroborate the veracity of this statement.

The data of Worldwide Governance Indicators (WGI) from Pakistan shows that governance levels have been poor from 1996-2014, and it lies in the lower percentiles with negative scores in all the six dimensions of governance i) Voice and Accountability, ii) Political Stability and Absence of Violence, iii) Government Effectiveness, iv) Regulatory Quality, v) Rule of Law and vi) Control of Corruption (WB, 2009). Moreover World Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Reports reveal that Pakistan has declined in the rankings from 83rd/122 (GCI, 2006-07) to 101st /134 (GCI, 2008-09) and remained at 101st position in next 2 years (GCI 2010-2011 and 2012-2013), but in coming year declined to lower position; 129th /133 (CGI, 2014-2015) and in latest report Pakistan stands still on 129th position (CGI, 2015-2016).

Furthermore, Yearly Corruption Perception Index (CPI) by Transparency International from 1995 onwards presents a depressing picture of corruption trends in Pakistan. Back in 1996, in a 54 nation study, Nigeria scored as the most corrupt and Pakistan as the second most corrupt nation in the world and as the most corrupt Asian country out of 13, with the CPI score of just 1 (*with ten being the least corrupt and one being the most corrupt*). Today Pakistan globally ranks at 117th /168 positions with the CPI score of just 3 placing it in line with other highly corrupt countries (CPI, 2015). From the time of its inclusion in the CPI, Pakistan's score has always been below 3.0 within the danger zone (*except CPI, 2015; where the score reaches to 3 but still in danger zone*). Table 2.1 reveals the consistent poor performance of Pakistan on the CPI rankings.

Table 2.1
Pakistan's Score and Rank in Yearly Corruption Perception Index

Sr	Year	Score
1	1995	2.2
2	1996	1.0
3	1997	2.5
4	1998	2.7
5	1999	2.2
6	2001	2.3
7	2002	2.6
8	2003	2.5
9	2004	2.1

10	2005	2.1
11	2006	2.2
12	2007	2.4
13	2008	2.5
14	2009	2.4
15	2010	2.3
16	2011	2.5
17	2012	2.7
18	2013	2.8
19	2014	2.9
20	2015	3

* CPI score ranges from 0 (most corrupt) to 10 (least corrupt)

Corruption is the second most problematic factor for companies doing business in Pakistan. On the Global Integrity Scorecard, Pakistan’s overall integrity has been rated as ‘Weak’, Legal framework is scored as ‘Very Strong’ but actual implementation is rated as ‘Very Weak’ (Global Integrity Report, 2010). Pakistan also displays all the features of a failing state. As per the Fragile States Index (2015), Pakistan is ranked at No.13/178 countries with a high score of 102.9/120 and falls in the ‘High Alert Zone’. The said index categorizes a country as ‘fragile’, when a state fails to serve its people and is in dire need of external help to save it from totally crumbling down. Here again the common element is corruption that has a significant part in making Pakistan vulnerable to failure as a state by weakening its society and institutions. Human development in Pakistan is ‘medium’ amongst the countries worldwide, it stands at the rank of 14th /182 with an HDI of 0.538 (HDR, 2015).

Likewise National Integrity System Report by Transparency International exposes Pakistan having strong laws but no rule of law (NIS, 2014). Accountability of public office holders, reformation of the judicial process, appointments on merit, increase in salaries of public servants, and curtailing discretionary powers are the suggested measures to reduce corruption in Pakistan (NCPS, 2013).

2.1.2 Corruption in Higher Education

Colleges and universities remain among the most respected institutions in

“A man who has never gone to school may steal a freight car, but if he has moral less education he may steal whole railroad”.

Theodore Roosevelt

society, and it is assumed by default that administrators, faculty, staff, and students operate with honesty and push away the corrupt intent, but unfortunately the ground realities are different. Changing economic circumstances, shifting professional prospects, and increasing institutional intricacy have formed new stresses to cut corners, understanding the risks, how corrupt practices occur, and taking action to tackle them embody important steps in safeguarding the continued non-corrupt higher education enterprise.

Corruption has pervasive but having shadowy nature, and same appears in case of education sector. The largest survey stalking worldwide public opinion on corruption; the Global Corruption Barometer (TI, 2013), studied more than 114 thousand respondents in 107 countries finds that corruption in education is a rising concern globally and the concern exists at all levels of the formal education system. The results reveal that 41% of citizen regarded the education system in their respective country to be corrupt or enormously corrupt, and it is unfortunate to witness a 6% increase between 2010/2011 and 2013 in the view. Though the data in the report does not provide a categorization by level of education thus the extent HEIs are viewed as corrupt cannot be separated out.

Corruption in higher education has not been discussed intensely in academic circles. What could be the reason? Might be academic institutions see themselves as somehow beyond the lower instincts of other sections of society, and society normally believe that universities are somehow superior institutions, inspired and instilled with the virtues of integrity. Yet, existence of corruption and unethical conduct, in various manifestations, is a reality of higher education in many parts of the world. It is time to commence a debate on the meaning and extent of corruption in higher education, since it appears to be an expanding, though undesirable fact, especially in developing countries where socio-economic crises are at their most sever conditions. Furthermore, corruption in educational institutions, including higher education, appears intensely damaging, as it weakens public trust in one of the vital and central societal institutions, and has been gone less examined by researchers for many decades, however (Hallak and Poisson 2007; Heyneman, 2013). Therefore the corruption in higher education has become point of emphasis for growing international concern and attention among governments, educators, students, and other stakeholders (TI, 2013; Kaunas Conference, 2013).

Corruption in higher education occurs around the globe in developing and developed countries (Sweeney, Despota and Lindner, 2013). Though there

are plenty instances of large-scale corruption in universities but it is the petty corruption that infuses into the day-to-day dealings in the classroom and across the campus, that are more devastating to the society in the long run. Amongst the major dangers of corruption in HEIs is the message it communicates to the generation in training; students, and people who facilitate that learning; teacher and staff. The real harm appears when employees and students start believing that success in life can be achieved through favoritism, bribery, and fraud instead of ability, and hard work. The widespread and dominance of such believe breaks the link between personal effort and anticipated reward which can consequently limit the return on society's economic and social investment in HEIs and has the potential to undermine civil society well into the future (Chapman and Lindner, 2014).

Majority of the present literature on explaining the corrupt, deviant or unethical act in an academic setting is focused on students' misconduct like cheating and plagiarism, for instance recent survey of 5,799 students by TLS Online Solutions (2015) indicating that 89% of students believe cheating in college will lead to cheating later in life and an earlier study by McCabe et al. (1996) report that 56% of graduate students and 47% of undergraduates "admitted to engaging in some form of cheating or questionable behavior". Startling statistics from the Educational Testing Center show that 80% of the country's best students cheated to top the exams, 40% cheated on a quiz or a test, 67% represented someone else's homework as their own, 95% of cheaters boldly said they were never caught and above 50% of the students surveyed clearly articulated that they do not consider cheating as a big and serious issue. Moreover Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996) detected twenty one (21) different types of student cheating (see: annexure A) in a case study of English College students. Vojak (2006) has noted that cheating "has become both more prevalent and more socially acceptable". Chiesl (2007) reported that students cheat because "Everyone else is doing it; I see others cheating". Bisping, Patron and Roskelley (2008) list 31 types of academic misconduct concerning the students (*see annexure B*) and most significant misconduct appears to be cheating. Though it is vital to examine the problem of cheating and misconduct by students, from the fact, that student dishonesty strongly associates with future business behaviors (Sims, 1993; Nonis and Swift, 2001), therefore need of addressing the academic dishonesty problem turns highly meaningful and demands serious immediate attention (McCabe, Butterfield and Trevino, 2012).

In Higher education institutions, possibility of corruption occurrence is open on both sides; administrative as well as academics. Table 2.2 represents the scholarly work that describes types of possible corrupt acts or misconducts and who might be involved in those corrupt acts in any higher education institution.

Table 2.2
Scholarly Work on Possible Corruption Occurrence in HEIs

Sr	Area	
1	Administration: include staff working for University; teaching and non-teaching members	Example Corruption in Procurement, Manipulation during Admissions, Sham degrees, Nepotism, cronyism or favoritism in hiring and promoting faculty, sexual harassment to staff and faculty
		Citations Lee and Kaplan (1995), Ledeneva (1998), Kelley and Parsons, (2000), Galitskii and Levin (2004), Vincent-Lancrin et al. (2013), Osipian et al. (2013), Denisova-Schmidt and Leontyeva (2013), Rumyantseva and Denisova-Schmidt (2015)
2	Academics: includes faculty members and staff	Example Plagiarism, Falsifying data, ghostwriting, academic collusion, ignoring corrupt act during exam, sexual harassment to students and colleagues, Misuse of university funds, selling admissions, manipulating accreditations,
		Citations Dziech and Weiner (1984), Schneider (1986), Fitzgerald et al. (1988), Lee and Kaplan (1995), Kelley & Parsons (2000), Townsley & Geist (2000), Cummings and Armenta (2002), DeSouza & Fansler (2003), Zaborovskaia et al. (2004), Rumyantseva (2005), Rimskii (2010), Morley (2011), Karabag and Berggren (2012), Oleinik (2012), Osipian (2012), Titaev (2012), Wilder (2014), Bruton and Rachal (2015), Rumyantseva and Denisova-Schmidt (2015)

Comment [DAA3]: This should be in the next section

3	Academic: includes Students	Example	Plagiarism, out sourcing of assignments or term papers/ thesis, gifts or payments in exchange of grades or preferential treatment, unauthorized materials during exams, providing, fraudulent or misleading excuses
		Citations	Bowers (1964), Sivak (2006), Latova and Latov (2007), Denisova-Schmidt (2013), Callahan (2014), Wei et al. (2014), Denisova-Schmidt (2015), Denisova-Schmidt et al. (2016)

2.1.3 Defining Corruption in Education

Comment [DAA4]: So, where is the definition?

Word corruption sounds too rude to be used for people associated to educational institutions, and many defend that misconduct by any employee or student of university should not be labeled as corruption; therefore it is pertinent to find what scholars have counted as corruption while examining and studying it in the educational sector. Amundsen (2000) emphasizes that any act of embezzlement, bribery, fraud, extortion, and favoritism in administrative and academic activities of a university, Tanaka (2001) highlights any unethical and corrupt behavior in procurement, administration, and classroom, Hallak and Poisson (2007) also mention corrupt behaviour, but indicate inapt financial allocation of specific allowances, misuse of funds in construction, maintenance and school repairs, inappropriate distribution of equipment; furniture, computer etc., selling self-written books, or promoting textbooks of particular publisher, influencing teacher appointment, unreasonable or biased teacher behaviour, manipulating information systems, taking favors for examinations, selling diplomas, and taking personal advantages during institutional accreditation, as possible corrupt behaviour.

“Abuse of entrusted power for private gain” the simplest and most accepted definition of corruption, opens a gate to the toughest and most complex challenge”. **Unknown**

Moreover Rumyantseva (2005) differentiates between corruption with and corruption without the involvement of students, and argues that both forms of corruption carries impact over the students’ attitudes and institutions’ culture; the first one does it directly, and the second indirectly. Osipian (2007)

considers corruption in education as a system of all formal and informal relations aimed to reach unsanctioned access to material and nonmaterial assets.

In spite of the presence of several inventive approaches to study educational corruption, many scholars work with Transparency International's definition of corruption "the abuse of entrusted power for private gain" and use it studying both public and private educational institutions (Denisova-Schmidt, 2016; Chapman and Lindner 2014). Denisova-Schmidt, Huber and Leontyeva (2016) and Denisova-Schmidt, Huber, and Prytula (2016) use the definition provided by Transparency International but expand it by examining the lack of integrity. Violations of integrity might be considered in different university activities: in the university admissions process, in the rules set for students, faculty and staff, and in the governance of educational institutions (Heyneman, 2004-2013).

2.1.4 How to Curb Corruption?

Though recognizing corrupt practices is significant, the real challenge lies in discovering effective and practical approaches for tackling the problem. Is it just simply

eliminating causes of corruption, a way out? No! Study of Dong and Torgler (2013) suggests that greater anti-corruption efforts, higher educational attainment, historic influence from dogmatic schools, disclosure, more access to media, higher relative wages of government employees, greater representation of women in the legislature, fiscal decentralization, and economic development depresses corruption significantly. Therefore attempts to combat corruption require the formation or modification of institutional structures and administrative processes designed at breaking the grip of well-rooted malpractices. This is very true in universities those manage their activities under steep hierarchies, with decision-making power firmly held by individuals at the top. Steep hierarchies tend to work against transparency because, as institutional structures are having less layers, information becomes more accessible as well as transparent, permitting easy and quick supervision of institutional activities.

Creating code of conduct is another globally accepted practice to combat corruption, but institutions need to be very cautious while creating codes of

"Fighting corruption is not just good governance. It's self-defense. It's patriotism". Joe Biden

conduct to curb unethical and corrupt practices, because codes can backfire if universities just add rules to eliminate objectionable practices or behaviors, or to satisfy the external pressures, in a haphazard or disconnected manner. As the number of codes grows they can interact in unanticipated ways and ultimately stifle legitimate reform (Chapman and Lindner, 2014). Moreover scholars insisted to have specific codes for whistleblowing; an act of disclosure by members of an institution of illegal and immoral acts perpetrated by the institution and institution members to persons or organizations that may bring about a change (Rehg, Miceli, Near & Van Scotter, 2008), is increasingly being recognized as an important tool in the prevention and detection of corruption and other immoral malpractices (TI, 2010).

Let us read the residual messages from countries of Asian origin those are lately proven victors against corruption in the most dreadful corrupt conditions.

South Korean Independent Commission Against Corruption (ICAC); established in 2002, mention six main functions to curb corruption “ i) to formulate and coordinate anti-corruption policies by organizing on a regular basis, ii) to evaluate the levels of integrity in public-sector organizations, iii) to guard whistle-blowers, protect and offer rewards to whistle-blowers, iv) to promote cooperation for the fight against corruption by encouraging civil society involvement and public-private partnership against corruption, v) to improve the legal and institutional frameworks to remove laws and practices which encourage corruption, and vi) to inculcate ethical values in society by promoting public awareness on the risks of corruption, and by enforcing the code of conduct for public sector employees” (SK-ICAC, 2006).

Singapore’s Corrupt Practices Investigation Bureau (CPIB) identified four tasks that can curtail corruption “i) to receive and investigate complaints alleging corrupt practices, ii) to investigate malpractices and misconduct by public officers with an undertone of corruption, iii) to prevent corruption by examining the practices and procedures in the public service, and iv) to minimize opportunities for corrupt practices”(CPIB, 2004).

Thailand’s National Counter Corruption Commission (NCCC) mentions three steps to control corruption “i) to make recommendations on preventing corruption to the Cabinet and other government agencies, ii) to enhance the integrity of the officials and public by organizing contests, meetings and seminars on fighting corruption among the people and civil servants, and iii)

to foster cooperation among the public by conducting seminars on countering corruption (ICAC, 1989). NCCC offers a trinity of purpose; enacting laws, building integrity through education, and developing cooperation. This three-pronged approach is critical for developing a new public consciousness.

2.1.4.1 Combating Corruption in Higher Education

Approaches to combat corruption in HEIs are not essentially different from the approaches used in other social and governmental institutions. However, a number of scholars and practitioners have proposed strategies to combat corruption with a specific relevance and application in HEI settings (Poisson and Hallak 2002; Heyneman 2002; Chapman 2005; Hallak and Poisson 2007). The approaches being advocated, for the most part, call for rather similar actions. Poisson and Hallak (2002) suggest that an effective response to corruption needs to involve (a) limiting authority, (b) improving accountability, (c) realigning incentives, and (d) changing attitudes and mobilizing political will. Likewise, Heyneman (2002) organizes preventive measures into four types: (a) structural reforms necessary to reduce the opportunity for corruption, (b) improvements in adjudication in management to help anticipate questions of definition and interpretation, (c) measures necessary to actually prevent corrupt practices, and (d) sanctions required to demote or punish when infractions occur.

Most of the scholars recommend having a clear code of conduct across all roles like teaching-non-teaching, and students. And these individuals at the campus also need to be aware of these codes, so they comprehend what behaviors represent corrupt practices, especially when proper professional conduct could contradict to social norms generally accepted outside of the education workplace. For example, a code of conduct must clarify and sets limits on accepting gifts in return for professional favor, even though gift giving may be thought suitable in other social scenarios (Chapman 2005).

A range of viable techniques and tools are available to frame strategic approaches to corruption. The “audit triangle” focuses upon the strategic power of auditors to unveil corruption and predict where the most likely slippages will occur. It focuses on the dynamic interaction among perceived pressures, perceived opportunities and risk, and the range of available rationalizations. Similarly, ethics audits or vulnerability assessments enable organizations to identify critical leverage points to deploy leadership, management, technology,

auditing, and various supports to address corruption (Lewis and Gilman 2005; Barth et al. 2008; Albrecht et al. 2011).

Moreover international institutions advocated that establishing and assessing integrity management systems is another approach to curb corruption in a particular organization. This study is about and around the components and measurement of an absolutely customized integrity program for public sector universities in Pakistan. Thus the review in second section will introduce what is integrity, and integrity structure, and how can it cure corruption.

2.2 INTEGRITY; AN OVERVIEW

Integrity is a ubiquitous ideal in system and structures, leaders: politicians, employees desire it from their managers, religious faithful expect it from clergy, stockholders demand it from corporations, and students wish to see it in teachers and educational environment, thus everyone seems to want integrity, but as Carter's quote alludes to, there appears to be great confusion about what it is or how to foster it. This fascination with integrity is increasingly becoming a significant topic in organizational studies, especially (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; Craig and Gustafson, 1998; Avolio and Howell, 1995; Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002; Peterson, 2004; Simons, 1999). Integrity is frequently used in management literature as a normative descriptor. The study of integrity, however, suffers from three significant problems: too many definitions, too little theory, and too few rigorous empirical studies. Let us review the scholarly contribution in understanding integrity.

In *Webster's New World Dictionary* "integrity" is defined as: "1. the quality or state of being complete; unbroken condition; wholeness; entirety; 2. the quality or state of being unimpaired; perfect condition; soundness; and 3. the quality or state of being of sound moral principle; uprightness, honesty, and sincerity". Integrity is often related to specific moral or ethical behaviors, like it is sometimes synonymous with honesty (Den Hartog and Koopman, 2002; Newman, 2003; Peterson and Seligman, 2004; Posner, 2001; Trevino et al., 2000; Yukl and VanFleet, 1992) or being trustworthy (Paine, 1994; Baccili, 2001; Den Hartog and Koopman, 2002;; Trevino et al., 2000). Integrity is similarly linked with justice (Baccili, 2003; Bews and Rossouw, 2002; Den Hartog and Koopman, 2002; Rawls, 1971) or respect (Baccili, 2001). Integrity can mean openness (Baccili, 2001; Koehn, 2005; Paine, 2005; Peterson and

Seligman, 2004; Rawls, 1971) or empathy and compassion (Koehn, 2005; Lowe et al., 2004), thus integrity is the personal characteristic of consistency, honesty, and trustworthiness (Peterson & Seligman, 2004; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Likewise many authors have related integrity to a general conceptualization of morality in some respect. As a side note, in the integrity literature the terms “ethics/ethical” and “morality/moral” generally refer to actions which are in accordance with socially acceptable behavior. An example would be that “a person of the highest integrity” is a highly ethical or moral person. Some researchers have operationalized integrity as the absence of unethical behavior (Craig and Gustafson, 1998; Helton-Fauth et al., 2003; Posner, 2001), which has the effect of framing integrity as doing what is acceptable, but not necessarily doing more than the minimum. More commonly, integrity is associated with better than- expected ethical or moral behavior and not merely the absence of unethical or immoral actions. For example, in a qualitative study about manager and company obligations to employees, Baccili (2001) found that integrity was a frequently cited concept, and a key component was having a moral and ethical standard. Furthermore, while assessing the effect of integrity on job performance for U.S. presidents, Newman (2003) showed that assessments about presidential integrity have perennially included the word “moral”. Badaracco and Ellsworth (1991) noted that integrity suggests “a sense of moral soundness and consists of manager’s personal values, daily actions, and basic organizational aims” and Batson et al. (2001) stated that displaying moral integrity is “to act in accord with moral principles as an ultimate goal.”

The use of integrity to denote ‘wholeness’ serves to convey the idea that integrity is multi-faceted, and tends to be an inclusive term that subsumes other aspects of integrity, thus integrity as ‘wholeness’ better be taken as a description of overall person rather than a constitutive element. More specifically, the idea of integrity as ‘wholeness’ may provide a clue that an important aspect of integrity is an overall consistency of behavior, thoughts, and emotions across time and situations; so, the overall person is in view here, not simply isolated aspects of the person.

One of the principle notions of integrity as behavioral consistency is the perceived match between an actor’s words and actions. This concept has been operationalized by Simons (1999), as behavioral integrity (BI), but is also a major theme in other discussions of integrity (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1991;

Paine, 2005; Tracey and Hinkin, 1994; Worden, 2003). One theoretical component of BI construct is explicit promise keeping (Simon's, 2002; Bews and Rossouw, 2002; Posner, 2001). A second theoretical component of Simons' BI construct is perceived consistency between espoused values and actual displayed values; a more subtle concept than explicit promise-keeping. This aspect of integrity is opposite to the notion of hypocrisy (Cha and Edmondson, 2006). It is also important to note that when integrity is used in this manner, it is often assumed, but not explicitly stated, that word and action consistency remains stable across time and situations.

Many scholars see integrity as an unchanging behavior in the face of adversity, temptation, or challenge (Duska, 2005; Paine, 2005; Posner, 2001; Worden, 2003). While conceptually very similar to the word and action consistency aspect of integrity; BI, the use of integrity in this manner explicitly involves the presence of adverse situation as a necessary condition for integrity to occur, whereas only the word and action consistency aspect does not. Paine (2005) suggests that persons of integrity "stand for something and remain steadfast when confronted with adversity or temptation". Worden (2003) also remarks "the hallmark of integrity is an acted-out commitment to principled behavior in the face of adversity or temptation at great cost to oneself." McFall, 1987 also argued that adversity, temptation, or challenge is a necessary condition for integrity because integrity must involve a choice between two courses of action, if there is no choice, then there is no integrity. Carter (1996) echoes McFall's position by pointing out that "we admire those who stand up for their beliefs when they have something to lose". At the very least, the presence of adversity or challenge makes integrity become more salient, thus presence of a situation characterized by adversity, temptation, or challenge may have an important effect on proving one's integrity.

Another approach to define integrity is by classifying it in relation to other virtues. Audi and Murphy (2006) distinguish between two broad categories of virtues: substantive and adjunctive. Substantive virtues are those which are morally good in them; for example, honesty and fairness, because demonstrating honesty or fairness is to act inherently in a morally upright way. Adjunctive virtues are those which are not morally good or bad in themselves, but are necessary for achieving moral uprightness; for example, courage and steadfastness. Put another way, to act with courage does not necessarily mean to act in a morally upright way, for even the vilest acts can require courage. Yet demonstrating honesty in a situation where there is the potential for personal loss also requires courage. In this situation, courage is necessary, but

not sufficient alone, for displaying honesty is also required. So we can say that integrity is a substantive as well as adjunctive virtue; and that represents the wholeness.

2.2.1 Integrity; How?

Literature sees rules or codes as major controllers of ethical behavior (Victor and Cullen 1988; Wimbush and Shepherd 1994; Martin and Cullen 2006; Arnaud and Schminke 2012) and integrity at organization; especially in bureaucratic public organizations those have hierarchy, a complex division of labor, collective production, and a heavy reliance on codes (Buchanan 1996; Weber 1946).

Codes are written expressions of institutional norms and values. Langlois and Schlegelmilch (1990) explain integrity codes as a statement setting down institutions' principles, ethics, rules of conduct, codes of practice or institutions' philosophy concerning responsibility to employees, shareholders, consumers, the environment, or any other aspects of society external to the company. Explicit formal integrity codes, not only advance positive perception among stakeholders (Valentine and Barnett, 2003) but also influence the conduct of its members (McCabe et al. 1996). Study of Adams, Tashchian and Shore (2001) found that employees from institutions having codes are more ethical than respondents from institutions without codes and institution with integrity codes extend support and encouragement to employees facing ethical dilemmas. Moreover, studying 237 MBA students in Singapore, Chye Koh and Boo (2001) found that enforcement of the code, and top management support has significantly incremental influence on the positive conduct of the students.

Integrity code, ideally determines the institutions' core belief (Adams, Tashchian and Shore, 2001), and assures its commitment and seriousness toward rightful conduct (Schwepker, 2001). Other advantages of having integrity codes include enhanced institutional reputation and image, a sense of community is developed throughout the institution, and institutions' can save themselves from certain penalties if they produce effective and meaningful codes (McKendall, DeMarr and Jones-Rikkens, 2002). Moreover Transparency International guides that a concise, well-publicized statement of core integrity standards can accomplish shared understanding across institution within the broad community.

Scholars have identified that integrity codes alone cannot deliver the desired results, but a parallel compliance mechanism can offer so. Young (1979) defined compliance as “all behaviour by subjects or actors that conform to the requirements of behavioural prescriptions.” Compliance has two major theoretical perspectives i) instrumental and ii) normative; however, the two are not mutually exclusive (Zaelke, Kaniaru, and Kružíková, 2005). Instrumental perspective of compliance is entrenched in neo-classical economics, and considers actors as rational individuals who choose among alternatives, on the bases of their self-interest and assessment of anticipated costs and benefits of compliance vs. non-compliance (Becker, 1968; Ehrlich, 1972). Accordingly, this perspective highlights strong measures, such as enforcement (detection) and sanction (punishment) as the main actions for obtaining compliance (Sutinen and Andersen, 1985; Hønneland, 1999; Sutinen and Kuperan, 1999). On the other side ‘normative perspective’ of compliance has their root in sociological and psychological literature, covering human behavior and action (Carrol, 1987; Jolls et al., 1998) in context of the social norms; commonly accepted rules that prescribe desirable behaviour, and forbid behaviour that is considered undesirable (Cialdini and Trost, 1998), they live in (Cialdini and Trost, 1998; Ellickson, 1989; Elster, 2009). This perspective focuses the role of obligation, responsibility and sense of duty instead of explicit calculations of costs and benefits (Young, 1979).

Though literature supports the relationship between existence of formal codes and members conduct (Ferrell and Skinner, 1988; McCabe et al. 1996), however, previous studies have also found that the existence of integrity codes make negligible impact on employees’ conduct (Chonko and Hunt, 1985; Cleek and Leonard, 1998). One reason of such clash between results is that institutions’ having integrity codes and compliance mechanism but might not include awareness program for its personnel, to propagate the existence of codes and get its employees acquainted with their composition (Wotruba, Chonko, and Loe 2001), which implies that employees’ awareness of the integrity code as a part of compliance mechanism is likely more important than just plainly the existence or nonexistence of the code itself (Valentine and Barnett, 2003). Public servants need to know the basic principles and standards they are expected to apply to their work and where the boundaries of acceptable behavior lie.

During in-depth interviews Huberts, Lamboo and Punch (2003) identified awareness programs, openness and transparency as the strongest influencers on significant changes in perception and action of government

official toward integrity violations. While proposing a ten-step model to ensure academic integrity Caldwell (2010) precisely mentioned the need to i) conduct integrity orientation ii) manage integrity training program for the faculty, iii) articulation of the purpose of integrity system, iv) explanation and clarification of the policies, v) development and refinement of integrity curricula, vi) monitored enforcement and documentation, vii) implementation of a realistic process for addressing integrity violations, viii) evaluation of outcomes and ix) commitment to integrity.

Adding more the real question is, where rules end and where value begins?, which has been a frequent and important theme in the public administration literature (Finer 1941=1972; Friedrich 1940=1972). The current stress on ethics and integrity norms that go beyond “corruption” means that this question has again become increasingly relevant (Lasthuizen, Huberts, and Heres 2011). Over the past two decades, many public organizations have sought to incorporate more value-based elements in their approach to integrity management (OECD 2003; Huberts, Maesschalck, and Jurkiewicz 2008). Following Maesschalck (2004–2005), we distinguish between predominantly compliance-based or rule-based approaches “emphasizing the importance of external control on the behavior of public servants” and integrity or value-based approaches which stress the need for ethical “self-control exercised by each public servant.” Value-based approaches usually aim at ensuring that public servants have a higher degree of personal awareness of ethical issues, such as conflicts of interest, and are less reliant on rules to arrive at morally defensible positions. Though rules are entrenched in long-established practice and seems essential for efficient governance (Gilman 1999), but complexity of issues in modern world cannot simply be resolved by rules and creating more rules.

Any serious attempts to develop integrity and fight corruption require sustained political will, institutionalization, and a holistic approach. The OECD and Transparency International refer to integrity systems that are imbedded in each country. These systems ideally address everything from legislatures to human resource systems and to enforcement patterns. Transparency International publishes periodic updates on the integrity systems of many countries as well as a yearly assessment of perceptions of corruption across the globe. The holistic approach demands that leading, managing, and systems push down to the daily practice at the point of task performance with management and strong auditing and transparency programs (OECD, 1998, 2009; Huberts and Hoekstra, 2014; Visser, 2014; Schwartz, 2011; Kooistra,

Comment [DAA5]:

Comment [DAA6]:

2014; Langseth et al., 1997). These initiatives across countries and over time have created relative clarity and consistency about how to address integrity in institutions (OECD, 2016).

The OECD principles for managing integrity along with various United Nations proposals converge on the process standards that focus upon internal coherence, consistency, and accountability for public officials and preventing abuse of power and misusing funds (Transparency International 2000; UN 2004). These are:

- Integrity standards should be clear and public
- Integrity standards should align with laws and legal framework
- Integrity guidance and support should be available for public servants
- Integrity should be available to expose wrongdoing
- Political will should support Integrity standards
- Decisions and processes should be transparent and open to scrutiny
- Relations with the private sector should be regulated and transparent
- Managers as well as policies in all areas such as procurement, regulation, and client service should promote Integrity standards and accountability
- Human resource systems should promote and protect Integrity in public servants
- Laws should be enforced and violations should be prosecuted and enforced

This approach can be expanded to how business should conduct itself and its relations with government (UNODC, 2013). It places special emphasis upon transparent accountability at the leadership level and strong cultures of integrity and compliance (Greenberg, 2013; Burke et al., 2011). Modern cognitive psychology reinforces the notion that individuals can develop such

commitments and change their commitments and frames of action in light of experience, leadership, and culture. Humans can practice and train themselves to a high level of professional or institutional integrity (Cialdini, 2009; Solomon, 2007; Damasio, 2012; Baumeister, 1991; Korsgaard, 2009).

National Integrity System (NIS) by Transparency International offers a way to broadly assess the integrity level in the basic pillars of any state; legislature, media, judiciary, ombudsman etc. by looking at availability of rules, their implementation and monitoring. Though there are certain limitations attached, but NIS reports provide a general appearance of the quality of integrity in the participant countries and pin point the areas of concern, and are still considered much valuable and useful.

Hong Kong was a city where institutionalized corruption penetrated every strata of society. Bribes known as "tea money" were paid for basic services, from getting a home phone installed to making sure firefighters showed up when there was a blaze. Considering bribery as a major act of corruption Hong Kong in 1974 established an Independent Commission Against Corruption (ICAC) that developed a set of rules; "gold standard" of anti-corruption agencies (Batory, 2012) which brought a significant drop over the years in number of public servants convicted of corruption. Before the resumption of Chinese sovereignty in 1997 it was observed that instead of bribery other forms of corruption e.g. money laundering, deferred advantages, favoritism, and other forms of conflicts of interest, are increasing and youth were becoming more tolerant of corruption (Scott and Leung 2012). After realizing that corruption is not simply a crime to be investigated but an ideology that needs to be eradicated from society, and there are number of acts of corruption those could not be easily taken care of or prosecuted through a rule based approach, therefore ICAC in 1998 set in motion an integrity enhancement program which was designed "to embed the culture of integrity through the leadership and commitment of the senior management so that a sustaining ethical culture can flourish in the public sector" (Legislative Council 2008). In 2006 the government also created a post of Ethical Officer to continue and make value-based integrity management program embedded as an integral part of the work of any public sector organization. Deterrence, prevention and education are three prongs of successful ICAC integrity management program. Thus integrity approach began to dominate in the 1990s as a result of three simultaneous developments (Bertram Gallant 2008).

Approaches to managing Integrity on campuses include proactive and preventive measures such as policies, procedures, and codes in an attempt to help deter violations and ultimately change the climate of dishonesty and misconduct into one of integrity and respect for learning (Hamlin, Barczyk, Powell, & Frost, 2013) at the institutions.

2.2.2 Integrity in Higher Education

The necessity and mechanisms for maintaining integrity in the academic environment have intrigued educators and researchers for many decades. Despite the enormous expenditures of time, energy, money and commitment of academic institutions to develop effective methods to ensure integrity in educational institutions, dishonest practices continue and many believe they are growing at epidemic rates (Kithara, 2009). Although the experience suggests that magnitude of the rates of corruption in education may be different, but the trends are similar (Kitahara and Westfall, 2006-2008). It has been realized that the burden of creating proper ethical culture must be shared by all stakeholders in the academic process, including instructors; many of whom retain the conventional view that their responsibility is limited to conveying the course material to the students, administrators, management; high-ups and students. Today's college students have been raised in an era of societal concerns about integrity. Confronted with media reports of scandal, dishonesty and corruption by public officials, corporations, and private citizens, many students may be skeptical when they hear academic administrator's present orientation speeches extolling the virtues of integrity.

Literature reviews and meta-analyses related to Integrity in an academic setting have been conducted periodically over the past 20 years (Jordan, 2001; McCabe et al., 2012; McCabe, Treviño, & Butterfield, 2001; Molnar, Kletke, & Chongwatpol, 2008; Whitley, 1998). These studies in literature reviews, assessments of the amount and types of violations, explanatory and predictive models, and preventive and deterrence strategies, among others, but given numerous research studies, campus policies, and codes of conduct including honor codes, integrity violations are pervasive (Honny, Gadbury-Amyot, Overman, Wilkins, & Petersen, 2010; Minarcik & Bridges, 2015; Stuber-McEwen, Wiseley, & Hoggatt, 2009) in academic setting.

If faculty and administrators seem to ignore or condone academic dishonesty in the academic setting, Broeckelman-Post (2008) suggests that students are more likely to engage in dishonest behaviors. Early research by

McCabe and Trevino (1993) found that several factors associated with student perception were important in affecting the likelihood of students engaging in academic dishonesty, including student perceptions of i) peer behavior, ii) faculty understanding and acceptance of policies about integrity, iii) overall effectiveness of these policies, and iv) severity of the penalties imposed on those who cheated. Dalton (1985) had proposed that peer values were influential in creating a peer culture accepted by college students. McCabe et al. (2002) opined that “peer perceptions concerning academic dishonesty can be an important influence as students make individual decisions about cheating.” A later study by McCabe et al. (2006) confirmed peer perceptions were particularly important for graduate business students in the decision about whether to cheat.

While there is no map or a linear; step-by-step guide, to institutionalizing integrity in academic setting, though there are four stages through which universities can move. These are checkpoints, or benchmarks, that allow campus officials to measure progress and celebrate successes. Four stages of institutionalizing academic integrity are i) recognition and commitment, ii) response generation, iii) implementation, and iv) institutionalization (Davis et al. 2010; Drinan & Bertram Gallant, 2008; and, Bertram Gallant & Drinan, 2008). Moreover Bertram Gallant (2008) proposed that any effort to fundamentally change an institution’s approach toward integrity requires an understanding of its current institutional response to corrupt acts and integrity.

There has been considerable research on academic misconduct; though mainly focused on student cheating, beginning with the first large-scale survey conducted by William Bowers, who in 1963 sent questionnaires to a sample of students drawn from 99 schools in the USA, and received 5000 responses (Bowers 1964). Since Bowers’ work, student surveys in the academic integrity literature have tended to focus on self-reported student cheating and academic misconduct, and researchers have often aimed to determine the causes of such behaviour. Many surveys have also explored demographic relationships with specific types of academic misconduct (e.g. gender, discipline, level of study, age, nationality). Large-scale surveys on student cheating have since been undertaken in a range of countries.

In North America, Don McCabe and colleagues have led the way since 1990, having conducted numerous large surveys in both the United States and Canada (Christensen-Hughes and McCabe 2006; McCabe and Trevino 1993,

1995, 1996; McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield 2001, 2004). The number of student respondents range from 14,913 (Christensen-Hughes and McCabe 2006) to over 60,000 (over a three-year period; see McCabe 2005). In broad terms, McCabe's survey instrument investigates student behaviours related to tests and examinations. These include copying from another student with or without their consent or knowledge; using unauthorized notes; obtaining information about a test from a student who has previously undertaken the exam; helping someone else cheat; and using false excuses to gain an advantage (McCabe 2005, 2). Although the survey is also administered to teaching faculty to 'assess the overall climate of academic integrity on a campus' (McCabe 2005), the main respondents to the survey are undergraduate students, and a key focus has been to determine the extent of cheating on campus. While there has been a focus on academic misconduct in many of the surveys, McCabe has stated that 'the major objective of my work over the last 15 years has been to help colleges and universities think about strategies to improve the climate of academic integrity on their campuses' (McCabe 2005, 9). Particular questions in McCabe's survey relate to how students are informed about academic integrity policy and how academic integrity is linked to integrity in the wider community. These questions are relevant to the survey reported here. Without exception, the key finding from all of these surveys has been that breaches of academic integrity are rife in colleges and universities around the world. In fact, little appears to have changed since Bowers' first report in 1964. In that study, 75% of students surveyed admitted to having engaged in at least one of 13 'questionable' behaviours (such as copying or using unauthorised notes in an exam). McCabe and Bowers conducted a follow-up study of the same campuses in 1994 and found that there had been only a modest increase in the overall proportion of students admitting to these behaviours, although some specific behaviours had increased dramatically (McCabe and Bowers 1994). Brimble and Stevenson-Clarke (2005) reported a similar figure of 72% of Australian students having admitted to cheating.

The issue of sustainable integrity in an academic setting is an issue worldwide. Let us start this subsection by examining what have been done in different parts of the world to foster integrity in an educational setting.

2.2.2.1 Australia

National interest in academic integrity, specifically breaches of academic integrity such as plagiarism, can be traced in Australia back to the 1990s and early years of the new millennium. In the media, "plagiarism"

became the byword for controversy, scandal, and everything that was negative in the increasingly commercialized and internationalized Australian higher education sector (Rollison 2001; Giglio 2003; Illing 2003; Lane 2003; Sinclair 2003). In 2001, Marsden completed her honors thesis entitled *Who Cheats at University?* (2001) and in 2002, the Cooperative Action by Victorian Academic Libraries (CAVAL) made headlines across the country with the release of findings from the Electronic Plagiarism Detection Project. The key results of the study of 1,925 student essays from six universities in Victoria were that nearly 14 % of the essays “contained an unacceptable level of unattributed materials” (O’Connor 2003,) and 8 % of students had taken large chunks of text without acknowledgment (as reported by Buckell 2002). Shortly after the release of the CAVAL report, John Barrie, the founding CEO of iParadigms; the US Company responsible for developing the text-matching software Turnitin, made a presentation on the capabilities of the software at the University of South Australia. As a result of this presentation, key stakeholders at the University of South Australia formed a committee to organize a conference on the topic of plagiarism. That conference, convened by Helen Marsden and entitled as *Educational integrity: Plagiarism and other Perplexities* (Marsden et al. 2003), was held in November 2003 and paved the way for the educational integrity movement in Australia. At the conclusion of the conference, the Asia Pacific Forum on Educational Integrity (APFEI) was established, with Helen Marsden as chair and Tracey Bretag as deputy chair. Key Themes in the Australian Educational Integrity Movement include; definition matters, text-matching software are urgent need, focus on policy, academic integrity-a national priority, international collaborations.

2.2.2.2 Japan

The teaching of integrity or morality has in fact long been present in the Japanese education system, commencing soon after children enter elementary school. At present, elementary and junior high school students receive 34–35 class hours of moral education training during each school year with traits such as courage, courtesy, self-moderation, public duty, and respect for culture (Wheeler, 2016). Examinations are of extreme importance and majority of subjects, particularly those in the sciences, students’ grades are determined largely by their scores on end-of-term exams. Class participation, research assignments, and attendance are of less importance, although it should be noted that most Japanese universities have strict attendance rules; students must attend at least two-thirds of any given subject’s class or risk receiving a failing grade. Due to the importance of the exams, many universities include a section

with their syllabus handbooks distributed to students imploring them to remain honest and outlining briefly the consequences for those caught cheating on exams, which can range from failing the course to expulsion (Wheeler, 2009). In contrast, instruction aimed toward avoiding fraudulent research or plagiarism is limited. Among some Western scholars that plagiarism is not considered a major concern in Japan (Dryden 1999). Although this theory is problematic (Wheeler 2014), few universities have official policies regarding plagiarism, and punitive action for students discovered to have plagiarized, is mostly at the individual instructors' discretion. Moreover, although students may have received moral training earlier in their educational careers, there is little evidence of an honor system in place in the universities.

2.2.2.3 Indonesia

Among the myriad forms of academic misconduct, one that has recently drawn the attention of the Government of Indonesia, especially within the national education ministry, is plagiarism. Some of the main reasons for giving special attentions to the cases of plagiarism are the prevalence of violations (ranging from students to professors), the magnitude of losses (in material and nonmaterial for the actors, original author, readers, or the institution where the perpetrator is stationed), and the relatively high probability of being detected (especially in the form of word-to-word or verbatim plagiarism). The Director General of Higher Education (DG-HE) detected incidences of applying shortcuts in producing scientific work by way of plagiarism. The DG-HE appealed to each college for the strict prevention and control of plagiarism by a commission or committee. Unfortunately the circular from the DG-HE was considered ineffective because it did not provide adequate details regarding the definition and range of academic misconduct. After approximately 11 years, the government (Minister of National Education) finally passed a law which specifically regulates sanctions for plagiarism in college.

In August 2010, just 1 day before the commemoration of Independence Day in Indonesia, the Minister of National Education issued the Ministry of National Education Regulation (MNER), Article 17 on plagiarism prevention and control in colleges. The article provides definition, prevention mechanism and sanctions. Moreover Academic Integrity Campaign is launched to curb plagiarism. Later, Siaputra (2012) suggested a simple approach entitled AK.SA.RA. The term AK.SA.RA: originated from the word "aksara" is derived from Sanskrit with the meaning of "imperishable," "nontransient," or "unalterable" (Crollius 1974; Raju 1985; Hooykas 1964 cited in Rubinstein

2000). Crollius (1974) also suggested that aksara could also be defined as “precisely as ‘syllable,’ ‘essence and embryo of speech’.” Siaputra (2012) take this knowledge of the earliest meaning of ‘aksara’ and believe that the use of AK.SA.RA in the Academic Integrity Campaign will serve as a long-lasting core of the campaign, being the imperishable essence in its use for developing a better academic community. In the context of the Academic Integrity Campaign in Indonesia, the term AK.SA.RA is used as an acronym of Knowledge.

2.2.2.4 Europe

The combination of changes affecting higher education during the last decade of the twentieth century and first years of the twenty-first century raises questions about the security of Higher Education (HE) student assessment in many parts of Europe. Research was conducted and some innovative developments into holistic approaches to academic integrity were initiated in some parts of Europe to try to improve educational standards for deterring plagiarism and to ensure plagiarism in student work was detected and suitably managed, notably in the UK (Carroll 2005; Carroll and Appleton 2001; Macdonald and Carroll 2006; Morris and Carroll 2011; Park 2004; Tennant and Duggan 2008; Tennant and Rowell 2010), Sweden (Pecorari 2011; Zeterling and Carroll 2007) and the Netherlands (Pieters et al. 2006; Roes 2005).

The project *Impact of Policies for Plagiarism in Higher Education Across Europe* (IPPHEAE 2010–2013) aimed to explore how academic integrity was understood and managed in different parts of the EU. The geographical scope of the research was confined to the then 27 member states of the EU (Glendinning, 2016). The IPPHEAE survey captured information about i) whether EU-HEI participants had policies for the wide range of possible types of misdemeanors that constitute academic misconduct, especially focusing on student plagiarism, ii) were policies in place; it was important to get some measure of their nature and efficacy, particularly: i) level of implementation and responsibilities for action and decisions, ii) consistency and transparency of policies and procedures, iii) communication about the policies to all stakeholders, iv) level of knowledge and understanding of the policies, v) type and range of available sanctions, vi) monitoring and review of the system, vii) evidence of system being applied as intended and viii) extent to which system was effective for deterring and detecting cases.

The main focus of the IPPHEAE research was to explore the effectiveness of institutional policies for managing academic conduct. Although the great majority of respondents agreed that their institution had policies for plagiarism and academic misconduct, but most of the respondents demonstrated little knowledge about the detail of the policies. Also, as reported earlier, many of the policies referred to, either at national or institutional level, were aimed at research and doctoral level studies rather than applying to bachelor and master's degree students.

Project results reveal that fundamental disparities were identified that pose serious impediments to reaching a common European understanding on policies for academic integrity. Firstly, there is no consensus across Europe and even within countries or institutions on what constitutes plagiarism. Sweden was the only EU country that was found to have implemented national legislation defining policies and procedures for handling cases of misconduct, including accusations of plagiarism in HEIs (Universitets-och högskolerådet).

2.2.2.5 USA

Since becoming a focus of scholarly activity, academic integrity has most often been looked upon in the USA as being concerned with student activities, perceptions, and behavior. It is now recognized that academic integrity is not just about students. Assessment validity, pedagogical practices, institutional processes, campus norms, and faculty and administrative staff conduct all contribute to the climate of integrity on a given campus. Spearheading efforts to address issues of integrity in their full complexity, the International Center for Academic Integrity (ICAI) is another unique feature in the context of academic integrity in the USA. The ICAI was founded (as the Center for Academic Integrity) in 1992 in response to alarming research on the subject conducted by Founding President Donald McCabe.

2.3 The Crux

From the above literature it is realized that while discussing establishing integrity in educational institutions majority of studies overlooked the administrative sphere of educational institutions; that has indubitably an important influence on shaping overall integrity of the institution. And in the academic sphere scholars have mainly shed light on detecting students' integrity; chiefly in examination process, and has largely overlooked sensing the teachers' and systems' integrity.

Comment [DAA7]: The section should give some hint of terms like transparency, accountability and awareness, reporting, whistleblowing, .etc.

Conclusively, approaches to managing integrity on educational campuses include proactive and preventive measures such as policies, procedures, and codes in an attempt to help deter violations and ultimately change the climate of dishonesty and misconduct to foster integrity and exhibit respect for learning (Hamlin, Barczyk, Powell, and Frost, 2013). The burden of creating integrity at education institution must be shared by all stakeholders, including the instructors; many of whom retain the conventional view that their responsibility is limited to conveying the course material to the students. If faculty and administrators seem to ignore or condone dishonesty, Broeckelman-Post (2008) has suggested that students are more likely to engage in dishonest behaviors. Moreover early research by McCabe and Trevino (1993) found that several factors associated with student perception were important in affecting the likelihood of students engaging in academic dishonesty, including student perceptions (1) of peer behavior, (2) about faculty understanding and acceptance of policies about integrity, (3) about the overall effectiveness of these policies, and (4) about the severity of the penalties imposed on those who violate these policies.

The discussion above introduces and leads us to broad and generic components of institutional integrity framework i.e. codes, compliance mechanism and members' perception of their institution's integrity. Thus we propose the initial framework; that could lead us computing integrity index of Higher Education Institutions. Final intricate and detailed conceptual framework; integrity structure is provided after a validation through a qualitative analysis (see: chapter 4).

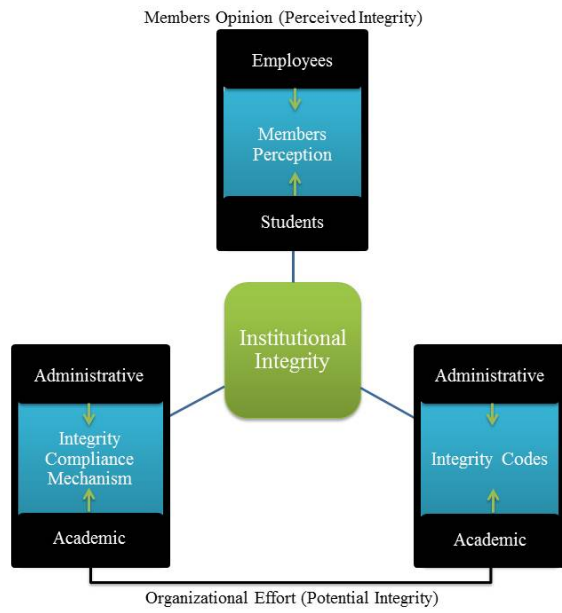


Fig 2.1: Initial Conceptual Framework

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Previous chapters provide rationale for this study and acknowledged the existence of corruption and importance of measuring the Integrity in Public Sector Higher Education Institutions. Various studies relevant to the said have been explained. This chapter explains the research design and methods used for this thesis. Working on general approach used in social science investigation, this chapter explains the following in this study:

1. Paradigm
2. Research Method
3. Research Process
4. Qualitative Method
5. Quantitative Method
6. Analytical Techniques

3.1 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

A paradigm is defined as the “basic belief system or world view that guides action” (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Alternatively, Creswell (2009) used the term “worldviews” for “paradigms”, that states the generic understanding of the world that influences researchers’ nature and his/her investigation. Any paradigm covers three fundamental principles; ontology, epistemology and methodology (see, Annexure C). Ontology educates about the nature of reality, epistemology highlights the nature of the world, and whereas methodology focuses acquiring knowledge of the world we investigate (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Perry et al 1999).

It is pertinent to rationalize the paradigm before selecting research methods (Guba and Lincoln 1994), therefore, three different research paradigms: realism, constructivism, and positivism, are explained to justify adequate selection of paradigm for our study.

3.1.1 Realism

Realism agrees with the ‘real’ world outside every individual, but at the same time it supposes that such reality cannot be comprehended perfectly, as

the world is too complicated and multiplexed for human intelligence to understand entirely. Realism defies the conventional opinion of the utter truth of knowledge (Phillips and Burbules, 2000). It also believes that claims of knowledge regarding human behavior and actions when studied, cannot be possibly positive (Creswell 2009), therefore, it is correspondingly called 'post-positivism'. From the lens of realism, in the current study, there might exist positive relationships between certain practices and institutional integrity in the context of HEIs of Pakistan, however, these relationships may cannot be properly assessed and factually measured, thus realism paradigm is unfitting for this research.

3.1.2 Constructivism

Constructivism, also called as interpretivism (Guba and Lincoln 1994; Perry et al. 1999), agrees to seek understanding of the world in which individuals live and work (Creswell 2009). The focus of constructivism is to trust the participants' view of situation understudy, as much as possible (Creswell 2009). Under this paradigm, composition of the world depends on the value of individual investigator, and the individual investigator is perceived as active member of the world under investigation. This paradigm depends solely on interpretation of individual participants, so cannot be applied to precisely compute or measure the relationship between variables such as institutional practices and institutional integrity. Consequently, the constructivist paradigm is also unsuitable for current research.

3.1.3 Positivism

Positivism believes that it is feasible to find truth in social science research through replicating those methods used by the natural scientists (Blaxter et al. 2002). Positivist advocates that, science is a way to get at truth to sufficiently comprehend the world, so we may predict and control it (Sachdeva 2009). Positivist view, promotes to study social realities through the use of research methods applied in natural sciences (Bryman and Bell, 2007). To understand social reality, the researchers primarily depend on the use of scientific methods; experiments or surveys, to obtain meticulous results (Neuman 1997).

Observation and measurement are the essence of scientific research, therefore positivists deem for the empiricism of an idea. The four measures in social science that could be employed to positivist research are objectivity,

reliability, internal and external validity. In finding the reality 'objectivity' requires zero interference; to assure the bias free investigation, either by individual opinion or essential value systems (Neuman 1997). Reliability confirms the degree to which the study delivers constant and steady results whenever it is replicated (Sekaran, 2009). Internal validity assures that findings of the study really measure the concept that is investigated (Bryman and Bell, 2007). External validity, also called generalizability, refers to, whether the findings are expected to have wider applicability of the study (Blaxter et al. 2002). The positivists attempt to acquire specific quantitative data and test or compute the relationships using mathematical calculations to establish objective facts with the aim of representing finding that could be replicated to a larger population (Sarantakos, 1998). Positivism acknowledges that world around us is real and the researchers can ascertain these realities to capture the truth.

The current research intends to explore the variables that contribute in measuring integrity level in any HEI of a public sector, thus propose a framework to calculate the HEI integrity index. This thesis contends that operationalization, implementation and compliance of variables mentioned, can generate the higher integrity index which reflects higher level of integrity in any HEI. To achieve this purpose, various theoretical and empirical studies relevant to the said have been explained. Selective variables derived from the extensive literature review, focus group discussions and interviews, were used to develop an integrity framework. Moreover quantitative data were collected through a large population survey. Subsequently, descriptive and inferential analyses are used and results are interpreted. Therefore, it appears that the current study follows the positivist paradigm, which enables the identification of the relationship between different variables and institutional integrity through qualitative and quantitative techniques. Here we must know that combining participants' observation with a questionnaire does not in fact combine quantitative and qualitative research, since paradigms are incommensurable and incompatible, thus the integration is only at superficial level and within a single paradigm (Braymen and Bell, 2007)

An appropriate research paradigm assists in the decision of selecting research method for appropriate inquiry (Guba and Lincoln 1994). Having decided on the positivist paradigm; the use of quantitative research methods helps to evaluate and understand the best predictors (variables) of outcomes (institutional integrity), the next step is to explain research process.

3.2 RESEARCH PROCESS

We used mixed method research that combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Mixed method research involves philosophical approach, where it is more than simply collecting and analyzing both kinds of data; it also engages the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches in a way so the forte of a study is greater than either qualitative or quantitative research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007). Further there are three sub approaches of mixed method research; sequential, concurrent and transformative, in our study we applied sequential exploratory approach of mixed method research. Sequential exploratory approach is the one in which researcher elaborate on or expands on the findings of one method with another method. In this approach we start with qualitative approach to explore the area and apply quantitative approach; survey method, so that study results could be validated and generalized (Creswell and Plano, 2010), we can also call it ‘Triangulation’: use of quantitative research to corroborate qualitative research findings or vice versa (Hammersley, 1996).

The research process by Creswell (2010) in Figure 3.1 is adopted for current study. This section outlines data collection process and selection of analytical techniques for qualitative and quantitate data. Analysis and interpretation of data are explained in following chapters.

Comment [DAA8]: Give your research plan here

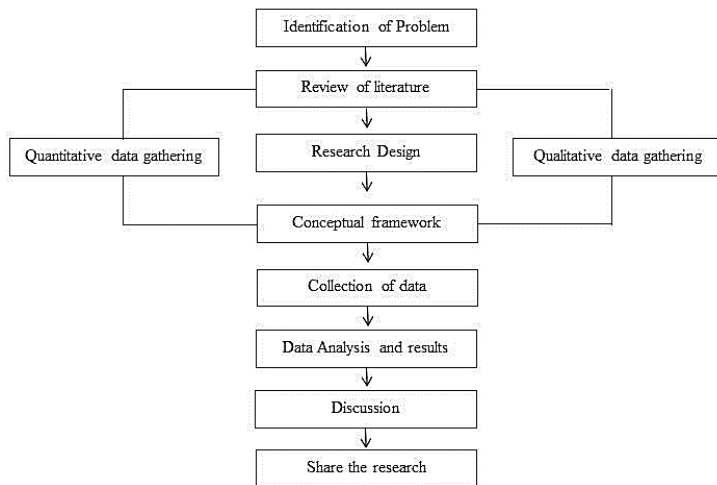


Figure 3.1 Research Process (Creswell, 2010)

3.3 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

Firstly we collected the data through seven (7) focus group discussions and twelve (12) interviews (*analysis is available in next chapter*). The involvement of participants in this study was completely voluntary with assured informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy (De Vaus, 2002). Following these rules, we initially conducted two pilot FGDs; one with senior faculty members and other with senior students (see Table 3.1 for profile information).

**Table 3.1
Participant Profile in Pilot FGD**

Pilot FGDs	Participant	No of Participant	Date	Duration
FGD 1	Senior Faculty, with an ample experience of teaching and academic administration in different reputed institutions of higher education	5	December 11, 2015	75 mints
FGD 2	Senior students, in their last year, from diverse fields and different universities	8	December 28, 2016	120 mints

Pilot study was conducted with purpose to generally discuss the integrity issues in academic setting. The discussion helped us to understand; i) what are the main issues of integrity in HEIs, ii) what are the most critical factors that influence the integrity of any HEI?, iii) who should be approached to understand the integrity aspect in any HEI?. Theses pilot studies helped us to understand the matter in hand and also helped in re-examining the broad questions prepared for further FGDs and interviews (see: Annexure D, E, F; invitation letter, consent form and program and questions guide respectively). Table 3.2 represents the outcome of the pilot study.

Table 3.2
Outcomes of Pilot FGD

FGDs	Issues Highlighted in HEIs	How to Tackle?	Who to Approach
Senior Faculty	Administrative issues: <i>favoritism in hiring, less transparent decision making, instead of meaningful a threat-full performance appraisal mechanism, weak or no cross checks on procurement, whistle blowing is a sin, integrity codes are either absent or not easily accessible, No integrity awareness training, compliance mechanism is not in practice</i> Academic issues: <i>exam result manipulation by teachers, selling admissions, cheating and plagiarism</i>	A through well-defined and well explained integrity codes, Will-full dissemination of codes, Compliance check, Scoring of integrity.	Teachers, administrative staff and students
Senior students	<i>Hiring of teacher, biasness in teacher toward students, ignoring misconducts of favorite students, no disclosure of the authenticity of using grading criteria, favoritism while extending any benefits, no orientation of ethics policy or code, discourage raising voice against any misconduct</i>	Better hiring, Valuating student opinion, Clarity of rules, Impartiality.	Senior students, who have experienced academic practices at his/her university

3.3.1 Data Collection from Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

After Pilot study we collected data from focus group discussions (FGDs). The reason to employ FGDs for the current study was to explore the area and to delineate and corroborate the themes and variables acquired from literature that could influence the institutional integrity to validate and finalize conceptual framework; discussed in next chapter. This rationale of choosing FGDs was supported by the prior literature. For example, Wilkinson (1998) suggested that FGDs reflect the process through which meaning is constructed in everyday life and that extent can be regarded more naturalistic. FGDs are excellent way to get insight (Sudman and Blair, 1999), moreover the technique allows researcher to develop an understanding about why and what people feel the way they do (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Gibbs (1997) enlightened that FGDs could be employed to extend the boundaries of understanding regarding research issue. Therefore, in order to explore and comprehend the area that would help the researcher to design or modify the conceptual framework, conducting FGDs is a suitable approach for this study.

3.3.2 Sample Size and Sampling Strategy for FGDs

The immediate stakeholders; within the premises of institution, were identified; students, faculty, administrative staff, top leadership (on duty/retired). Subsequently, several of those identified were recruited for the FGDs after receiving their consent. It is suggested that five to eight participants are sufficient for one FGD (Morgan, 1997); and an FGD of more than eight members would be difficult to manage (Blackburn and Strokes, 2000). Furthermore, the use of a purposive sampling strategy is feasible to select participants for the FGDs, who showed personal interest in the research subject (Morgan, 1997; Patton, 2002). Based on these arguments, though eight participants were invited for each FGD but minimum five participants were finally determined to be included in each FGD through the purposive sampling strategy.

3.3.3 Conducting the FGDs

The focus group discussions (FGDs) were conducted in Lahore Pakistan. Table 3.3 provides the basic information including participants, no of participants, date and duration of FGDs etc. In each FGD after the introduction of the research project by the researcher, each participant was asked broad questions such as, what do you think integrity is? How integrity relate to corruption? Did you experience, observe or hear about integrity breach within higher education institutions? What sort of integrity breach students, teacher, and admin staff could be involved in? What are the factors responsible to assure the integrity at institutions? Thus the researcher as a moderated facilitated the FGDs, probed the different areas of integrity in higher education institutions and intervened to keep discussion focused. At the end of each FGD, participants were provided with time to share any relevant information not covered during the discussion. FGDs lasted for an hour and a half at average, and were tap recorded as well as notes been taken. Denscombe (2007) advised the use of audio recording and note-taking to fully capture the data, and overcome any unforeseen situation such as technical problems with the recorder.

Table 3.3
Profile Information of FGDs' Participants

01	FGD-01 was conducted on February 2016 , with Top Management (Dean, Directors etc.).Total 5; 4 male, 1 female participant joined FGD-01.The discussion lasted for 70 minutes . Further profile details of the participants are provided hereunder:			
	Code	Gender	Current Position	Experience in years
a	P-01	Male	Dean	21 years
b	P-02	Male	Dean	23 years
c	P-03	Male	Chairperson	15 years
d	P-04	Male	Director	19 years
e	P-05	Female	Director	26 years
02	FGD-02 was conducted on February 2016 , with Senior Faculty (<i>having at above 10 years' experience</i>).Total 5; 3 male, 2 female participant joined FGD-02. The discussion lasted for 90 minutes . Further profile details of the participants are provided hereunder:			
	Code	Gender	Current Position	Experience in years
a	P-06	Male	Professor	19
b	P-07	Male	Professor	20
c	P-08	Male	Associate Professor	19
d	P-09	Female	Associate Professor	21
e	P-10	Female	Associate Professor	18
03	FGD-03 was conducted on January 2016 , with Young Faculty (<i>having less or equal to 3 years' experience</i>).Total 8; 6 male, 2 female participant joined FGD-03.The discussion lasted for 120 minutes . Further profile details of the participants are provided hereunder:			
	Code	Gender	Current Position	Experience in years
a	P-11	Male	Lecturer	2
b	P-12	Male	Lecturer	3
c	P-13	Male	Lecturer	3
d	P-14	Male	Lecturer	2
e	P-15	Male	Lecturer	3
f	P-16	Male	Teaching Assistant	1
g	P-17	Female	Lecturer	3
h	P-18	Female	Lecturer	1
04	FGD-04 was conducted on February 2016 , with Senior Admin Staff (<i>having at least above 5 years' experience</i>).Total 6; 3 male, 3 female			

	participant joined FGD-04.The discussion lasted for 90 minutes . Further profile details of the participants are provided hereunder:			
	Code	Gender	Current Position	Experience in years
a	P-19	Male	Controller Exam	13
b	P-20	Male	Director Planning	15
c	P-21	Male	Deputy Treasurer	12
d	P-22	Female	Deputy Registrar	24
e	P-23	Female	Librarian	19
f	P-24	Female	PA to VC	11
05	FGD-05 was conducted on January 2016 , with Junior Admin Staff (<i>having less or equal 3 years' experience</i>).Total 7; 6 male, 1 female, participants joined FGD-05.The discussion lasted for 90 minutes . Further profile details of the participants are provided hereunder:			
	Code	Gender	Current Position	Experience in years
a	P-25	Male	Assistant ORIC	3
b	P-26	Male	Assistant Procurement	2
c	P-27	Male	Assistant Treasurer	1
d	P-28	Male	Senior Clark	3
e	P-29	Male	Clark	2
f	P-30	Male	Clark	2
g	P-31	Female	Assistant BIC	1
06	FGD-06 was conducted on January 2016 , with Students of Undergrad Program . Total 8; 3 male, 5 female, participants joined FGD-06.The discussion lasted for 100 minutes . Further profile details of the participants are provided hereunder:			
	Code	Gender	Current Position	Degree/ Semester
a	P-32	Male	Student	BS (Hons) / 5 th
b	P-33	Male	Student	BS (Hons) /7 th
c	P-34	Male	Student	BBA (Hons)/5 th
d	P-35	Female	Student	BBA (Hons)/5 th
e	P-36	Female	Student	BS (Hons) /3 rd
f	P-37	Female	Student	BS (Hons) /3 rd
g	P-38	Female	Student	BBA (Hons)/7 th
h	P-39	Female	Student	BBA (Hons)/7 th
07	FGD-07 was conducted on January 2016 , with Students of Postgrad			

	Program. Total 7; 5 male, 2 female, participants joined FGD-07. The discussion lasted for 120 minutes . Further profile details of the participants are provided hereunder:			
	Code	Gender	Current Position	Degree/ Semester
a	P-40	Male	Student	MSc / 3 rd
b	P-41	Male	Student	MPhil/ 3 rd
c	P-42	Male	Student	MPhil/ 3rd
d	P-43	Male	Student	MBA/ 3rd
e	P-44	Male	Student	MBA/ 3rd
f	P-45	Female	Student	MBA/ 3 rd
g	P-46	Female	Student	MBA/ 3 rd

Though FGDs were adopted in previous studies (e.g., Sudman and Blair, 1999; Bryman and Bell, 2007), and are a good approach to get a deep insight into the matter in hand. FGDs provide perspective of wider audience in a short period of time, although at the cost of in-depth examination of individual perspectives (Bitsch and Olynk, 2008). Moreover only the results of FGDs cannot be generalized (Bitsch and Olynk, 2008). Therefore, the current study also collected data via semi-structured interviews. Procedures adapted for semi structured interviews are discussed next.

3.3.4 Semi-Structured Interviews

To conduct semi-structured interviews, the researcher develops interview guide; lists questions, on the issues to be covered in the study. Alike FGDs, semi-structured interview is a viable approach to acquire perceptions of relevant stakeholders and professionals, and also more suitable for those participants who may feel unwilling to speak up in FGDs (Bitsch and Olynk, 2008).

3.3.5 Sampling Strategy for Interviews

Purposive sampling strategy was used to select the participants for the semi-structured interviews. The purposive sampling allowed the selection of particular individuals to confirm their relevance to the research topics. Selection criteria to select the participants for interviews must be recognized before the sampling (Merriam, 1998), thus the main criterion to select the participants for the interviews in current study was, that the interviewees must

be directly associated to or with higher education institution in public sector e.g. faculty, admin staff, students.

3.3.6 Conducting the Semi-Structured Interviews

The target interviewees were students, faculty, admin staff, experts and senior leadership in public sector higher education, across different institutions. A list of twenty participants was first compiled. Twenty participants were then contacted by phone and/or email, with a clear explanation of the purpose of the current research.

Total twelve participants provided appointment. Date and site for the interview was mutually decided. A total of twelve face-to-face interviews were conducted during the months of March and May in 2016. On the appointment date, the researcher reached at the agreed site well before the appointment time. After some informal talk; to build initial acquaintance, the researcher then restated to each interviewee, the overall purpose of the study, assured the protection of confidentiality of the information and identity of the participants, and an estimated time to complete the interview, as recommended by Merriam (1998). As Denscombe (2007) advised the use of audio recording and note-taking to fully capture the data, and overcome any unforeseen situation such as technical problems with the recorder, therefore all interviewees provided their consent to tape-record the interviews, and researcher took notes as well. At average each interview consumed thirty to fifty minutes. At the end of each interview, participants were provided with time to share any relevant information not covered during the interview. Table 3.4 provides the profile information of our interviewees, date and duration of interviews etc.

Table 3.4
Profile Information of Semi-Structured Interviews

Sr	Code	Position	Gender	Date	Duration
01	I-01	Vice Chancellor (<i>Retired</i>)	Male	April 2016	50 mints
02	I-02	Vice Chancellor (<i>Serving</i>)	Male	May 2016	30 mints
03	I-03	Faculty Member	Male	April 2016	50 mints
04	I-04	Faculty Member	Female	April 2016	30 mints
05	I-05	Administrator	Male	April 2016	40 mints
06	I-06	Administrator	Female	April 2016	30 mints
07	I-07	Lower staff (<i>office boy</i>)	Male	March 2016	30 mints

08	I-08	Student (Undergrad)	Female	March 2016	30 mints
09	I-09	Student (Undergrad)	Male	March 2016	30 mints
10	I-10	Student (Postgrad)	Male	March 2016	30 mints
11	I-11	Student (Postgrad)	Female	March 2016	30 mints
12	I-12	Student (Recent pass out)	Female	March 2016	40 mints

3.3.7 Managing and Analyzing the FGDs' and Semi-Structured Interviews' Data

The audio-files of qualitative data were organized in separate folder and stored in a password-protected manner. As preferable (Bitsch and Harsh, 2004; Gibbs, 2007), to perform proper analysis the data was carefully transcribed, re-read the transcribed files to correct any error to assure accuracy by the researcher. After transcribing, database was created to organize, retrieve, and group data in a meaningful way for analysis using NVivo; a computer software. Computer-based analysis can be more consistent, quick, and representable (Weitzman, 2000). NVivo was opted because of its compatibility with the research design, and it provides tools for searching, marking up, linking, and reorganizing the data (Richards, 2002). A project in NVivo was created and data from FGDs and interviews were linked. A preliminary node: a node is the container in NVivo for codes and categories, was constructed using the conceptual framework (see: chapter 4). In addition, a six-step process of managing and analyzing qualitative data, as proposed by Creswell (2009), was followed. The six-steps are:

Step 1: Seven FGDs and twelve interviews were separately transcribed, but the final data were linked for the analysis.

Step 2: Transcripts were read to comprehend the general ideas proposed by the participants.

Step 3: Following Miles and Huberman (1994) the data was coded at two levels, i, summarizing segments of data into themes, ii, and initial themes were divided into smaller number of groups; sub themes.

Step 4: Sub themes generated in Step 3, were used to locate main and broader ideas and place them as a category for the next stage of analysis.

Step 5: Themes were represented in the qualitative narrative manner/ descriptive manner to identify interconnection among themes (see Chapter 4 for the analysis of qualitative data).

Step 6: Final step in the data analysis involves discussion and explanation to make sense of each theme in relevance to the entirety of the study (see Chapter 6 for further discussion).

The findings from literature review and qualitative data analysis (see Chapter 4) led to the designing of the survey instrument, and then the subsequent quantitative data collection, which are discussed next.

Comment [DAA9]: Insert a section here that highlights how the fgs led to development of the instrument;

3.4 QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION

As the study probed into the institutional documents and perception of its internal members, therefore institutional data in form of documents was accessed in steps whereas, data from the members were collected through a self-administered survey questionnaire. Further details are provided below.

3.4.1 Sample Size

Comment [DAA10]: Should be a sub part of the next section

Determining sample size was not easy in this study. Bryman and Bell (2007) advice that while determining sample size researcher must consider time and cost. Sample size becomes more critical when many variables exist in a framework or diverse range of respondents is part of the study. Roscoe (1975) recommended having a sample size ten times larger than the number of variables in the framework. It is suggested that along with suitable sample size, its statistical significance or practical significance has to be kept in mind.

Comment [DAA11]:

Fowler (2009) suggested that the sample size must adequately cover the major groups. O'Conner (2006) advised that in case of small population (less than 10,000) a 10 to 30 per cent sample of that population is sufficient; and, for a large population (over 150,000) as low as 1 per cent sample will suffice the need. Accordingly, for a total number of 1, 228 employees and 4,993 students in our case the sample of 250 employees and 500 students can be an appropriate sample for this study.

3.4.2 Sampling Design

Sampling design was **not an easy task** for the current study. There were two sets of respondents; employees and students that make the work more laborious. To perform the task intelligently so that it remains doable and pragmatic, we applied different sampling design at two different steps. In step one, we had to select a public sector HEI among twelve in Lahore, Pakistan, thus used tottery/ fish bowl technique under simple random sampling. Same technique was applied to select faculties, department within the faculties, and program within departments, from the drawn university. In step two we collected data from all individuals present on the data collection day.

Comment [DAA12]: We need to discuss this

3.4.3 Data Collection

Due to its secretive nature, corruption is notoriously hard to measure (Chapman, 2005; Andersson and Heywood 2009; Urrea, 2007) and empirical work attempting to quantify the extent of financial or non-financial corruption has been limited (Mauro, 1997; Galtung, 2006). There are five main sources of data collection pertaining to corruption in education: Documents concerning codes of conduct of an institution, surveys of perceptions, surveys that collect reports on behavior engaged in or observed by the respondent, media accounts, and studies of court records. Day and Nancy (1996) indicated that the self-reported and perceptual measures might, in some cases, represent more accurate descriptions of an institution. Furthermore Vlachos (2008) argued that perceptions about institution measured by respondents could be treated as valid indicators. As the study encapsulate institutional effort and the perception of its members, therefore we rely on the documents concerning integrity codes as well as the explicit compliance mechanism of an institution and respondents' perception about integrity at their very own institution. Though getting permission is hardly possible to obtain for any studies covering corruption at universities: no one wants to air their own dirty laundry in public, but we followed certain steps to reach to the information.

To get access to the codes and compliance mechanism we; firstly browsed through the website of a selected university, and found very little pieces of information. Next we sent an email to Mr. Registrar (custodian of the seal of university), and after receiving no response we called Mr. Registrar, explained the purpose and placed our demand. He asked us to meet Mr. Deputy Registrar Admin.

In a face to face meeting with Mr. Deputy Registrar, we put up the list of required documents such as (Explicit Integrity Codes for university main bodies, employees, students etc.). First it took us time to make him understand that we are not looking for general rulebook for government employees, but specific and objective codes designed to assure fairness, and honesty in the action of university system and members. Shockingly there was no consolidated booklet of integrity codes; instead the information was scattered and sporadic. We asked him in a friendly tone the reason of such grave status of affairs, and reply was, “no one ever asked us for these documents and authorities never felt a need to compile anything of such nature”. After inquiring about explicit integrity codes, we requested Mr. Deputy Registrar for documented compliance mechanism that is designed to assure whether integrity codes are followed in letter and spirit or not. He provided us some documents that elaborate on the duties of disciplinary committee and students’ affairs, but with a blank face he admitted that there exists no formal or well-structured integrity compliance mechanism for employees and students. At last all documents were gathered and content analysis was done on the devised criteria; mentioned in the measures section.

Moreover to collect the perception of employees and students, the survey was conducted in two stages. At stage one; two-phase pilot-testing was conducted. In the first phase; to confirm the face and content validity, generated items were reviewed by three faculty members who were expert of the field and familiar with topic of the study. The purpose of this stage was to confirm that statements in the questionnaire were not vague, unclear or misleading (Babbie, 2007; Plano Clark and Creswell, 2008; Creswell, 2009; Sarantakos, 2005). Thus, after review of the experts, many items were revised, in the survey questionnaire. Major suggestions were the paraphrasing or rewording of some statements those seemed to be confusing, and the deletion of some items appeared to be repetitive or excessive. In second phase, a survey was administered to conduct EFA (Exploratory Factor Analysis) for item reduction and factor structuring. To apply EFA questionnaire was floated among 150 university employees and 350 university students; 105 and 259 were received respectively. Changes were made based on the analysis (Table 3.10-3.12 and 3.16-3.18); subsequently problematic and confusing items were also either revised or deleted to develop the final version of the survey. Second stage includes the overall administration of the survey questionnaire for the main study.

3.4.4 Measures

Following the conceptual frame (see: chapter 4), the measurement was split into two separate portions. In first portion we faced a challenge of measuring the institutional effort by quantifying its documented integrity codes and compliance mechanism. In second portion we measured the opinion of institutional members (employee and students) to quantify their perceptive image of the institution, regarding its integrity stance.

3.4.4.1 Integrity Codes and Compliance Mechanism

To quantify documented integrity codes and explicit compliance mechanism we rely on quantitative content analysis approach. Quantitative content analysis is resolutely embedded in the quantitative research strategy; which aims to produce quantitative accounts of the raw material in term of the criteria specified (Bryman and Bell, 2007). As Berelson (1952) mentions “content analysis is a research technique for the objective, systematic and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication”. Moreover, Holsti (1969) also reassure “content analysis is any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages”.

As a first step we developed a score card (see table 3.5) to quantify information within the documents in relevance of integrity codes and compliance mechanism. In this quantification 0 was allotted if the integrity code or compliance mechanism absolutely non-existent. One (1) point was allotted to each of the criterion that makes a code comprehensive and accessible. The criteria are: i) code exists but too much vague; incomprehensible and incomplete, ii) code exists but vague; sporadic, iii) code inform the un/acceptable behavior but does not provide details about likely penalties, iv) code informs the un/acceptable behavior, likely penalties or rewards, but accessible through personal reference, v) code is comprehensive, complete, accessible on visit but not available on email request or website, vi) code is comprehensive, complete, accessible on site and available on website.

Table 3.5

Code and Compliance Mechanism Score Card

Integrity Codes & Explicit Compliance Mechanism	Points							Earned
	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	

On the basis of quantification we drew a scale (see figure 3.6) for denoting the strength to each integrity code and components of compliance mechanism, to quantify their strength.

Table 3.6
Scale to Measure the Strength of Code and Compliance Mechanism

Code & Compliance	Strength						
	0 Non-Existent	1 Very Poor	2 Poor	3 Fair	4 Good	5 Very good	6 Excellent

Employees are the internal members of an institution. They maintain a perception of their institution on the basis of their interaction with authorities and institutional system, among others. It is not intelligent to solely gauge the integrity of an institution only on the basis of codes and compliance or vice versa. Therefore our study included the perception of individuals, employees and students to compute the integrity index. To record the perceptions, separate multifactor measures were developed for employees and students. New measures were developed following Hinkin (1998) guidelines, i) items were generated, opinion of the experts was incorporated, and exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis was performed.

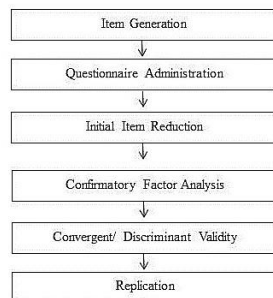


Figure 3.2: Guideline for the Development of New Measure (Hinkin, 1998)
3.4.4.2 Perceived Leader Integrity (filled by employee)

Comment [DAA13]: Now where did this come from?

Den Hartog (1997), Craig and Gustafson (1998) and Simon et al. (2007) offer established and mostly used scales to measure perceived leader integrity. These scale focus different aspect of leaders' integrity i.e. Den Hartog (1997) looks at leaders' integrity while sharing their power, Craig and Gustafson (1998) measures general integrity of a leaders in interpersonal relationship with their subordinates, and Simon et al. (2007) measure observes overall behavioral aspect of leaders' integrity. Indeed these measures cover the vital elements of leaders' integrity, but they do not cater a need to measure the role of leaders in establishing integrity in organization through personal character as well as their intention to inculcate and maintain integrity among the employees of their organization. Thus to fulfill purpose of this study, we developed multifactor measure for perceived leader integrity.

The factors are extracted from literature review and triangulated with the qualitative data gathered through FGDs and interviews. Initially the factors were finalized i.e. Brown et al. (2005) and Kalshoven et al. (2011) propose that leaders who stimulate and motivate employees toward are perceived having high integrity. Moreover ensuring integrity among employees without partiality (Arnaud and Schminke, 2006), encouraging and supporting employees to report misconduct, and observing integrity by one's own self (Robert et al. 2012) are factors that shape-up the perception of employees regarding their leaders' integrity. The participants in focus group discussion and interviewees also mentioned similar factors. Some excerpts are hereunder:

“Staying neutral is never easy and person with high integrity can only afford it. Maintaining fairness among your team members, make you a good leader. I have observed at my office that some favorites enjoy most of the benefits; they get more chances to attend fully paid conferences, seminars or workshops, and they do not only enjoy the benefits but also their misconducts are covered up or compromised easily and if I even unintentionally break a rule I can't get over with it easily. So what do you expect me to say about such a leader, who discriminates among his/her team?” (I-04 Impartially Ensuring Integrity)

“We all want motivation for work, likewise we all need motivation to do right things and do them rightly. So I feel that conducting formal or informal talk sessions do portray a very

positive picture of a boss or an officer, but undoubtedly there must not be a conflict in what they say and what they do.” (P-28 Stimulating Employees’ Integrity)

“A true spirited leader will ensure that his/her team fulfills all requirements to meet high standard of morality, to do so s/he will explain and then monitor the actions of his/her team members. This shows commitment and seriousness toward establishing integrity culture.” (P-14 Stimulating Employees’ Integrity)

“I believe that competence and integrity are somehow interconnected, because competence requires no veil whereas incompetence does. So if you have to hide your incompetence, you got to pay the price. A leader with values never covers-up incompetence by accepting any favor presented as a gift, and submit no offering if s/he ever found incompetent. Special meals; cannot elaborate special meals (a laughter), hard cash, feedback manipulation etc. are the bartered for gaining an edge.” (I-01 Interactional Integrity)

“I am not lucky enough to have a leader who encouraged uncovering the crap. I have worked with many bosses, and during this long period of time most of the bosses preferred to broom the crap under the carpet, and I never took them as person with integrity, because I believe that compromising misconduct or immoral matters develop a doubt on one’s own standard of morality.” (I-05 Encouraging Whistleblowing)

“Let me tell you things that influence my perception whenever I judge my boss 1) does he do what he says or does he do what he wants us to do 2) is his behavior consistent in different situations or before different people 3) does he openly speak about wrong acts, etc.” (P-15 Observing Personal Integrity)

Thus five factors are recognized; i) impartially ensuring integrity, ii) stimulating employees integrity, iii) interactional integrity, iv) encouraging whistleblowing, and v) observing personal integrity. Then items were generated under each factor to gather the perception of employees about their

leader; immediate boss. A likert scale of 1 being strongly disagree to 7 being strongly agree is used. There are total 18 items, sample items are “My leader ensures that employee follow codes of integrity” and “My leader behaves consistently across situations”. The cronbach’s alpha in pilot study is 0.940.

Table 3.7
Factor Wise Division of Items; Perceived Leader Integrity

Variable	Items	Dimension
Perceived Leader Integrity (PLI)	PLI1 -My leader cares about his/her subordinates PLI4 -In case of misconduct my leader treats all subordinates in a same manner PLI7 -My leader appraises work performance without biasness or any favoritism PLI10 -My leader ensures that employees follow integrity codes PLI12 -My leader compliments employees who behave according to integrity guidelines	Impartially Ensuring Integrity
	PLI2 -My leader discusses and encourages acting ethically no matter what. PLI9 -My leader clearly explains integrity related codes of conduct and consequences of possible unethical behavior PLI11 -My leader stimulates the discussion of integrity issues among employees PLI13 -My leader explains what is expected of me and my colleagues concerning work performance	Stimulating Employees' Integrity
	PLI17 -My leader never accepts favors (gift, meal, money etc.) to offer a favor (good appraisal, concealing misconduct, nominations etc.) PLI18 -My leader never asks for unethical favor (feedback manipulation, concealing misconduct etc.)	Interactional Integrity
	PLI3 -My leader assures support in whistle blowing: an act of reporting misconduct by a fellow employee or superior within your institution PLI6 -My leader encourages to report his/ her misconduct, if found PLI8 - My leader allows subordinates to take action against unethical act or misconduct	Encouraging Whistle-blowing
	PLI5 -My leader pursues his/her own success at the expense of others PLI14 - My leader always keeps his/her words PLI15 -My leader confirms his/ her own integrity by following codes of conduct PLI16 - My leader behaves consistently across situations	Observing Personal Integrity

3.4.4.3 Awareness and Perceived Transparency (Employees)

To measure employees’ awareness about integrity codes and how to report misconduct and their perception regarding transparency within their institution, an instrument containing 9 items categorized under three (3) factors (see: table 3.8). Factors are formulated on the bases of qualitative data; focus group discussions and interviews. Some excerpts are:

“Many a times we commit misconduct due to our ignorance about code of conduct. I know that ignorance of law is no excuse, but if the law is not well propagated then ignorance is a natural outcome. One way or the other we have to acquaint our employees with institution’s code of ethics or conduct, so their ignorance remain no excuse I believe induction program must include it as a topic of top priority. Alas! This is not happening yet”. (P-11 Awareness of Code)

“Many of us do not know the rules even; I don’t know whether any integrity rules exist here, yes we find out the relevant rules when we need them, but my institution has never given importance to disseminate integrity rules”. (I-07 Awareness of Code)

“Yes awareness of rule does have an impact on controlling misconducts, people sometime are not aware of what constitutes a misconduct or corruption at their respective job or role.” (P-13 Awareness of Code)

“I think institutions don’t consider it important to share their integrity codes, which is sad. I believe that all new inductees must go through an induction program as we see in corporations, and that induction program must have a full fledge session on sharing integrity codes of the institution”. (P-16 Awareness of Code)

“Yes integrity awareness sessions are a good idea, but I personally think that integrity expectation should be reinforced as often as possible”. (I-01 Awareness of Code)

“To report misconduct ‘How’ is an important question. Answering ‘How’ must include the steps to be taken while reporting misconduct, and it also inform the complainant about comprehensive policy including protection and reward for a person who shows such courage in the best interest of the institution”. (P-07 Awareness of Reporting Mechanism)

“Transparency; the open the better, no secrets no hidings, documents should be accessible, processes must be translucent”. (P-17 Transparency)

A likert scale of 1 being strongly disagree to 7 being strongly agree is used. There are total 9 items, sample items are “I know, how to report unethical conduct of faculty, staff and student, properly in my institution” and “Information about unethical occurrence, how it is handled, and what is the verdict, is published (*without disclosing the accused*) on website”. The cronbach’s alpha in pilot study is 0.897

Table 3.8
Factor Wise Division of Items; Awareness and Perceived Transparency

Variable	Items	Dimension
Awareness and Perceived Transparency (APT)	APT1 -I and my colleagues are well aware of potential violations of integrity codes and their likely penalties APT2 -All new incumbents attend integrity orientation program, to be informed about institution’s fundamental codes of conduct APT4 -My institution often holds discussions (formal, informal) on integrity expectations from its employees	Awareness of Integrity Codes
	APT3 -I know, how to report unethical conduct of faculty, staff and student, properly APT5 -I know whistle blowing policy, procedure and reward associated to it APT6 -If reported unethical conduct in my immediate working environment does not receive adequate attention, I know how to raise the matter elsewhere in the institution	Awareness of Reporting a Misconduct
	APT7 -Adequate checks are carried out to detect violations and unethical conduct APT8 -Information about unethical occurrence, how it is handled, and what is the verdict, is published (<i>without disclosing the accused</i>) on website APT9 -Integrity codes (rules, policies, procedures) are easily accessible to everyone	Transparency

3.4.4.4 Perceived Administrative Justice (filled by employee)

As per our knowledge, available measures of administrative justice are not holistic in nature and do not cover the vital area of administrative justice in an education sector. Secondly we did not find any established set of items that precisely measure the perception of university employees regarding level of integrity and purity of justice in administrative system of their institution.

Therefore a new measure comprised of 20 items, categorized in 7 factors is developed to fulfill the purpose of survey for our study (see: Table 3.9).

Some excerpts are:

“Discrimination is one of the most disliked things in a country, institutions or even in families. Even if one has benefited from the discrimination s/he never admits it because inside us we all know that discrimination is opposing to fairness. So if a university claims having high integrity, then employees must have positive perception about its administrative processes”. (P-24)

“I think all HRM functions; hiring, performance appraisal, rewards etc. must have fairness in them, and if institutions do have no parity among these HRM functions, their administrative processes will be perceived positively”. (P-26 Rightful Hiring, Selection Process, Performance Appraisal)

“If I witness that my institution gives special respect, honor, or value to people who are very honest to their work, so what I receive is a signal, that honesty is considered as an important element. But just imagine the other scenario; you see an honest person and s/he is never given even an encouraging pat or in worse scenario people with low ethical standing are obliged by authorities, now what signal does it give?: Honest goes down to the drain”. (I-06 Integrity Valued)

“In my experience; spread over to 2 decades, I have never seen that a reported wrong doer in the institutions where I served have brought to justice. Every one compromises on integrity. Don’t you listen to your politicians? What they say “stop blaming us, otherwise we have plenty of provable allegations against you”, what does it mean, it means keep doing corruption and don’t disturb us when we do the same (laughter). So as an institution you have to establish accountability system and never compromise unethical act”. (I-03 Accountability)

“Can you believe that after 6 years of serving at an institution, I got courage to blow a whistle and did not know how to do it rightly. My closest colleagues asked me not to get into it, but putting their advice aside I took the matter to my immediate boss; controller of examinations, he plainly refused to take any action rather asked me to go to the vice chancellor. I gathered courage and uttered out the concern before the vice chancellor, who initially took no interest and tried to make me realize that such matters should be broomed under the carpet. But at my insisting he directed me to report the matter in form of formal written compliant and submit to the registrar. You know what happened then? Somehow that complaint leaked and the guy turned against me and I became victim to their dreadful behavior. This all was the result of no proper and purposeful reporting mechanism”. (I-06 Reporting Mechanism)

“Any institution that does not maintain impartiality among employees cannot claim to have integrity”. (P-31 Ensuring Parity)

A likert scale of 1 being strongly disagree to 7 being strongly agree is used. There are total 20 items, sample items are “Teachers, staff or any resourceful insider/outsideers have no influence in hiring” and “Annual confidential report (ACR) or performance appraisal is not used as threat tool”. The cronbach’s alpha in pilot study is 0.951

Table 3.9
Factor Wise Division of Items; Perceived Administrative Justice

Variable	Items	Dimension
Perceived Administrative Justice (PAdJ)	PAdJ1 -Teachers, staff or any resourceful insider/outsideers have no influence in hiring	Rightful Hiring
	PAdJ2 -Favoritism is not evident in any of the recruitment decisions made here	
	PAdJ3 -All appointments in this institution are based on merit (i.e. the best person for the job is selected regardless of any influence or pressure)	
	PAdJ4 -A rigorous selection process is used to select new recruits	Selection Process
	PAdJ5 -All applicants are treated with dignity during the hiring process	
	PAdJ6 -My institution attempts to conduct performance appraisal in best possible way	Integrity in Performance Appraisal
	PAdJ7 -I am satisfied with the way my institution provides me with feedback	

	PAdJ9 -Annual confidential report (ACR) or performance appraisal is not used as threat tool	
	PAdJ8 -At my institution integrity is valued and only competent people are considered for promotion PAdJ13 -I fully trust that top authorities (VC, Syndicate members, Deans, Chairpersons, Directors) are committed to maintain integrity across the board PAdJ14 -Successful people in my institution are the one who stick to the integrity code	Integrity Valued
	PAdJ15 -Strict policy and practice regarding bribery and embezzlement exist in my institution PAdJ18 -My institution has fully functioning accountability system that monitors working conduct regularly and takes serious notices of any misconduct by anyone impartially PAdJ20 -I have witnessed incidences where misconduct is reported and the individual or group is brought to justice	Accountability
	PAdJ10 -There is an effective system in place for making complaints about unfair treatment PAdJ12 -Whistle blowers are encouraged, protected and rewarded in my institution	Reporting Mechanism
	PAdJ11 -Opportunities (nomination in workshops-seminars-conferences-funded training programs) are extended impartially to all employees PAdJ16 -My institution fulfills what it commits to its employees PAdJ17 -Enquiry against any unethical conduct is handled impartially and seriously PAdJ19 -Many a times I do not report the misconduct due to a fear of getting covertly victimized	Ensuring Parity

Content validity of all the scales is confirmed through opinion of the field experts. Then dimension wise items are grouped together and exploratory factor analysis is run on data from a pilot study consisting 105 responses; 61 males and 44 female employees of universities. The item loading was appropriate of all variables except two dimension; rightful hiring and selection process, consisting 5 item of Perceived Administrative Justice loaded in an inappropriate factor. It was realized that due to social desirability bias, no one would raise a finger or display a negative perception on hiring system through which they themselves have been hired. Thus 5 items from Perceived Administrative Justice have been deleted. Moreover all items of the instrument; for employees, were translated in national language; Urdu, to extend ease of understanding to the respondents who do not have English comprehension skill. Firstly the translation is been done by the researcher, and then the services of a language expert were hired. Annexure G contains the

final translated version of all the measures used in this study to capture the perception of employees.

Table 3.10
KMO and Bartlett's Test (EFA-Employees' Perception)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.859
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1824.151
	Df	105
	Sig.	.000

Table 3.11
Total Variance Explained (EFA-Employees' Perception)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sum of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.093	60.619	60.619	9.093	60.619	60.619	4.609	30.727	30.727
2	2.081	13.872	74.491	2.081	13.872	74.491	4.228	28.187	58.914
3	1.088	7.256	81.747	1.088	7.256	81.747	3.425	22.833	81.747
4	.692	4.616	86.363						
5	.402	2.679	89.042						
6	.358	2.384	91.425						
7	.274	1.825	93.250						
8	.255	1.699	94.949						
9	.189	1.260	96.208						
10	.176	1.176	97.384						
11	.131	.872	98.256						
12	.086	.570	98.826						
13	.082	.548	99.374						
14	.063	.420	99.794						
15	.031	.206	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

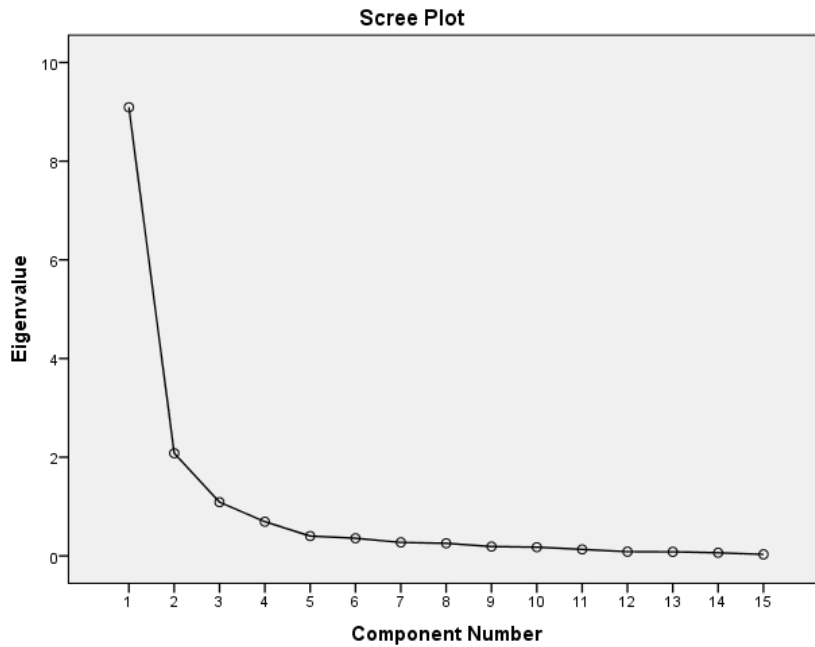


Figure 3.3: Scree Plot (Employees)

Table 3.12
Rotated Component Matrix^a (EFA-Employees' Perception)

	Component		
	1	2	3
Perceived Leader Integrity- Impartially Ensuring Integrity	.911		
Perceived Leader Integrity- Stimulating Employees' Integrity	.859		
Perceived Leader Integrity- Interactional Integrity	.869		
Perceived Leader Integrity- Encouraging Whistle-blowing	.782		
Perceived Leader Integrity- Observing Personal Integrity	.814		
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Integrity Codes		.820	
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Reporting a misconduct		.781	
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Transparency		.784	

Perceived Administrative Justice- Rightful Hiring		.690	
Perceived Administrative Justice- Selection Process		.909	
Perceived Administrative Justice- Integrity in Performance Appraisal		.556	.587
Perceived Administrative Justice- Integrity Valued			.734
Perceived Administrative Justice- Accountability			.812
Perceived Administrative Justice- Reporting Mechanism			.881
Perceived Administrative Justice- Ensuring Parity	.542		.713
Reliability	.940	.897	.951

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Alongside collecting the perception of employees about their institution, what does students perceive of their university is of equal importance and relevance. Therefore three most scored variables; Teacher Integrity, Awareness and Perceived Transparency and Perceived Academic Justice are taken, factors been recognized and items are generated on the bases of qualitative data analysis. Next section explains the measures.

3.4.4.5 Perceived Teacher Integrity (filled by student)

In any educational institution students interact mostly and directly with their teachers. In fact teachers are the institution themselves for all the students, therefore during a course of study all students consider teachers as their leaders; who directly supervise them. Thus we used the perceived leader integrity scale, mentioned earlier, with some rewording and alignment for capturing the perspective of students' regarding their teachers' integrity. We considered the views of participants of FGDs and interviews to validate that our developed leaders integrity scale would fit in and suffice the need to measure teachers' integrity. Some excerpts from FGDs and interviews are mentioned below:

“Beside gifts, I have seen teachers who are poorly biased; they company some specific students and reward them good marks. And it is not about marks only such students are

protected rather their misdeeds are well guarded by those same teachers. And I am talking about university teachers, who thought to be mature and neutral but they are not. Moreover to satisfy personal egos they like students who do flattering and show unnecessary obedience". (I-12 Impartially Ensuring Integrity)

"Gone are the times when teachers were equally worried about the character building of their student. It is regretful to mention that teachers do not count even discussing and motivating students to safeguard themselves against the challenges of integrity maintenance". (P-45 Stimulating Students' Integrity)

"Exchange of favors is a common practice. I have observed that teachers offer illegitimate facilitation to students, just to get a good comment in their feedback. And students keep offering certain services just to get good grades or certain leverages. It is sad but it is what it is. Closing our eyes won't doom the devil". (I-10 Interactional Integrity)

"Whenever I went to report a system or teacher problem to another teacher or chairperson, I was offered to put a lid over it. And do not blowout the truth. They all save each other's back. If teachers have integrity they should encourage and support students who could come forward and let them know the lacunas, but it requires high moral ground; do you think teacher have that"? (I-11 Encouraging Whistleblowing)

"I think teacher role as whole matters a lot. Students build opinion about their teacher on the bases of dealing with them during the class as well outside the class. For instance during the class students observe whether teacher is prepared for lecture, does s/he encourage questioning, is s/he giving attention to all etc." (P-42 Observing Personal Integrity)

"If we consider the ethical standard and integrity of a teacher as yard stick, then what we say about teachers who use some of the students as their spies in the classroom to get to know what others teachers and students are saying about him/

her. Isn't it corruption to use students for spying and in return give them relaxation in assignments or give better grades"? (I-08 Observing Personal Integrity)

A likert scale of 1 being strongly disagree to 7 being strongly agree is used. There are total 17 items, sample items are “Teachers at my present university discuss and encourage acting ethically no matter what” and “Teachers at my present university explain what is expected of me and my fellows concerning overall conduct”. The cronbach’s alpha in pilot study is 0.917.

Table 3.13
Factor Wise Division of Items; Perceived Teacher Integrity

Variable	Items	Dimension
Perceived Teacher Integrity (PTI)	PTI 1 - Teachers at my present university care about their students PTI 4 - Teachers at my present university treat all students in a same manner in case of any misconduct PTI 7 - Teachers at my present university grade students fairly without biasness or favoritism PTI 10 - Teachers at my present university compliment students who behave according to integrity guidelines	Impartially Ensuring Integrity
	PTI 2 - Teachers at my present university discuss and encourage acting ethically no matter what PTI 8 - Teachers at my present university clearly explain integrity related codes of conduct and consequences of possible unethical behavior PTI 9 - Teachers at my present university stimulate the discussion of integrity issues among students PTI 11 - Teachers at my present university explain what is expected of me and my fellows concerning overall conduct	Stimulating Students' Integrity
	PTI 14 - Teachers at my present university never accept favors (gift, meal, money etc.) to offer any favor (good grade, concealing misconduct, nomination for internship etc.) PTI 15 - Teachers at my present university never offer favor (meal, good grade, nomination for internship etc.) to ask for favor (positive feedback, concealing misconduct etc.)	Interactional Integrity
	PTI 3 - Teachers at my present university assure support in whistle blowing; an act of reporting misconduct by a fellow student, staff or teacher within your university PTI 6 - Teachers at my present university encourage to report their misconduct if found	Encouraging Whistle-blowing
	PTI 5 - Teachers at my present university pursue their own success at the expense of others	Observing Personal

	<p>PTI 12 - Teachers at my present university always keep their words</p> <p>PTI 13 - Teachers at my present university ensure their integrity by following codes of conduct</p> <p>PTI 16 - Teachers at my present university behave consistently across situations</p> <p>PTI 17 - Teachers at my present university will never ask student to spy (on other teachers, and students)</p>	Integrity
--	--	-----------

3.4.4.6 Awareness and Transparency (filled by student)

To measure students' awareness about integrity codes and how to report misconduct and their perception regarding transparency within their institution, an instrument containing 9 items categorized under three (3) factors (see: table 3.14). Factors are formulated on the bases of qualitative data; focus group discussions and interviews. Some excerpts are:

“I once caught doing something which was prohibited in my University. I kept saying that I didn’t know and won’t commit it again but useless, I was fined. Why? They didn’t bother to tell the rules; they think we will automatically learn. Yes we learn by getting penalties. What an irony, a place that teaches how to go living, is itself ignorant of taking right actions, they just react”. (P-41 Awareness of Integrity Codes)

“Let’s have a walk of the campus, and just ask students randomly about integrity codes, and enjoy seeing the startling expressions”. (P-35 Awareness of Code)

“We should not only be told students integrity codes, but also of teachers, so at least we could realize who is following those rules. But why would they tell, they don’t want to be caught, do they? (Laughter)”. (P-37 Awareness of Code)

“I think institutions think we all know it. How would we ever know it if not told?” (P-40 Awareness of Code)

“Yes giving all new students a proper and formal training about the university norms and rules make a complete sense”. (P-32 Awareness of Code)

“Sir we don’t know if there any system exists to report misconduct and even if it exists neither we are informed nor we are guided”. (P-41 Awareness of Reporting Mechanism)

“It sounds romantic to think that all information relevant to students is accessible, it has to be like this but it is not like this Sir”. (P-35 Transparency)

A likert scale of 1 being strongly disagree to 7 being strongly agree is used. There are total 9 items, sample items are “All new students receive integrity orientation program, to be informed about university fundamental codes of conduct” and “I know the plagiarism policy and penalties associated to it”. The cronbach’s alpha in pilot study is 0.938.

Table 3.14
Factor Wise Division of Items; Awareness and Perceived Transparency

Variable	Items	Dimension
Awareness and Perceived Transparency (APT)	APT1 - I and my fellows are well aware of potential violations of integrity codes and their likely penalties APT2 - All new students receive integrity orientation program, to be informed about university fundamental codes of conduct APT4 - My university often holds discussions (formal, informal) on integrity expectations from its students APT5 - I know the plagiarism policy and penalties associated to it	Awareness of Integrity Codes
	APT3 - I know how to report unethical conduct of a teacher, staff or another student APT6 - If reported unethical conduct in my immediate department does not receive adequate attention, I know how to raise the matter elsewhere in the university	Awareness of Reporting a misconduct
	APT7 - Adequate checks are carried out to detect violations and unethical conduct APT8 - Information about unethical occurrence, how it is handled, and what is the verdict, is public (without disclosing the accused) on website APT9 - Integrity codes (rules, policies, procedures) are easily accessible	Transparency

3.4.4.7 Perceived Academic Justice (Students)

A likert scale of 1 being strongly disagree to 7 being strongly agree is used. There are total 30 items, sample items are “Admission process is

completely fair”, “The way teachers conducts the class shows no bias” and “Students are informed about the criteria of scoring exam papers; disclosure of marking sheet”. The cronbach’s alpha in pilot study is 0.930.

“If students believe that merit sustained during admissions, definitely positive image would survive”. (P-44 Rightful Admission)

“At the doorsteps you can judge a home, likewise when students go through the process of admission; from purchasing prospectus till final selection, at every step they build-up an image of about their university. How am I treated, is selection test relevant, is selection impartial etc. are some questions that pop-up in students brain during admissions”. (P-17 Admission Process)

“There has to be a system that should compel teachers to maintain fairness and neutrality in the classroom, and doing so will send a positive wave among students”. (I-11 Integrity in Classroom)

“Yes of course, a teacher who openly tells the criteria of marking the exam papers, and keep everything transparent is considered to be more honest and fair. Students wish to know how they are assessed”. (P-36 Student Assessment)

“How can students be happy or positive about their university if they witness cheating and plagiarism goes unpunished? Yes they can be happy to get an advantage out of it, but it challenges the academic integrity of the institution, doesn’t it?” (P-24 Examinations)

“Apparently students are the sole reason for the existence of all schools, colleges and universities. But students have never been consulted or involved in any type of decision making, I am indeed not asking you to involve them in each and every thing, but at least we should make them feel that their views and opinions are respected. For last couple of year quality enhancement cell started teacher and course feedback

system, but are you aware of the reality? Students do fill those feedback performa's halfheartedly; because they tend to believe it as useless and infertile exercise". (I-04 Dealing Students' Feedback)

"I dream a day, when integrity is rewarded with respect, honor as well as financial honorarium (laugh), teachers and students who stand firm with integrity has to be recognized, and should be presented as role models to young faculty and new students". (I-01 Integrity Valued)

Table 3.15
Factor Wise Division of Items; Perceived Academic Justice

Variable	Items	Dimensions
Perceived Administrative Justice (PAdJ)	PAcJ 1 - Admission process is completely fair PAcJ 2 - Teachers, staff or resourceful insider/outsider have no influence in admission decision	Rightful Admissions
	PAcJ 3 - Student selection process is comprehensive and thorough PAcJ 4 - All students and parents/guardians are treated respectfully during the admission process	Admission Process
	PAcJ 14 - The way teachers conducts the class shows no bias PAcJ 15 - During class discussions teachers maintain neutrality and integrity PAcJ 19 - Course information is made available to students in a user-friendly form PAcJ 25 - Students are encouraged to raise questions during the lecture	Integrity in Class
	PAcJ 5 - My grades compared to other students' grades on the last exam are fair PAcJ 8 - Higher cumulative grade point average (CGPA) represents a skillful student PAcJ 9 - Students are assessed on clear and objective criteria	Student Assessment
	PAcJ 6 - Plagiarism in my university is taken as serious offence and results in grave outcome	Examinations

	<p>PAcJ 7 - Teachers tolerate, ignore, or do nothing against cheating during the exam</p> <p>PAcJ 10 - Students are informed about the criteria of scoring exam papers; disclosure of marking sheet</p>	
	<p>PAcJ 11 - Students' views and needs are considered when decisions are made</p> <p>PAcJ 13 - There is no point complaining about things around here because nothing real would be done</p> <p>PAcJ 22 - Course and teacher evaluation by students has serious consequences</p> <p>PAcJ 23 - Students feedback is taken as a valuable tool to correct the problems</p>	Dealing Student Feedback
	<p>PAcJ 17 - There are effective procedures in place to help students solve problems</p> <p>PAcJ 18 - There is an effective system in place for making complaints about unfair treatment</p> <p>PAcJ 28 - My university has fully functioning accountability system that monitors academic conduct regularly and takes serious notices of any misconduct by teachers, or students</p> <p>PAcJ 30 - In this institution I have witnessed incidences where misconduct is reported and the individual or group is brought to justice</p>	Accountability and Reporting Mechanism
	<p>PAcJ 20 - I fully trust that top authorities in my department (e.g. Dean, Chairman) will always maintain integrity across the situations</p> <p>PAcJ 21 - Formal and informal both approaches are used to nurture integrity in students</p>	Integrity Valued
	<p>PAcJ 12 - Faculty and staff apologize if they make mistakes or inconvenience students</p> <p>PAcJ 16 - Rules and procedures are applied consistently to all students</p> <p>PAcJ 24 - Teachers cannot be challenged rather they are considered always right no matter what</p>	Ensuring Parity

	<p>PAcJ 26 - My university fulfills her commitments; mentioned in prospectus or elsewhere</p> <p>PAcJ 27 - Inquiry regarding unethical conduct by faculty, staff or another student is handled impartially and seriously</p> <p>PAcJ 29 - Many a times I do not report the misconduct due to a fear of getting covertly victimized</p>	
--	---	--

Content validity is confirmed through opinion of the field experts. Then dimension wise items are grouped to gather and exploratory factor analysis is run on data from a pilot study consisting 263 responses; 149 males and 114 female students from different universities. The item loading was appropriate of all variables except two dimension; rightful admissions and admission process, consisting 4 items of Perceived Academic Justice loaded as a separate factor. It was realized that due to social desirability bias, no one would raise a finger or display a negative perception on admission process through which they themselves have been admitted in the university, thus 4 items from Perceived Academic Justice have been deleted. Complete final survey instrument is available as Annexure H.

Table 3.16
KMO and Bartlett's Test (EFA-Students' Perception)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.839
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2348.890
	Df	136
	Sig.	.000

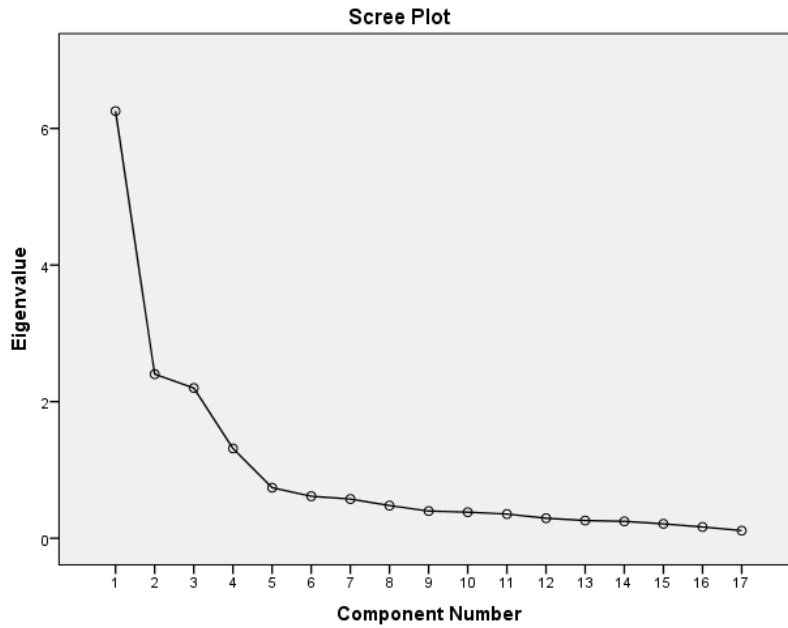


Figure 3.4: Scree Plot (Students)

**Table 3.17
Total Variance Explained (EFA-Students' Perception)**

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.254	36.789	36.789	6.254	36.789	36.789	3.437	20.217	20.217
2	2.402	14.131	50.919	2.402	14.131	50.919	3.388	19.929	40.147
3	2.199	12.937	63.857	2.199	12.937	63.857	2.673	15.724	55.870
4	1.315	7.735	71.591	1.315	7.735	71.591	2.673	15.721	71.591
5	.740	4.352	75.943						
6	.615	3.615	79.558						
7	.574	3.378	82.937						
8	.479	2.817	85.753						

9	.398	2.339	88.092						
10	.382	2.249	90.341						
11	.354	2.084	92.425						
12	.293	1.726	94.151						
13	.259	1.525	95.676						
14	.247	1.453	97.129						
15	.211	1.241	98.370						
16	.165	.971	99.341						
17	.112	.659	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 3.18
Rotated Component Matrix^a (EFA-Students' Perception)

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Impartially Ensuring Integrity	.798			
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Stimulating Employees' Integrity	.867			
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Interactional Integrity	.674			
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Encouraging Whistle- blowing	.797			
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Observing Personal Integrity	.807			
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Integrity Codes		.921		
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Reporting a misconduct		.940		
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Transparency		.890		
Perceived Academic Justice- Rightful Admission				.774
Perceived Academic Justice- Admission Process				.658
Perceived Academic Justice- Class Conduct			.763	
Perceived Academic Justice- Students Assessment			.633	

Perceived Academic Justice- Examinations			.607	
Perceived Academic Justice- Dealing Students' Feedback			.699	
Perceived Academic Justice- Accountability and Reporting Mechanism			.806	
Perceived Academic Justice- Integrity Valued			.818	
Perceived Academic Justice- Ensuring Parity			.849	
Reliability	.917	.938		.930

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

CHAPTER 4

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The issues relating to research methodology i.e. sampling, data collection and analysis were addressed in previous Chapter. The results obtained from qualitative data analysis are presented in this chapter. The chapter begins by providing the key findings obtained from FGDs and semi structured interviews, followed by discussion on the major themes relevant to institutional integrity. Along literature review and findings of qualitative data analysis are knit-together to rationalize our final conceptual framework to assess integrity and compute integrity index of a Higher Education Institution (HEI).

Prior to reporting the key findings obtained from the data analysis of Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) and semi-structured interviews, it is pertinent to mention that all participants of FGDs and interviewees were directly related to HEIs; like top management, administrative staff, faculty members, students. All were having good enough experience with university life, its systems and structures. Therefore browsing through the corridors of their perceptual brain helped us getting an idea, how they view integrity, its challenges and solutions in HEIs.

In the following text, people joined FGDs will be named as participants and coded as P, whereas individuals participated in semi-structured interviews will be called interviewees and coded as I (see chapter 3).

4.1 KEY FINDINGS OBTAINED FROM QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

Though seven (7) FGDs and twelve (12) semi- structured interviews are conducted with different individuals at different times and places, transcribed separately, but finally linked-together for analysis. Exploration of data is performed in five steps. Firstly, based on the literature review (Chapter 2) it is believed that there are certain factors of integrity practices, proposed by different scholars and adopted by many institutions in different countries. These factors are likely shape-up the integrity framework. Therefore, nodes were created to search for the patterns of these integrity practices. Then the search resulted in three (3) broad themes about integrity practices relevant to

higher education institutions. At the third step of analysis, the nodes in each broad theme were further grouped into major themes. For example, under Integrity Codes theme, the nodes were grouped into major themes such as *Administrative integrity codes and Academic integrity codes*. In the fourth stage major themes were grouped into sub-themes. For instance, under *Administrative integrity codes theme*, the nodes were grouped into sub-themes such as General integrity code for employees, Integrity code for hiring, integrity code relevant to whistle blowing etc. After following this grouping process, the number of broad, major and sub-themes relevant to integrity practices are generated (see: Table 4.1). In the last step further categories under each sub-theme were separated (see: Tables 4.2 to 4.?). Next section provides a detail discussion on themes, sub-themes and categories, under broad themes.

4.1.1 Integrity Codes

Development of integrity codes was one of the most mentioned practices during the FGDs and interviews. Total nodes extracted are 516. See table 4.1 for further regrouping and division of nodes for themes, sub themes. Moreover the subthemes have number of categories (see: table 4.2). Themes are briefly discussed with reference to views of participant and interviews as well as literature review.

Policies and rules are considered as preventive measure to deter violations (Hamlin, Barczyk, Powell, & Frost, 2013), as two of the senior participants mentioned:

“There has to be a yard stick before measuring anything. Unless we do not know what to stop and what not, how could we differentiate between right act or a misconduct, therefore extensive rules and codes are required that clearly tell what act challenges ones’ integrity. And in case of HEI we need to develop two yard sticks; one that measures regular administrative activities, for instance hiring, procurement etc., and their ethicality, and second yard stick must measure the academic behavior of teachers and students and all those directly related to academic activities.” (P-04)

Table 4.1
Broad, Major and Sub Themes Extracted from FGDs and Semi-Structured Interviews

Broad Themes	Nodes	Major Themes	Nodes	Sub-themes
Integrity Codes	133 25%	Administrative Integrity Codes	58 43%	Integrity Code - General (employees)
				Integrity Code - Hiring
				Integrity Code - Performance Appraisal
				Integrity Code - Whistle Blowing
				Integrity Code - Conducting and Witnessing in Enquiry
				Integrity Code – Resources/ Opportunity Allocation
				Integrity Code – University Administrative bodies
		Academic Integrity Codes	75 57%	Integrity Code – in General (Teacher)
				Integrity Code – Class Conduct (Teacher)
				Integrity Code – Examination (Teacher)
				Integrity Code - General (Student)
				Integrity Code - Class Conduct (Student)
				Integrity Code - Examinations (Student)
				Integrity Code – Course and Teacher Evaluation (Feedback by Student)
				Integrity Code - Whistle Blowing (Student)
				Integrity Code –Witnessing (Student)
				Integrity Code – University Academic bodies
				Integrity Compliance Mechanism (ICP)
Departmental representation of CIAT				
Integrity codes Awareness Program (ICAP)				
Display of Commitment				
Academics (ICP)	82 59%	Central Integrity Assurance Team (CIAT)		
		Departmental representation of CIAT		
		Integrity codes Awareness Program (ICAP)		
		Display of Commitment		
Perceived Integrity	244 47%	Perceived Individuals' Integrity	76 31%	Perceived Leader Integrity
				Perceived Teacher Integrity
		Awareness & Perceived Transparency	70 29%	Awareness and Perceived Transparency (employees)
				Awareness and Perceived Transparency (students)
		Perceived Justice	98 40%	Perceived Administrative Justice
				Perceived Academic Justice

“Though many rules have been established, but in my experience number of rules and codes specific to integrity are still scarce, say for, we do not have any whistle blowing policy in our HEIs, there are no integrity guidelines available while appraising performance of our employees. Until we do not fully develop explicit codes, it would be difficult to proceed further. I must say that in an organization rules and policies play a fundamental role in confining the activities of its members”.
(P-02)

This discussion confirms the importance of integrity codes as well as need of establishing more integrity codes.

4.1.1.1 Integrity Codes for Administrative Functions

In our FGDs and semi-structured interviews the need to have integrity codes for administrative activities are highlighted as well. We extracted the categories table 4.2 from the following views are:

“Purely administrative activities such as employee hiring, purchasing etc, are expected to be performed with high integrity in an educational institution. To meet these expectations, HEIs follow standard procedures prescribed by Governments, or any relevant body”. (P-21)

“I believe that HEIs should develop more specific codes to ensure integrity in their internal administrative functions. Let’s say Annual Confidential Report; who write it? the immediate boss, and these bosses are never taught how to do it fairly, even there exist no specific code of doing so, and if there is its surely be outdated”. (I-05)

“We all know that whistle blowing helps to strengthen the integrity, but HEIs don’t have such system or mechanism. And when I say system and mechanism I simply mean proper write up including where to report misconduct, how institutions facilitates in safeguarding the whistleblower, what is the benefit one can earn and if the whistle is being blown due to person grudge what could be the consequences etc. So what I am saying is a well formally crafted write up”. (I-01)

“If I witness corruption in my institution I won’t tell anyone, because my institution has no special respect for such people rather such people are taken as odds. And there is no standing policy or guidelines. Frankly speaking I have seen many times that an enquiry is convened by a friend of the accused, because there isn’t any code that guides who can be an enquiry officer and who cannot. Yes there is a policy that enquiry officer should have equal or above grade than the grade of the accused. We call it protocol, I call it corrupol (a laughter), don’t check It in dictionary, I mend it”. (I-06)

“If you want your nomination in funded conferences, trainings, seminars or other activities within city, country or abroad, you need to be in good books of your bosses. And to be in good books you must avoid contradicting their views or wishes, and be respectful to the level that you look buffoon to others (a sarcastic smile). My dear institutions need to establish a self-running system for extending opportunity impartially, and equally among all of its employees, but so far there exist no such thing in HEIs”. (I-03)

“In public sector HEIs the procurement activity follows PPRA (public procurement regulatory authority) rules. It means rules are given importance. Yes we might need more rules or make our existing rules profound enough to assure fairness in all administrative activities”. (I-02)

“We all follow set rules in institutions, but real question is, are those rules followed with integrity or not. I give you an example, PPRA rules prescribe, when amount of purchases exceeds certain limit; let’s say Rs 100, 000, Then the institution needs to announce ‘tender’ and then among the competitors best three quotations should be picked to choose one vendor for the purchase. Now I know all institutions follow this procedure, question is, are those competitors given equal opportunity, pilferage of information is controlled, and finally selected quotations are compared with market rate. If a procedure is followed and something is purchased in Rs. 90, 000 that

actually costs Rs. 60, 000 in the market, you know what I mean”. (P-20)

“The depth and breadth of integrity codes reflect the institutions’ commitment toward corruption and misconducts. Depth and breadth means, that there has to be sufficient integrity rules to handle all necessary misconducts, for instance in my experience there is no whistleblowing codes in public sector HEIs, there is an absence of integrity codes to be taken care of while hiring or appraising performance”. (P-22)

“Main University Bodies like Syndicate etc. play a crucial role. But how the members are selected in such bodies, and whether there exist general guidelines along with integrity guidelines for all the members, are things to consider”. (P-03)

On the bases of these views of our participants and interviewees, further categories were developed; see table 4.

Table 4.2
Categories of Integrity Codes for Administrative Functions

Sr	Sub-Theme	Categories
1	Integrity Code - General (employees)	Appropriate Language
		Respectful communication
		Walking the talk
		Non-politicizing behavior
2	Integrity Code - Hiring	Selection test design and secrecy
		Interview panel and its confidentiality
		Guidelines for panel members
3	Integrity Code - Performance Appraisal	Integrity scoring in Performa
		Guideline for appraiser
4	Integrity Code - Whistle Blowing (employee)	How and to whom
		Whistle blower protection and reward
		Malicious whistleblowing
5	Integrity Code - Conducting and Witnessing in an Enquiry	Selection inquiry panel
		Guideline for inquiry officer
		Witnessing in inquiry
		Protection and reward
6	Integrity Code – Resources/ Opportunity	Fallacious witnessing
		Allocation of physical resources

	Allocation	Nominations; scholarships, training workshops, conferences etc.
7	Integrity Code – University bodies	Selection of member
		Roles and Responsibilities

4.1.1.2 Integrity Codes for Academic Functions

Policies have primary role in influencing the behavior of individuals and organizations, so to enable institutions to foster integrity and curb corruption, thus effective academic integrity codes are a must (Brimble and Stevenson-Clarke 2005; Devlin 2006; East 2009; Gullifer and Tyson 2014). Specific to academic integrity codes, some views of our interviewees are:

“Teacher and students are expected to act fairly and reasonably in all academic conducts, but it requires specific rules that guide them. For last decay plagiarism has been given a focus by higher education commission of Pakistan, teachers are asked to follow guidelines provided by quality enhancement cell (QEC), students’ feedback has been formally encouraged. Student teacher ratio, employer feedback, making course outlines and many other initiatives are witnessed, and I think these all activities are to shape-up the behavior of teachers and students”. (P-24)

“No argument, yes integrity codes specific to academic activities was always needed, and still the requirement of establishing new codes is there. We must recognize the improvement in the development of integrity policies; for example zero tolerance plagiarism policy, but we also should not neglect the urgent need of many rules to be codified; like policy to raise voice against misconduct, a policy to make grading fair and unblemished”. (I-02)

“I think examinations are one of the sensitive areas in academic setting. Teacher can give access to some of their favorites; I have a very recent example of a student who showed me the list of questions going to appear in the exam next day, and it happened. Unofficially I probed into the matter and realized that Mr. teacher; a visiting faculty, sends the quizzes

and exams to class representative (CR) and Mr. CR used to share it with his close fellows. One step forward I tried to find any code that, guides a teacher about integrity expected of him, clearly mentions' the gravity of the misconduct and the consequences, alas I couldn't find anything of such nature. Though we all say it is wrong and everyone knows that exam paper is a secret thing, but I say why not put it into a proper integrity code". (P-19)

Two of the participants in one same FGD produced a healthy debate:

"Integrity codes are designed to assure morality and ethical conduct, so no one can deny its importance, yes some people argue on the extent and detailing of codes that how many behaviors would it cover? For instance a student carrying laptop of a teacher into the class and settling up a stage for him/her, shouldn't we leave it to personal character rather codifying it?" (P-03)

"Leaving to personal character means we are giving space to individuals to practice their own view of ethics and integrity. But I believe that Institutions have or must have its own rock solid texture of integrity, and individuals who join the institution must mold themselves accordingly, as a statement in a movie says 'our way or the highway'". (P-05)

"You mean lots of detailing, so when we talk about academic integrity codes, we need to have plenty of codes to deal plenty of things such as how a student should speak, what should a student look like, what words are prohibited to use by students or faculty, how to sit in a classroom, how a teacher should scold, what act of teacher will be considered favoritism and what not, and the list is too long". (P-03)

"Precisely that's what I meant, when we are unable to put these filters in our tertiary education, then why not now, we have to train them for tomorrow, how can we just let them jump into market without basic principles and values. And how can we let teacher just do what they like unless we don't put filters to their acts as well. I have witnessed a teacher slapping a last

year student of undergrad degree, we all observe students behaving inappropriately, so how to mend it? The first step is developing detail integrity codes". (P-05)

Scholars and experts believe that rules and codes are major control mechanism of ethical behavior (Victor and Cullen 1988; Wimbush and Shepherd 1994; Martin and Cullen 2006; Arnaud and Schminke 2012), and in case of public institutions the role of rules and codes become more important (Buchanan 1996).

Table 4.3
Categories of Integrity Codes for Academic Functions

Sr	Sub-Theme	Categories
1	Integrity Code – in General (teacher/students)	Appropriate Language
		Respectful communication
		Walking the talk
		Non-politicizing behavior
2	Integrity Code - Class Conduct (teacher/student)	Adequacy of communication
		Dress and demeanor
		Use of mobile
		Asking and replying question
		Even treatment
3	Integrity Code – Student Feedback	Handling Misbehavior
		Why and How
4	Integrity Code – Exam/ Quiz (teacher/student)	Secrecy of exam papers (teacher)
		Explicit marking criteria (teacher)
		Invigilation (teacher)
		Proper conduct (students)
		Appeal (student); how and to whom
5	Integrity Code-Cheating and Plagiarism (teacher/student)	Explanation and consequences
		Teacher responsibilities
		Student responsibilities
6	Integrity Code - Whistle Blowing (student)	How and to Whom
		Whistle blower protection and reward
		Penalties for Malicious whistleblowing
7	Integrity Code – Reporting Misconduct and Witnessing an Inquiry (student)	Guidelines for witness
		Protection and reward
		Penalties for fallacious witnessing
8	Integrity Code – University bodies (Academics)	Selection of member
		Roles and responsibilities

4.1.2 Integrity Compliance Mechanism (ICM)

During the FGDs and interviews, it was mentioned that rules alone are useless if their compliance is not assured, and it requires a full fledge compliance mechanism that includes function such as monitoring, and awareness trainings. The theme related to “Integrity Compliance Mechanism” has total number of 139 nodes, which is around 26% of total nodes. The nodes for ICP are further regrouped into major and sub-themes and furthermore the subthemes have number of categories (see: table 4.4). Following section provides a discussion with reference to views of participant and interviews.

“As you know that we all claim to have rules, acts, and codes, but we are speechless when they are not implemented. I could see one reason beside the will, and that is no proper compliance system containing elements to assure whether codes have been implemented or not, such compliance system should be independent and above the influence of fellow colleagues”. (P-01)

“I have been serving in many HEIs during my service. In last decade the trend of professional trainings for university teachers received some attention, due to Higher Education Common (HEC) initiatives like Learning Innovation Division (LID); thanks they have at least realized that teachers do not only need to know their subject but also need to know how to teach it, anyway, so I endorse the LID, but the serious concern is that such trainings whether funded by HEC or university does themselves, have no topic related to integrity or ethics in teaching or in educational institution. I think they believe they have ‘integrity’ already (smirk), but dear, they are living in fools’ paradise”. (I-01)

“Just visit the websites of HEIs, you won’t find any symbol or logo or statement that displays their commitment to encourage integrity within their institution. Continues hammering is important to permanently engrave something in minds. So to engrave ‘live with integrity’ you have to hammer it on eyes and ears through boards and signs and talk and discussion respectively”. (P-08)

Morris (2015) advocated that along design, implementation of academic integrity policy is vital in affecting institutional change, and the views of our participants and interviewees endorse it.

Table 4.4
Categories of Integrity Compliance Mechanism
for Administrative and Academic Functions

Sr	Sub-theme	Categories
1	Integrity Assurance Team (IAT)	System and structure
		Selection of members
		Roles and Responsibilities
2	Departmental representation of IAT	System and structure
		Selection of representative
		Roles and Responsibilities
3	Integrity codes Awareness Program (IcAP)	System and Structure
		Training Curriculum
		Trainer selection
4	Display of Commitment	Website and Social Media
		Prospectus, flyers, official booklets, and Addresses, Speeches, Comments of high ups mentioning integrity as a must need

4.1.3 Perceived Integrity

Once organizations fulfill their responsibility of developing codes and establishing compliance mechanism, it is important that organizational members; student, faculty and staff in our study, must see and believe it happening. Therefore assessing the perception of organizational members toward any system of an organization tells the strength of implementation and pragmatic use of that system. Leaders, transparency, knowledge and justice are the main themes that mold ones perception. Similar thoughts are presented by some of our participants:

“Consider it logically; when I see my boss working honestly, information policies and procedures is readily available, I am taught and trained on organizational rules, and fairness is evident in organizational decisions, it would

definitely leave a strong impression on my set of beliefs toward institution.” (P-10)

“If students are treated fairly by their teachers, they are made aware of university norms, and they witness a serious but impartial action against any misconduct, they tend to say good words about their university, but that’s a cool picture, the reality is somehow different (sad expression)”. (P-07)

Next section will provide the opinion of participants of FGDs and interviewees about the importance of different aspects that shape-up the perception of employee and students toward their institution which ultimately counts to overall integrity of an institution.

4.1.3.1 Perceived Individuals’ Integrity

Individuals at a supervisory positions influence their members, because when members perceive an alignment between words and deeds of their supervisor or group of supervisors they tend to be influenced (Simons, 2002). Such alignment also known as Behavioral Integrity (BI) greatly affects organizational commitment, citizenship behaviors, performance and intent to quit (Simons and McLean Parks 2000; Davis and Rothstein 2006; Dineen et al. 2006; Simons 2008). Same belief is shared by one of our interviewees;

“In fact it’s the individuals who have some authority; legitimate or moral, who can stand by the principles and through their conduct make others follow a right path. All rules, systems, structures are dependent of the individuals who are responsible for others to follow the rules and systems, yes I am referring to managers, supervisors, chairperson, directors, thus all immediate bosses and leaders”. (P-18)

In our studies we have two clear categories of individuals at supervisory positions, one deals in administrative activities, whether academic administration of general, we call them all leaders, and other directly deal with pure academic activities, we call them teachers.

4.1.3.1.1 Perceived Leader Integrity

Perceived leader integrity results in positive workplace outcomes (Craig and Gustafson 1998; Zhu et al. 2004; Davis and Rothstein 2006; Leroy et al., in press; Palanski and Yammarino 2009) by stopping ethical meltdowns (Sims and Brinkman 2003). Our interviewees and percipients also shared similar thoughts.

“Leader is very important? If leader is fair and having integrity, s/he can question the subordinates, can document the unethical act, can forcefully make others to do ethical act. Leader is having power and control and capable to transfer integrity”. (P-06)

“Fair person follows the rules and nicely performs responsibilities. Every position has responsibilities to perform; a person who is performing those responsibilities nicely is a man of integrity”. (P-09)

“A fair and genuine leader is confident, having courage, and does not compromise on fundamental principles”. (P-25)

“In my view when talking about the integrity of leader, what comes to my mind is that leader tends to work in groups with harmony; s/he has capability to have a view point, advocate it and provoke others to stand by it. I think this way we can assess the integrity of a leader”. (P-12)

4.1.3.1.2 Perceived Teacher Integrity

When implementing integrity interventions in educational settings, teachers have pivotal role in doing so (Hagermoser Sanetti, Fallon and Collier-Meek, 2013) because student take them as their leader.

“To me leaders’ activities determine their integrity, like does his acts match with rules, and basic set of values. So if we consider teacher as a leader, then does s/he join and leave the class in time, does s/he prepare well, and try to engage the attention of students by a well versed prepared topic assures teachers integrity”. (P-08)

“Yes we know many teachers who send someone else for roll call and that’s it. And if teacher is not capable of teaching but pretending to be capable to save his job, is another act of dishonesty. For example refined communication is considered as one of fundamental skills in teacher, and he doesn’t carry that, how can he justify his capability as a teacher. A well versed person in his subject might not be a good teacher”. (I-04)

“Teacher has to have updated content to teach, s/he has to be technically sound, but also be familiar with education itself, the philosophy of education, the role of a teacher, the adequate behaviors of a teacher etc. So teacher as a leader conveys his content that makes students understand technical and social aspects of it”. (P-17)

“Beside gifts, I have seen teachers who are poorly biased; they company some specific students and reward them good marks. And I am talking about university teachers, who thought to be mature and neutral but they are not. To satisfy personal egos they like students who do flattering and show unnecessary obedience”. (I-12)

“If we consider the ethical standard and integrity of a teacher as yard stick, then what we say about teachers who use some of the students as their spies in the classroom to get to know what others teachers and students are saying about him/her. Isn’t it corruption to use students for spying and in return give them relaxation in assignments or give better grades?” (I-08)

Table 4.5
Categories of Perceived Individuals’ Integrity

Sr	Sub-theme	Categories
1	Perceived Leader Integrity	Impartially Ensuring Integrity
		Stimulating Employees’ Integrity
		Interactional Integrity
		Encouraging Whistle- blowing
		Observing Personal Integrity
2	Perceived Teacher	Impartially Ensuring Integrity

	Integrity	Stimulating Students' Integrity
		Interactional Integrity
		Encouraging Whistle- blowing
		Observing Personal Integrity

4.1.3.2 Awareness & Perceived Transparency

Implementation of a realistic process for addressing violations, require refinement and then reinforcement of the ethics curriculum (Cardwell, 2010).

4.1.3.2.1 Awareness & Perceived Transparency (Employees)

“Many of us do not know the rules even; I don’t know whether any integrity rules exist here, yes we find out the relevant rules when we need them, but my institution has never given importance to disseminate integrity rules”. (I-07)

“Yes awareness of rule does have an impact on controlling misconducts, people sometime are not aware of what constitutes a misconduct or corruption at their respective job or role”. (P-13)

“I think institutions don’t consider it important to share their integrity codes, which is sad. I believe that all new inductees must go through an induction program as we see in corporations, and that induction program must have a full fledge session on sharing integrity codes of the institution”. (P-16)

“Yes integrity awareness sessions are a good idea, but I personally think that integrity expectation should be reinforced as often as possible”. (I-01)

4.1.3.2.2 Awareness & Transparency (Students)

Table 4.6
Categories of Awareness and Perceived Transparency

Sr	Sub-theme	Categories
1	A&PT employees	Awareness of Integrity Codes

		Awareness of Reporting a misconduct
		Transparency
2	A&PT students	Awareness of Integrity Codes
		Awareness of Reporting a misconduct
		Transparency

4.1.3.3 Perceived Justice

As Greenberg (1990) and Colquitt (2001) mentioned that perceived justice refers to anyone's subjective perceptions of the fairness of allocations, such as hiring, promotion etc. thus organizational justice consists of several sub-dimensions, referring to the allocation of outcomes such as promotion opportunities or rewards (i.e., distributive justice), the process by which the allocations were made (i.e., procedural justice), and the received relational treatment during the dissemination of information about the process (i.e., interactional justice). According to Leventhal (1980), fair procedures are those that are applied consistently, are based on prevailing ethical standards, and are unbiased, accurate, correctable, and representative of all individuals concerned, same is expressed by our participant:

“Justice is prerequisite to all good. Who can deny it? Justice breathes energy and motivation into faculty, staff and students. Human are not blind, if justice prevails, significant majority will admit it, and their perception will reveal it”.
(P-24)

4.1.3.3.1 Perceived Administrative Justice

Perceived justice as whole and specifically in administrative activities has established reputation as predicting a wide range of organizational outcomes such as counterproductive work behavior (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001), ethical and unethical conduct (Fox, Spector and Miles, 2001; Spector and Fox 2002), workplace deviance (Holtz and Harold, 2013), job involvement, and turnover intention (Khan, Abbas, Gul and Raja, 2015). Let's read some of the opinions shared by our FGDs' participants and interviewees.

“I being employee of the university always looked forward to have judicious system that assures fairness to all employees. When I joined university as lecturer long time back,

one of my uncles advised me to be very humble to my boss especially near the performance appraisal, because it's his personal liking that counts most. It is indeed sad to tell that after many years there isn't any significant change in our public sector HEIs. Teachers still has to pay a good amount of effort to make his/her bosses happy. "Junbund na Junbund, Gul Muhamamd" nothing has been changed". (P-02)

"Without having proper functioning accountability mechanism, no institution can claim to have integrity in their system. Because if accountability mechanism exists there would be proper monitoring of conduct and a well-established reporting mechanism would have been existed which display integrity as a valuable asset for an institution. Then employees would carry a positive opinion about their own institution". (P-22)

4.1.3.3.2 Perceived Academic Justice

"What integrity are you talking about sir, we see students cheating and teachers take it so lightly. In universities where your own teachers are invigilators as well as examiners, so they show certain leniency toward students, while caught cheating. And in last 3 years I have never seen any sign of worry among teachers or high authorities regarding such malpractices". (I-09)

"If students put in more effort in making teachers happy than acquiring knowledge, what product do we imagine? If university system doesn't permit student to plead his case against any injustice to him/her, what morality are we talking about. I tell you real story here, one of a student had to face the grudge of a teacher in final results. He asked for paper rechecking, and who did the rechecking, a close friend of the same teacher. Is this you call justice?" (I-11)

"It is common understanding among all students that teacher is always right. Though with the passage of time such supremacy is challenged at some points but still the old norm prevails". (I-10)

“If majority of the students perceive unjust, then there is some problem with the university”. (P-33)

“Justice is synonym to fairness, so even if students’ feedback is not fairly treated, then the institution cannot claim to have justice in their academic processes”. (P-46)

“In and outside classroom, the justice must prevail. So if you claim to have fairness in assessment and examinations and do not have fairness in accountability, your institution can never be perceived having integrity within its system. So either justice exists or doesn’t, partial justice or justice partially is no justice at all. And this wholeness of integrity depends on the wholeness of justice in the academic system”. (P-43)

Table 4.7
Categories of Perceived Justice

Sr	Sub-theme	Categories
1	Perceived Administrative Justice	Integrity in Hiring
		Integrity in Performance Appraisal
		Integrity Valued
		Accountability
		Reporting Mechanism
		Ensuring Parity
2	Perceived Academic Justice	Integrity in Admissions
		Integrity in Class
		Integrity in Student Assessment
		Integrity in Examinations
		Student Feed Back
		Accountability
		Integrity Valued
Ensuring Parity		

On the basis of above views by scholars and our partisans in FGDs and interviewees we reached to our final conceptual framework (see figure4..) that could lead us to compute integrity index of any higher education institution.

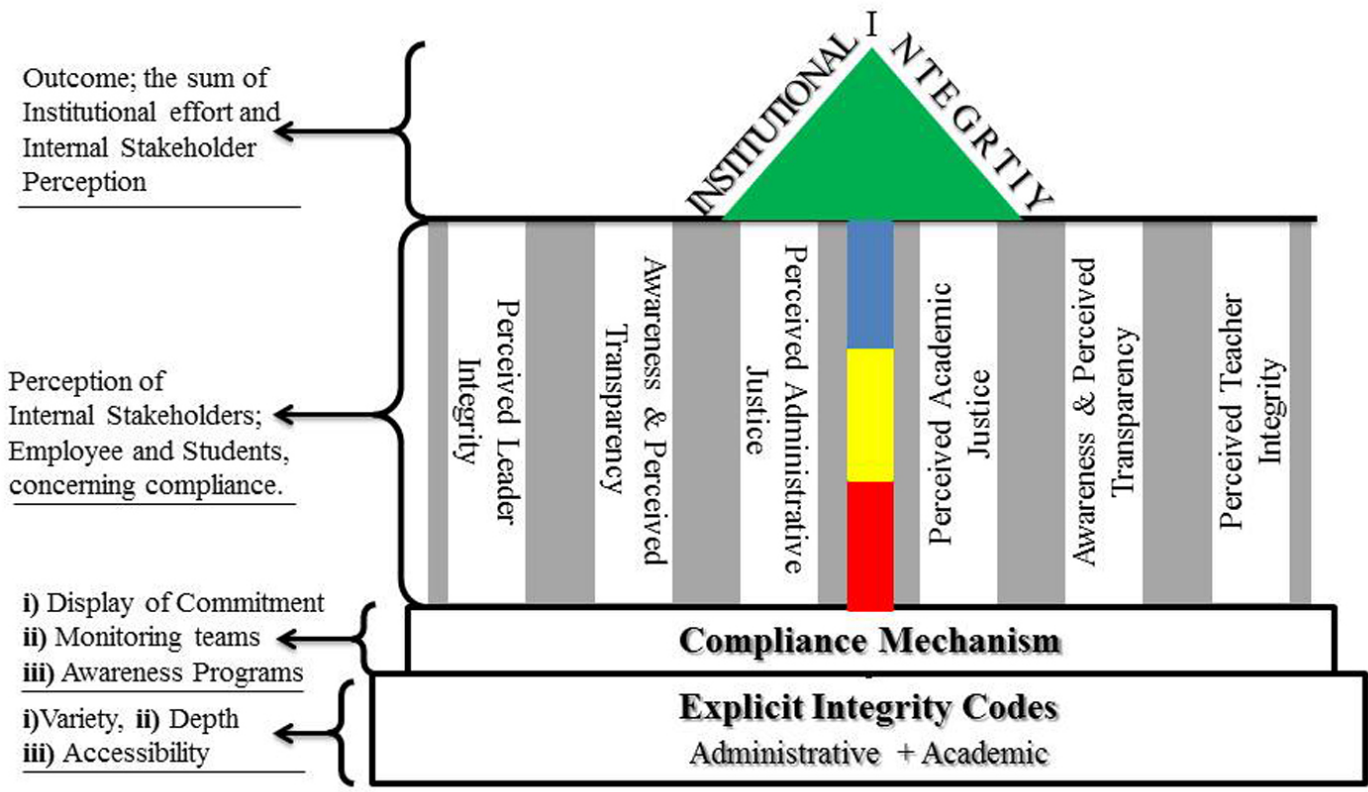


Figure 4.1: Integrity Framework

CHAPTER 5

QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS FINDINGS

This chapter contains the results obtained by quantitative data. There are three sections in this chapter; section 1 provides descriptive, section 2 offers inferential analysis, and section 3 explains the process of computing integrity index and its results using quantitative data.

5.1 DESCRIPTIVE OF INTEGRITY CODES AND INTEGRITY COMPLIANCE

Our data contains institution and individual level information; consisting explicit codes and compliance mechanism; gathered from the documents of the institution, whereas data concerning perception of internal members; employees and students, regarding integrity mechanism, is gathered through survey questionnaires.

The data including integrity codes related to university main bodies (administrative; syndicate, finance and planning, purchase committee, disciplinary committee, and academic; academic council, board of advance studies & research, faculty board and board of studies), employees; teaching and non-teaching, and students, discloses a dismal condition. Table 5.1 unveils, that majority of codes are in poor condition, which indicates; either they are not comprehensively written or not easily accessible. As whistleblowing is considered one of the important element to ensure good governance and integrity, but surprisingly we found no codes regarding that. Integrity codes pertaining to BASR (Board of Advanced Studies & Research) are the only codes earned the 'Good' status.

While probing into documents for the integrity compliance mechanism; commitment display, monitoring, and awareness, we come across startling results. Only mission statement of the university contains a word 'Integrity' whereas no other statement; vice chancellors, deans', chairpersons' messages etc., do not even contain a word i.e. integrity, honesty, ethics, morality, values etc., which shows 'Integrity' as their least priority. There exists a disciplinary committee of generic nature for students, QEC (Quality Enhancement Cell) members pay visits during exams, and they have system to make committees on case-to-case bases, however proper central or departmental integrity

assurance teams and monitoring system are absent. Though QEC provides information on exam conduct (only), but area of formal awareness programs to make employees and students conscious toward integrity in all their actions, is completely inattentive. Please see Table 5.2 that depicts the strength of integrity codes and compliance mechanism.

Table 5.1
Descriptive of Integrity Codes and Integrity Compliance Mechanism

Integrity Code	Mean	Dimensions	Mean	Status
University Bodies; Administrative	2.75	Syndicate	3.00	Fair
		Finance & Panning	3.00	Fair
		Purchase Committee	2.00	Poor
		Disciplinary Committee	3.00	Fair
University Bodies; Academic	2.75	Academic Council	3.00	Fair
		BASR	4.00	Good
		Faculty Board	2.00	Poor
		Board of Studies	2.00	Poor
Employee; All	1.84	General Integrity	4.00	Fair
		Integrity in Hiring	2.00	Poor
		Integrity in PA	0.50	Very Poor
		Whistleblowing	0.00	N-E
		Integrity in Enquiry	3.00	Fair
		Integrity in Witnessing	0.33	Very Poor
Employee; Teacher	2.30	Integrity in General	1.00	Very Poor
		Integrity in Class	0.50	Very Poor
		Integrity in Exams	2.40	Poor
Student	1.16	General Integrity	3.00	Fair
		Integrity in Class	0.66	Very Poor
		Integrity in Exams	1.20	Very Poor
Total	2.16			Poor
Compliance Mechanism	Mean	Dimensions	Mean	Status
Commitment Display	1.00	Statements i.e. vision, mission etc.	1	Very Poor
		Electronic-social media, website etc.	0	N-E
Monitoring	2.00	Central Monitoring	2	Poor
		Departmental Monitoring	2	Poor
Awareness	0.00	Trainings, workshops etc.	0.00	N-E
Total	1.00			Very Poor

BASR: Board of Advanced Studies & Research, N-E: Non-Existent

Table 5.2

Codes and Compliance Strength Chart

Integrity Codes	Strength						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Non-Existent	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very good	Excellent
University Administrative Bodies							
Syndicate							
Finance and Planning							
Purchase Committee							
Discipline Committee							
University Academic Bodies							
Academic Council							
ASRB/BASR/ORIC							
Faculty Board							
Board of Studies							
Employees (Teaching and Non-Teaching)							
General Integrity							
Integrity in Hiring							
Integrity in Performance Appraisal							
Whistleblowing							
Integrity in Enquiry							
Witnessing							
Integrity in Resources Allocation							
Employees (Teaches only)							
Integrity in General							
Integrity in Class							
Integrity in Examinations							
Students							
General Integrity							
Integrity in Class							
Integrity in Examinations							
Integrity in Course and Teacher Evaluation							
Whistleblowing							
Witnessing							
Compliance Mechanism	Strength						
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

	Non-Existent	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Good	Very good	Excellent
Compliance Mechanism for Administrative Functions							
Central Integrity Assurance Team (IAT) –Monitoring							
Departmental Focal Person of IAT –Monitoring							
Integrity Codes Awareness Program (ICAP)							
Display of Commitment							
Compliance Mechanism for Academic Functions							
Central Integrity Assurance Team (IAT) –Monitoring							
Departmental Focal Person of IAT –Monitoring							
Integrity Codes Awareness Program (ICAP)							
Display of Commitment							

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE OF INDIVIDUALS' PERCEPTION

There are two sets of individual respondents; employees (n = 259) and students (n = 707). Let us see the profiles of data set containing employees and students.

5.2.1 Employees' Profile

Among the total 259 respondents (employees), there are 154 males and 105 females. Highest number of respondents (102 which makes up 39.4% of total) belongs to 31-35 years age bracket. Moreover our data set contain more of teaching staff (140) than non-teaching staff (119), in which 40.9% respondents belong to 17th and 18th grade, whereas only 2.7% respondents are above 20th grade. As far as work experience is concerned 43.2% and 6.9% of the respondents are having 1-5 years and above 15 years working experience with current university respectively, and 49.8% respondents are having 6-14 years of experience with current university. Table 5.3 exhibits the profile of employees' in our data set, whereas table 5.3.1 provides more elaborative and conclusive information pertaining to employees' profile.

Table 5.3
Profile Analysis of Overall Respondents (Employees)

Profile (n=259)	Category	Frequencies	Mean	Std.Dev
Gender	Male	154 (59.5 %)	22.89	1.23
	Female	105 (40.5 %)		
Age (in years)	21-25	18 (6.9 %)		

	26-30	53 (20.5 %)	28.43	.991
	31-35	102 (39.4 %)	33.08	1.39
	36-40	48 (18.5 %)	36.75	1.10
	41-45	17 (6.6 %)	43.59	1.77
	46-50	5 (1.9 %)	49.00	.000
	Above 50	16 (6.2 %)	54.00	1.46
			34.39	7.30
Job Type	Teaching	140 (54.1 %)		
	Non-Teaching	119 (45.9 %)		
Grade	1-10	38 (14.7 %)	8.11	2.31
	11-16	44 (17 %)	14.48	2.08
	17-18	130 (50.2 %)	17.68	1.45
	19-20	40 (15.4 %)	18.53	1.28
	Above 20	7 (2.7 %)	21.00	.000
Experience at Current University (in years)	1-5	112 (43.2 %)	3.18	1.97
	6-10	93 (35.9 %)	8.55	2.31
	11-15	36 (13.9 %)	12.00	4.72
	Above 15	18 (6.9 %)	27.33	8.36
Total Working Experience (in years)	1-5	101 (39 %)	5.95	3.85
	6-10	88 (34 %)	10.29	2.67
	11-15	38 (14.7 %)	14.00	4.74
	Above 15	32 (12.4 %)	23.53	9.09

5.2.2 Students' Profile

Let us now discuss the other set of respondents; students. There are 398 male and 309 female students in total data set of 707, which makes up 56.3% and 43.7% respectively. Our data set reveals that most of the students; 368 (52%), fit in the 21-25 years age bracket, followed by 240 (33.9%) students are less than 21 years of age; mean value is 19 years. There are 82.3% and 5.4% students are enrolled in undergrad and postgrad programs respectively. We collected the data during odd semester and dropped students of semester 1; as we argue that students in first semester are not well aware about their institution, therefore our data contains responses of the students studying in semester 3, 5 and 7. The highest number of students; 299 (42.3%), are studying in 3rd semester whereas students' responses from 5th and 7th semester are 179 (25.3%), and 229 (32.4%) respectively. Students in our final sample represent all provinces of Pakistan i.e. 85 belong to north of Pakistan including Gilgit Baltistan, Azad Jammu & Kashmir, and Khyber PakhtouKhwa, 593 represent Punjab, and 29 students show their affiliation with Balochistan and Sindh. Table 5.4 provides a quick glance over the profile of students.

5.2.3 Employees' Perception

Table 5.5 shows almost a similar trend in the perception of male; teaching and non-teaching employees at the university, for instance the total mean value of male employees is between 3.5 and 4 with very little difference in the dispersion of data. However females teaching employees' total mean value is higher than non-teaching female employees. The mean value of each variable; perceived leader integrity, awareness and perceived transparency and perceived administrative justice, is closely similar among all employees, except perceived leader integrity has higher mean in the data set containing perception of teaching employees.

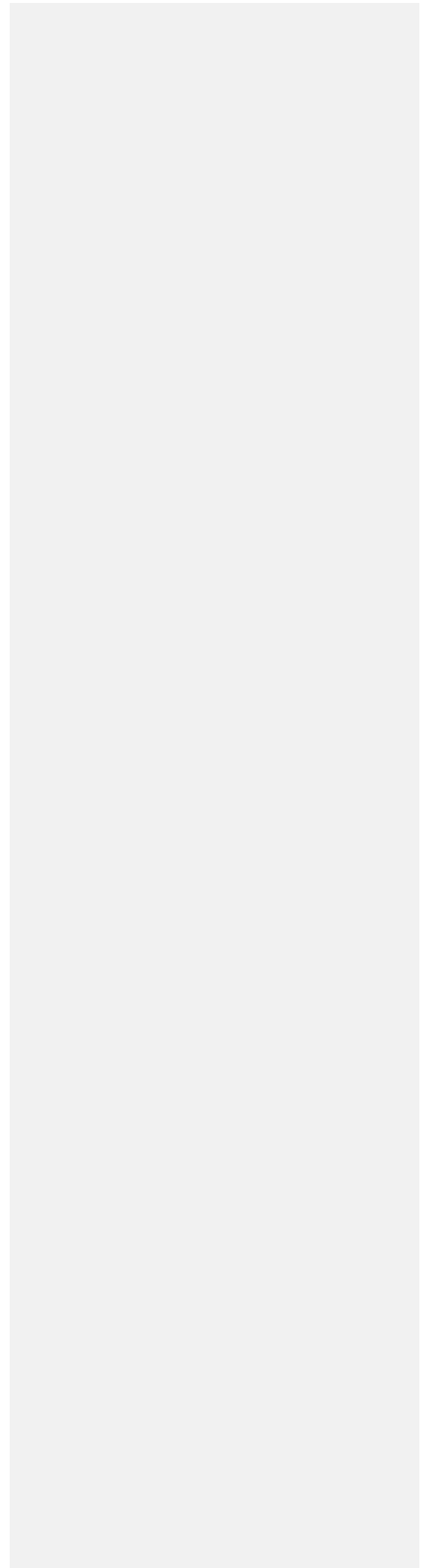


Table 5.3.1
Elaborative Profile Analysis of Overall Respondents (Employees)

Employees - Job Type: Teaching						Employees - Job Type: Non-Teaching					
	Male	Female	Total	Mean	Std.Dev		Male	Female	Total	Mean	Std.Dev
	68 (48.6 %)	72 (51.4%)	140				86 (72.26 %)	33 (27.73%)	119		
Age						Age					
21-25	4 (5.9 %)	00.00	4	23.83	0.92	21-25	10 (11.6 %)	4 (12.1 %)	14	22.86	1.40
26-30	00.00	20 (27.8 %)	20	28.40	0.50	26-30	26 (30.2 %)	7 (21.2 %)	33	28.45	1.20
31-35	36 (52.9 %)	44 (61.1 %)	80	32.95	1.16	31-35	10 (11.6 %)	12 (36.4 %)	22	33.55	1.96
36-40	20 (29.4 %)	8 (11.1 %)	28	37.14	1.26	36-40	10 (11.6 %)	10 (30.3 %)	20	36.20	0.41
Above 50	8 (11.8 %)	00.00	8	54.00	1.37	41-45	17 (19.8 %)	00.00	17	43.59	1.77
						46-50	5 (5.8 %)	00.00	5	49.44	0.61
						Above 50	8 (9.3 %)	00.00	8	54.00	2.13
Grade						Grade					
17-18	38 (55.88 %)	59 (81.94%)	97	18.32		1-10	26 (30.23 %)	12 (36.63%)	38	8.11	2.31
19-20	23 (33.82 %)	13 (18.05%)	36	18.89	0.46	11-16	31 (36.04 %)	13 (39.39%)	44	14.48	2.08
Above	7 (10.29 %)	0	7	21.00	0.52	17-18	26 (30.23 %)	7 (21.21 %)	33	15.79	1.70
20					0.00	19-20	3 (3.48 %)	1 (3.03 %)	4	15.25	1.50
WECU						WECU					
1-5	29 (42.64%)	53 (73.61%)	82	2.97	1.72	1-	22 (25.58%)	8 (24.24%)	30	3.76	2.47
6-10	22 (32.35)	17 (23.61%)	39	7.71	2.40	5	34 (39.53%)	20 (60.60%)	54	9.16	2.07
11-15	9 (13.23%)	2 (2.77%)	11	9.00	3.77	6-10	22 (25.58%)	5 (15.15%)	27	13.00	4.63
Above 15	8 (11.76)	0	8	25.00	10.54	11-15	8 (9.30%)	0	8	30.25	3.10
						Above 15					
OWE						OWE					
1-	24 (35.29%)	50 (69.44%)	74	5.72	3.31	1-5	21 (24.41%)	6 (18.18%)	27	6.55	5.06
5	22 (32.35%)	17 (23.61%)	39	9.76	2.85	6-10	28 (32.55%)	21 (63.63%)	49	10.71	2.48
6-10	11 (16.17%)	1 (1.38%)	12	10.33	4.73	11-15	20 (23.25%)	6 (18.18%)	26	15.69	3.74
11-15	11 (16.17%)	4 (5.55%)	15	20.46	10.96	Above 15	17 (19.76%)	0	17	26.23	6.22
Above 15											

WECU: Work Experience at Current University OWE: Overall Work Experience

Table 5.4
Profile Analysis of Overall Respondents (Students)

		Male	Female	Total	Mean	Std.Dev
		398 (56.3 %)	309 (43.7 %)	707		
Age	Less than 21	118 (29.6%)	122 (39.4%)	240 (33.9%)	19.35	0.717
	21-25	216 (54.2%)	152 (49.1%)	368 (52.0%)	22.61	1.40
	26-30	39 (9.7%)	28 (9.0%)	67 (9.4%)	28.77	2.17
	31-35	25 (6.2%)	7 (2.2%)	32 (4.5%)	33.09	2.37
	Mean	24.42	23.87	24.14		
TQ (in years)	12	330 (82.9%)	252 (81.6%)	582 (82.3%)		
	16	39 (9.8%)	48 (15.5%)	87 (12.3%)		
	18	29 (7.3%)	9 (2.9%)	38 (5.4%)		
EP	Undergrad	330 (82.9%)	252 (81.6%)	582 (82.3%)		
	Grad	39 (9.8%)	48 (15.5%)	87 (12.3%)		
	Postgrad	29 (7.3%)	9 (2.9%)	38 (5.4%)		
Semester	3	162 (40.7%)	137 (44.3%)	299 (42.3%)		
	5	106 (26.6%)	73 (23.6%)	179 (25.3%)		
	7	130 (32.7%)	99 (32.0%)	229 (32.4%)		
R(P)	Gilgit Baltistan	11 (2.8%)	7 (2.3%)	18 (2.5%)		
	Khyber Pakhtoun Khau	32 (8%)	8 (2.6%)	40 (5.7%)		
	Punjab	305 (76.6%)	288 (93.2%)	593 (83.9%)		
	Balochistan	9 (2.3%)	1 (0.3%)	10 (1.4%)		
	Sindh	19 (4.8%)	0	19 (2.7%)		
	Azad Jammu & Kashmir	22 (5.5%)	5 (1.6%)	27 (3.8%)		

TQ: Terminal Qualification **EP:** Enrolled Program **R(P):** Resident of (Province)

Table 5.5
Descriptive of Employees' Perception

Variable	Faculty				Non-Faculty			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Mean	Std-Dev	Mean	Std-Dev	Mean	Std-Dev	Mean	Std-Dev
PLI	4.66	0.98	4.18	0.43	3.79	1.00	3.63	1.05
A&PT	3.46	1.48	3.83	0.38	3.37	0.85	3.20	1.05
PAdJ	3.80	0.83	4.26	0.43	3.43	1.17	3.59	1.15
Total	3.97	1.09	4.09	0.41	3.53	1.00	3.47	1.08

PLI: Perceived Leader Integrity, **A&PT:** Awareness and Perceived Transparency,

PAdJ: Perceived Administrative Justice

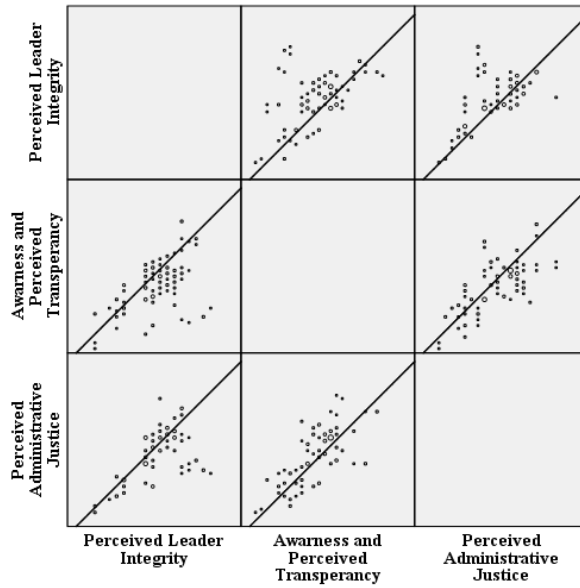
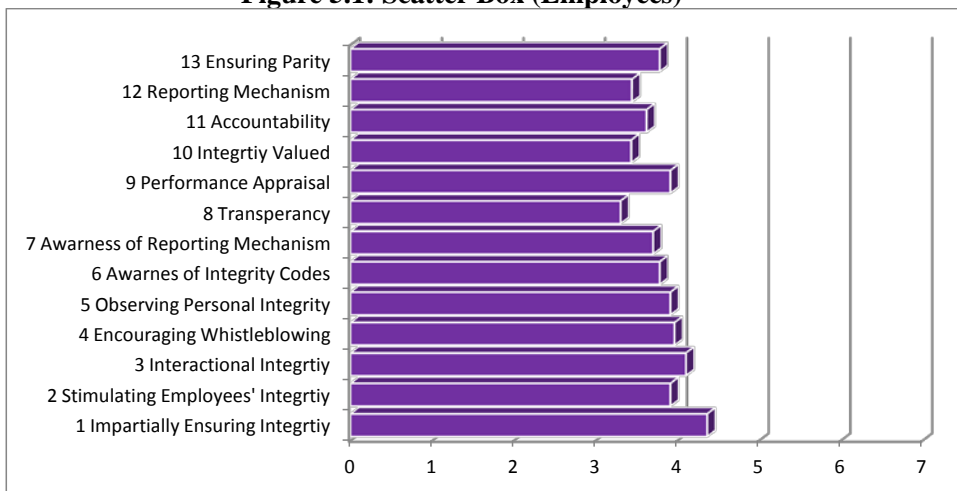


Figure 5.1: Scatter Box (Employees)



*Factors of Perceived Leader Integrity 1-5, Awareness and Perceived Integrity 6-8, Perceived Administrative Justice 9-13

Figure 5.2: Factor Wise Perception of Employees

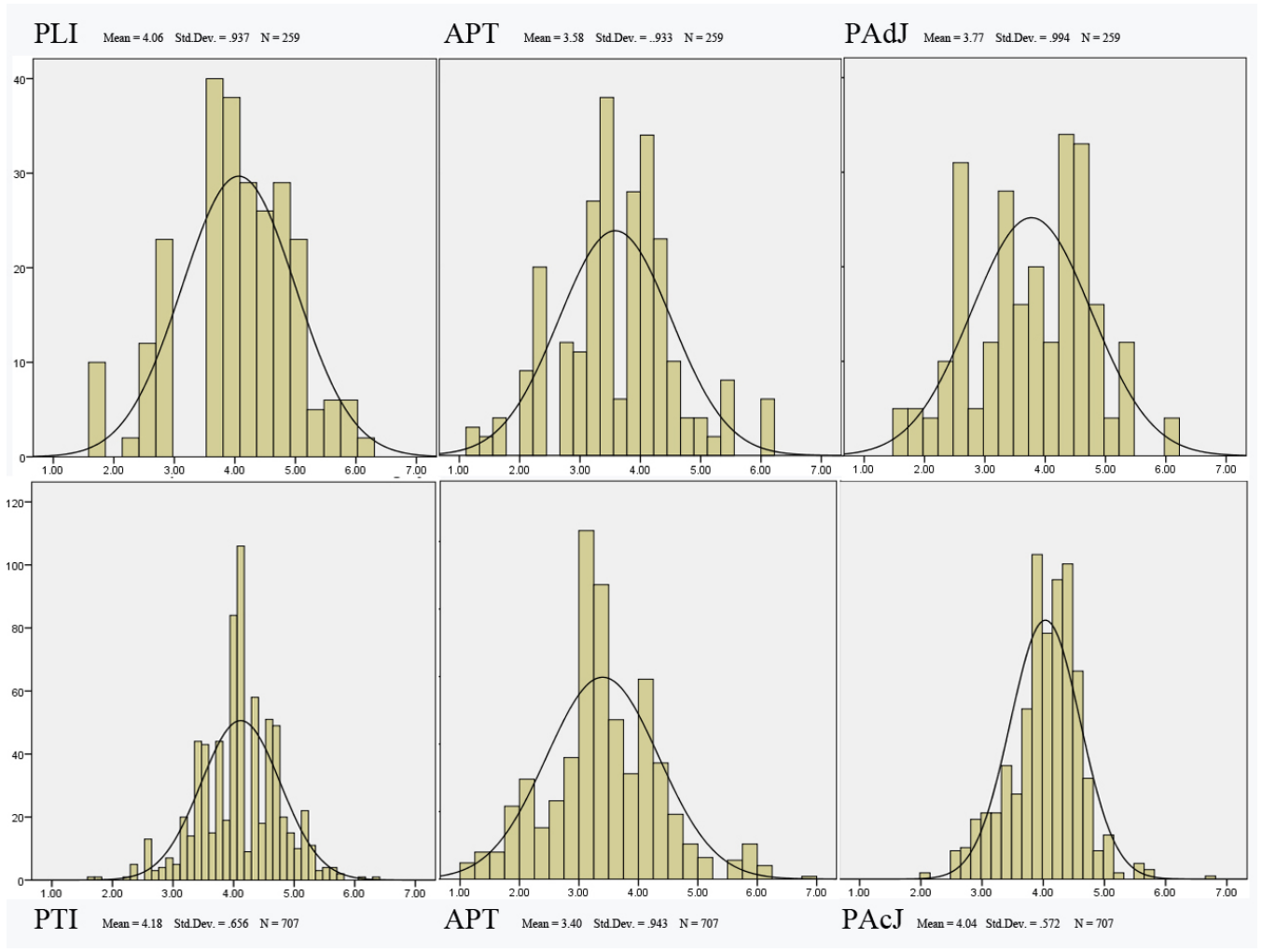


Figure 5.3: Histogram and Data Normality Curve

5.2.4 Students' Perception

Students of all semester; 3rd, 5th and 7th, provide a neutral perception toward their teachers' integrity, and similarly consider the academic justice fair enough to run the show. The mean value of male, female students of all semesters in the data set is lesser than rest of the variables. The cumulative mean of all variables is lesser than 4 and standard deviation is between .60 and .90. Table 5.6 displays the descriptive of students' perception.

Table 5.6
Descriptive of Students' Perception

Variable	Semester 3				Semester 5				Semester 7			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
PTI	4.11	0.62	4.09	0.54	4.14	0.67	4.09	0.52	4.16	0.78	4.06	0.73
A&PT	3.54	0.95	3.35	0.84	3.35	1.03	3.50	0.94	3.24	0.92	3.38	0.93
PAcJ	4.02	0.54	3.96	0.51	4.09	0.57	4.06	0.55	4.06	0.61	4.00	0.57
Total	3.89	0.70	3.8	0.63	3.86	0.75	3.88	0.67	3.82	0.77	3.81	0.74

PTI: Perceived Teacher Integrity, **A&PT:** Awareness and Perceived Transparency, **PAcJ:** Perceived Academic Justice

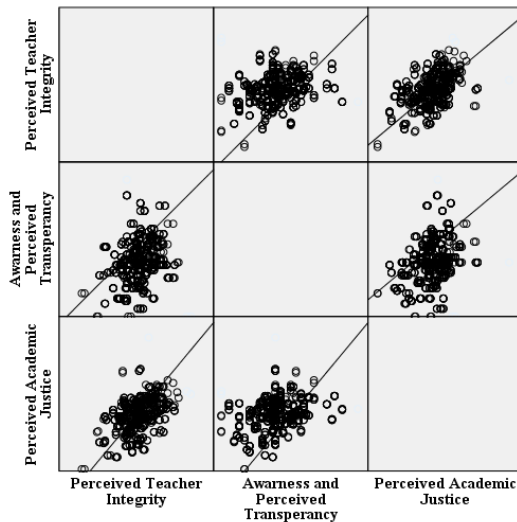
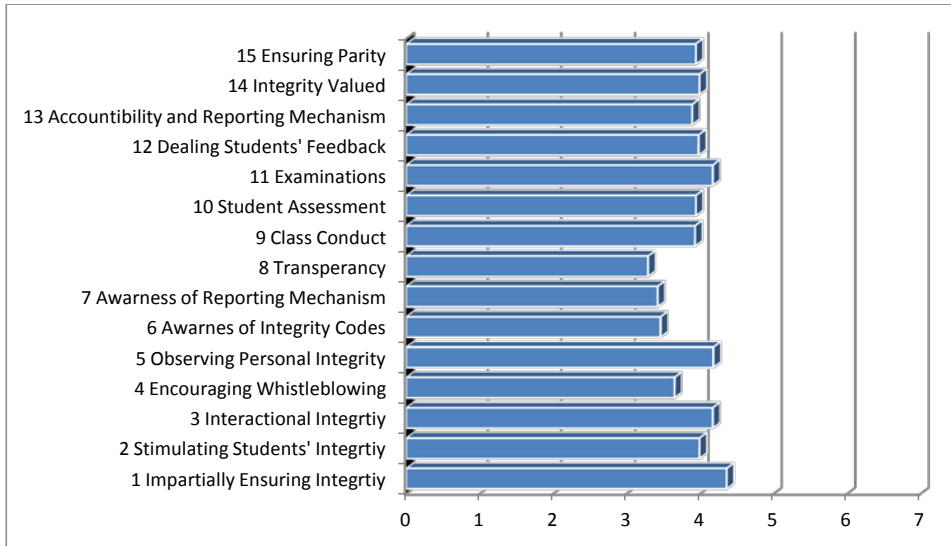
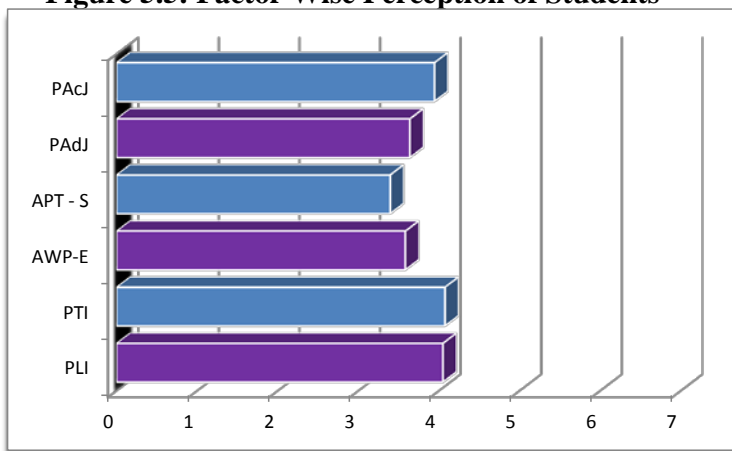


Figure 5.4: Scatter Box (Students)



*Factors of Perceived Teacher Integrity 1-5, Awareness and Perceived Integrity 6-8, Perceived Administrative Justice 9-15

Figure 5.5: Factor Wise Perception of Students



*PLI: Perceived Leader Integrity, PTI: Perceived Teacher Integrity, AWP (E-S): Awareness and Perceived Transparency (Employee – Student), PAdJ: Perceived Administrative Justice, PACJ: Perceived Academic Justice

Figure 5.6: Employees' and Students' Overall Perception

5.3 EFA and CFA (employees' data set)

We run EFA (exploratory factor analysis) on final employee data set. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure confirmed the adequacy of our sampling for the principal component analysis (Table 5.7), KMO = 0.849 (i.e. greater than 0.6, as recommended by Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001 and 'great' according to Field, 2009) indicating the appropriateness of the factor analysis (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001). Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2(78) = 3133.352$, $p < .001$, also indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for principal component analysis. In commonalities all extraction values are above .6 except item.

Table 5.7
KMO and Bartlett's Test (EFA-Employees' Perception)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.849
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3133.352
	Df	78
	Sig.	.000

Table 5.8
Commonalities (EFA-Employees' Perception)

Sr	Items	Initial	Extraction
1	Perceived Leader Integrity- Impartially Ensuring Integrity	1.000	.874
2	Perceived Leader Integrity- Stimulating Employees' Integrity	1.000	.853
3	Perceived Leader Integrity- Interactional Integrity	1.000	.809
4	Perceived Leader Integrity- Encouraging Whistle- blowing	1.000	.706
5	Perceived Leader Integrity- Observing Personal Integrity	1.000	.743
6	Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Integrity Codes	1.000	.806
7	Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Reporting a misconduct	1.000	.782
8	Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Transparency	1.000	.685
9	Perceived Administrative Justice- Integrity in Performance Appraisal	1.000	.775
10	Perceived Administrative Justice- Integrity Valued	1.000	.866
11	Perceived Administrative Justice- Accountability	1.000	.890
12	Perceived Administrative Justice- Reporting Mechanism	1.000	.785

13	Perceived Administrative Justice- Ensuring Parity	1.000	.859
----	---	-------	------

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 5.9
Total Variance Explained (EFA-Employees' Perception)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.287	56.053	56.053	7.287	56.053	56.053	4.140	31.847	31.847
2	1.985	15.268	71.321	1.985	15.268	71.321	3.796	29.201	61.049
3	1.162	8.938	80.259	1.162	8.938	80.259	2.497	19.210	80.259
4	.614	4.727	84.985						
5	.387	2.974	87.959						
6	.332	2.553	90.512						
7	.297	2.283	92.795						
8	.291	2.237	95.032						
9	.209	1.608	96.641						
10	.148	1.135	97.776						
11	.136	1.048	98.823						
12	.086	.663	99.486						
13	.067	.514	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

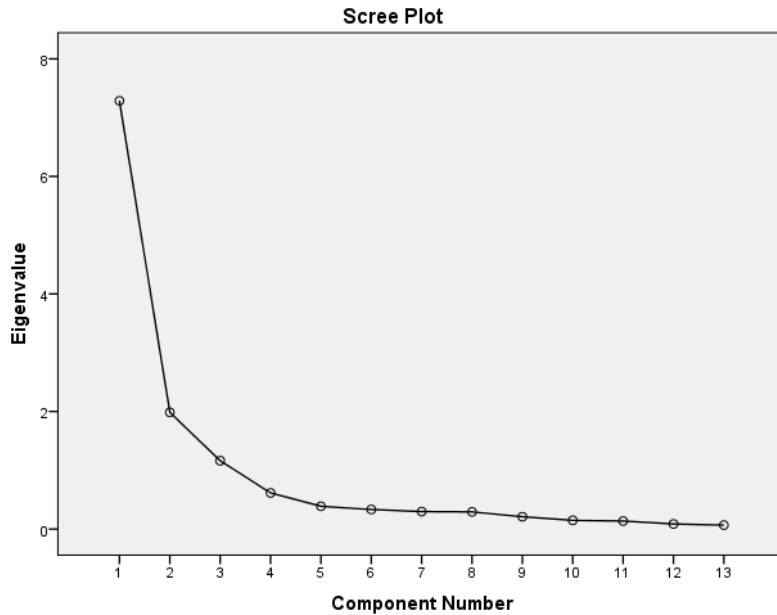


Figure 5.7: Scree Plot (EFA-Employees' Perception)

**Table 5.10
Rotated Component Matrix^a (EFA-Employees' Perception)**

	Component		
	1	2	3
Perceived Leader Integrity- Impartially Ensuring Integrity	.899		
Perceived Leader Integrity- Stimulating Employees' Integrity	.890		
Perceived Leader Integrity- Interactional Integrity	.845		
Perceived Leader Integrity- Encouraging Whistle- blowing	.792		
Perceived Leader Integrity- Observing Personal Integrity	.793		
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Integrity Codes		.836	
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Reporting a misconduct		.833	
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Transparency		.704	
Perceived Administrative Justice- Integrity in Performance Appraisal			.732
Perceived Administrative Justice- Integrity Valued			.794

Perceived Administrative Justice- Accountability			.895
Perceived Administrative Justice- Reporting Mechanism			.847
Perceived Administrative Justice- Ensuring Parity			.822
Reliability	.929	.836	.936

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

To examine the likelihood of a unidimensional of multifaceted integrity perception scale (rather than a three-factor model), the second model, where all 23 items were loaded onto a single factor was tested. The fit statistics for unidimensional multifaceted thriving scale model are as follows: $\chi^2 = 10460.312$; $\chi^2/df = 42.521$; GFI = 0.820; AGFI = 0.780; CFI = 0.282; NFI = 0.279; RMSEA = 0.335; SRMR = 0.052; and TLI = 0.195. The values of model fit indices for unidimensional was not satisfactory in any of the acceptable level of good fit. In essence, the results supported a three factor model over a one factor model.

Table 5.11
Calculated Fit Indices and Level of Acceptable Fit
(CFA-Employees' Perception)

S#	Indices	Level of Acceptable Fit	Source	Calculated Fit Indices
1	χ^2			534.603
2	χ^2/df	$\chi^2/df \leq 5$	Hair et al., 2010; Hu and Bentler, 1999; Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993	$534/223 = 8.47$
3	Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	$.90 \leq GFI \leq 1$	Hu and Bentler, 1999	.783
4	Adjusted Goodness Fit Index (AGFI)	$.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1$	Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2000	.682
5	Comparative Fix Index (CFI)	$.90 \leq CFI \leq 1$	Kline, 2005; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001	.849
6	Normed Fit Index (NFI)	$.90 \leq NFI \leq 1$	Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001	.833
7	Root Mean Square Error of	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 1$	Browne and Cudeck, 1993; Hu	.175

	Approximation (RMSEA)		and Bentler, 1999; MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara, 1996	
7	Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	$.90 \leq \text{TLI} \leq 1$	Kline, 2005	.810

5.4 EFA and CFA (students' data set)

We also run EFA (exploratory factor analysis) on students data set. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure confirmed the adequacy of our sampling for the principal component analysis (Table 3...), KMO = 0.850 (i.e. greater than 0.6, as recommended by Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001 and 'great' according to Field, 2009) indicating the appropriateness of the factor analysis (Tabachnik and Fidell, 2001). Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi^2 (105) = 7082.870$, $p < .001$, also indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for principal component analysis.

Table 5.12
KMO and Bartlett's Test (EFA-Students' Perception)

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.850
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	7082.870
	Df	105
	Sig.	.000

Table 5.13
Commonalities (EFA-Students' Perception)

	Initial	Extraction
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Impartially Ensuring Integrity	1.000	.716
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Stimulating Students' Integrity	1.000	.780
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Interactional Integrity	1.000	.554
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Encouraging Whistle- blowing	1.000	.590
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Observing Personal Integrity	1.000	.731
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Integrity Codes	1.000	.873
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Reporting a misconduct	1.000	.877

Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Transparency	1.000	.837
Perceived Academic Justice- Integrity in Class	1.000	.751
Perceived Academic Justice- Integrity in Student Assessment	1.000	.526
Perceived Academic Justice- Integrity in Examinations	1.000	.558
Perceived Academic Justice- Student Feed Back	1.000	.663
Perceived Academic Justice- Accountability and Reporting Mechanism	1.000	.696
Perceived Academic Justice- Integrity Valued	1.000	.585
Perceived Academic Justice- Ensuring Parity	1.000	.735

Table 5.14
Total Variance Explained (EFA-Students' Perception)

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.119	40.797	40.797	6.119	40.797	40.797	4.454	29.694	29.694
2	2.218	14.787	55.584	2.218	14.787	55.584	3.381	22.540	52.234
3	2.135	14.231	69.815	2.135	14.231	69.815	2.637	17.581	69.815
4	.901	6.007	75.822						
5	.632	4.212	80.034						
6	.488	3.250	83.284						
7	.459	3.062	86.346						
8	.421	2.805	89.151						
9	.347	2.311	91.461						
10	.273	1.823	93.284						
11	.257	1.716	95.000						
12	.249	1.657	96.657						
13	.200	1.333	97.990						
14	.186	1.242	99.232						

15	.115	.768	100.000						
----	------	------	---------	--	--	--	--	--	--

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

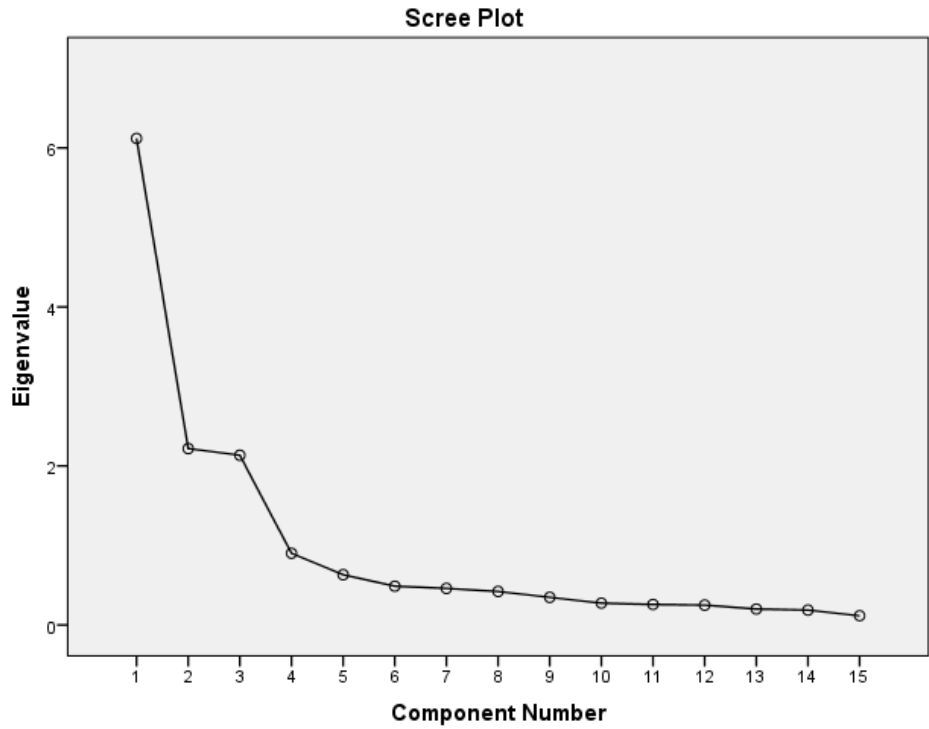


Figure 5.8: Scree Plot (EFA-Students' Perception)

Table 5.15
Rotated Component Matrix^a (EFA-Students' Perception)

	Component		
	1	2	3
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Impartially Ensuring Integrity	.810		
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Stimulating Students' Integrity	.867		
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Interactional Integrity	.710		
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Encouraging Whistle-blowing	.748		
Perceived Teacher Integrity- Observing Personal Integrity	.799		

Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Integrity Codes		.914	
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Awareness of Reporting a misconduct		.930	
Awareness and Perceived Transparency- Transparency		.885	
Perceived Academic Justice- Integrity in Student Assessment			.856
Perceived Academic Justice- Integrity in Examinations			.673
Perceived Academic Justice- Student Feed Back			.694
Perceived Academic Justice- Accountability			.805
Perceived Academic Justice- Integrity Valued			.802
Perceived Academic Justice- Ensuring Parity			.735
Reliability	.868	.920	.899

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

To examine the likelihood of a unidimensional of multifaceted integrity perception scale (rather than a three-factor model), the second model, where all 23 items were loaded onto a single factor was tested. The fit statistics for unidimensional multifaceted thriving scale model are as follows: $\chi^2 = 10460.312$; $\chi^2/df = 42.521$; GFI = 0.820; AGFI = 0.780; CFI = 0.282; NFI = 0.279; RMSEA = 0.335; SRMR = 0.052; and TLI = 0.195. The values of model fit indices for unidimensional was not satisfactory in any of the acceptable level of good fit. In essence, the results supported a three factor model over a one factor model (ANNEXURE D).

Table 5.16
Calculated Fit Indices and Level of Acceptable Fit
(CFA-Students' Perception)

S#	Indices	Level of Acceptable Fit	Source	Calculated Fit Indices
1	χ^2			945
2	χ^2/df	$\chi^2/df \leq 5$	Hair et al., 2010; Hu and Bentler, 1999; Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1993	945/87 = 10.8
3	Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	$.90 \leq GFI \leq 1$	Hu and Bentler, 1999	.849

4	Adjusted Goodness Fit Index (AGFI)	$.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1$	Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2000	.792
5	Comparative Fix Index (CFI)	$.90 \leq CFI \leq 1$	Kline, 2005; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001	.878
6	Normed Fit Index (NFI)	$.90 \leq NFI \leq 1$	Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001	.868
7	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$0 \leq RMSEA \leq 1$	Browne and Cudeck, 1993; Hu and Bentler, 1999; MacCallum, Browne and Sugawara, 1996	.118
7	Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI)	$.90 \leq TLI \leq 1$	Kline, 2005	.853

5.5 COMPUTING INTEGRITY INDEX

Lastly we reached to our final stage where we could compute integrity index of a higher education institution. We calculated their scores and took percentages. The index was calculated using the following formula

$$\frac{\text{Mean} + \text{Maximum Number}}{\text{Maximum Number} - \text{Minimum Number}}$$

Then final mean index of each variable and of entire institution is calculated (see; Table 5.17 - 5.22), which fall between 0 to 1. To display the integrity level a bandwidth is then split in 4 equal sections; i) 0-0.25 alarming to upsetting, 0.26-0.50 very poor to poor, 0.51-0.75 renaissance to revived, and 0.76-1 good to excellent. Tables and figures below represent the integrity level 0 as lowest to 1 highest.

Table 5.17
Integrity Index of Codes (University Bodies)

Sr	Variable	Mean	Integrity Index	Score	Percentage
1	Administrative Bodies	3	0.46	12/28	42.85%
2	Academic Bodies	2.75	0.42	11/28	39.28%
Total		2.87	0.44	23/56	41.07%

Table 5.19 shows the mean, score, and percentage and integrity index of codes for university bodies. The table and figure represents that integrity codes for administrative bodies as well as academic bodies fall in the area; poor with integrity index of 0.46 and 0.42 respectively.

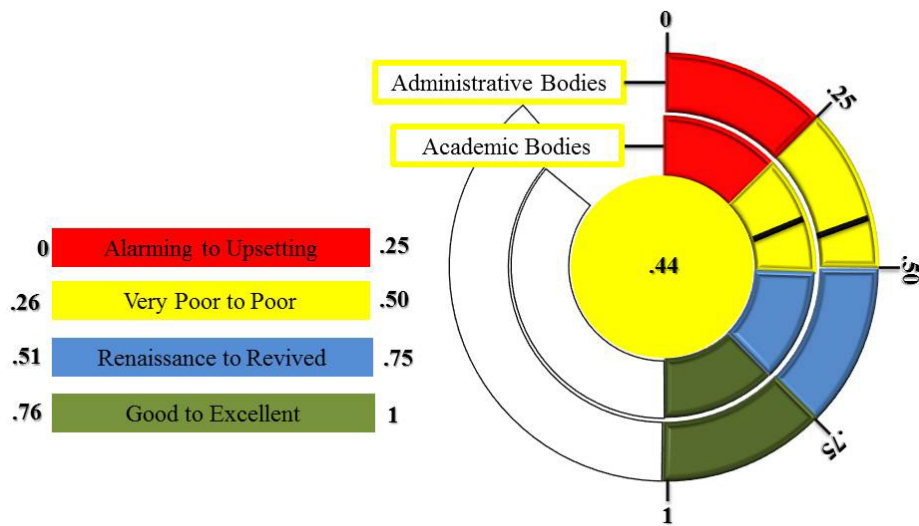


Figure 5.9: Integrity Index Dial; Codes (University Bodies)

Table 5.18
Integrity Index of Codes (Employees and Students)

Sr	Variable	Mean	Integrity Index	Score	Percentage
1	All employees	2.9	0.32	12.33/49	25.16%
2	Employees (Teaching)	1.3	0.38	4.9/21	23.33%
3	Students	1	0.19	6/42	14.28%
Total		1.73	0.29	23.23/112	20.74%

Table 5.20 shows the mean, score, and percentage and integrity index of codes for university employees; teaching and non-teaching and students. The table and figure represents that integrity codes for employees have earned better score and fall in very poor area with the integrity index 0.35. Whereas integrity codes for students fall in the upsetting area with integrity index of 0.19.

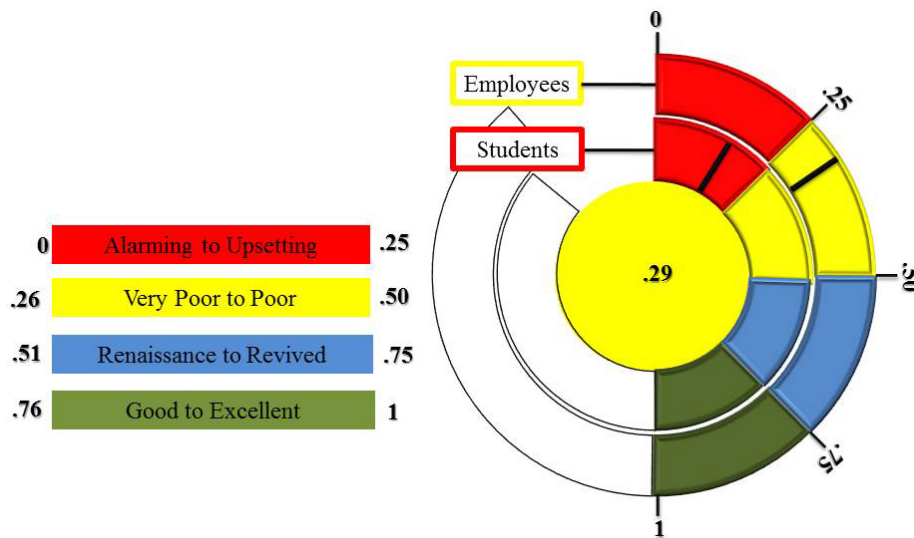


Figure 5.10: Integrity Index Dial; Codes (Employees and Students)

Table 5.19
Integrity Index of Integrity Compliance Mechanism

Sr	Variable	Mean	Integrity Index	Score	Percentage
1	Display of Commitment	0.5	0.17	1/14	7.14%
2	Integrity Monitoring	2	0.33	12/42	28.57%
	Integrity Awareness Program	0	0.00	0/28	0
Total		0.83	0.16	13/84	15.47%

Table 5.21 exhibits the mean, score, and percentage and integrity index of compliance mechanism, consisting of display of commitment, integrity monitoring, and awareness program. The table and figure represents that integrity compliance mechanism is near alarming condition with the integrity index of 0.16. Among three the integrity index of integrity monitoring is above 0.25, and falls in very poor area with 0.33 integrity index.

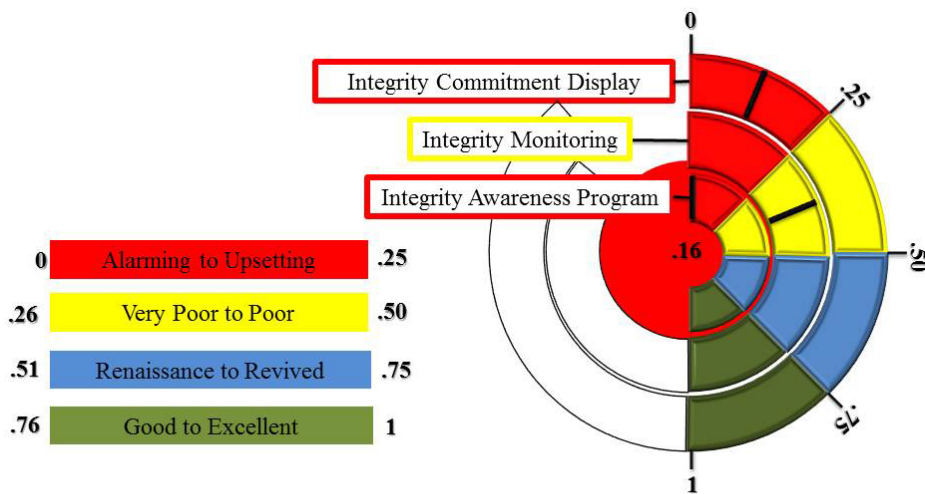


Figure 5.11: Integrity Index Dial; Compliance Mechanism

Table 5.20
Integrity Index of Employees' Perception

Sr	Variable	Mean	Integrity Index	Score	Percentage
1	PLI	4.06	0.50	73.15/126	58.05%
2	A&PT	3.58	0.43	32.23/63	51.15%
3	PAdJ	3.66	0.43	54.9/105	52.28%
Total		3.77	.45	160.28/294	54.51%

Table 5.22 exhibits the mean, score, and percentage and integrity index of employees' perception of their leader, awareness and transparency and administrative justice. The table and figure represents that as per the perception of employees their leaders are having integrity closer to renaissance but falls in poor area with integrity index of 0.50.

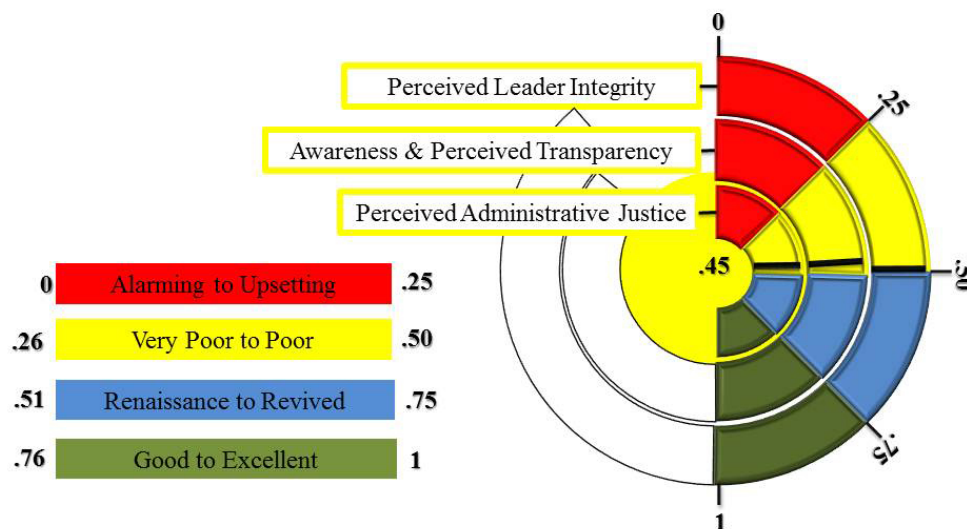


Figure 5.12: Integrity Index Dial; Employees' Perception

Table 5.21
Integrity Index of Students' Perception

Sr	Variable	Mean	Integrity Index	Score	Percentage
1	PTI	4.12	0.51	70/119	58.82%
2	A&PT	3.40	0.39	30.57/63	48.52%
3	PAcJ	3.93	0.49	102.21/182	56.15%
Total		3.82	0.46	202.78/364	55.70%

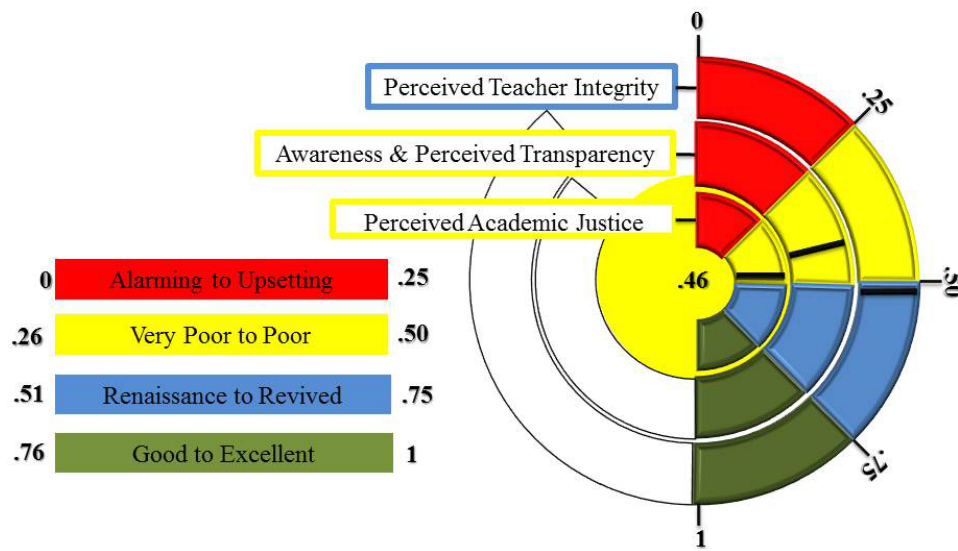


Figure 5.13: Integrity Index Dial; Students' Perception

Table 5.22
Overall Integrity Index of the Institution XYZ

Sr	Item	Mean	Integrity Index	Score	Percentage
1	<i>Integrity Code</i>				
	Administrative Bodies	3	0.46	12/28	42.85%
	Academic Bodes	2.75	0.42	11/28	39.28%
	Employee(Teching & Non-Teaching)	2.9	0.32	12.33/49	25.16%
	Employee(Teaching)	1.3	0.38	4.9/21	23.33%
	Student	1	0.19	6/42	14.21%
	Total	2.19	0.35	54.48/168	28.56%
2	<i>Integrity Compliance Mechanism</i>				
	Integrity Commitment Display	0.5	0.17	1/14	7.14%
	Integrity Monitoring	2	0.33	12/42	28.57%
	Integrity Awareness Program	0	0	0/28	0
	Total	0.83	0.16	13/84	11.90%
3	<i>Employees' Perception</i>				
	Perceived Leader Integrity	4.06	0.50	73.15/126	58.05%
	Awareness & Perceived	3.58	0.43	32.23/63	51.15%
	Transparency	3.66	0.43	54.9/105	52.28%
	Perceived Administrative Justice	3.77	0.45	160.28/294	54.51%
4	<i>Students' perception</i>				
	Perceived Teacher Integrity	4.12	0.51	70/119	58.28%
	Awareness & Perceived	3.40	0.39	30.57/63	48.52%
	Transparency	3.93	0.49	102.21/182	56.15%
	Perceived Academic Justice	3.82	0.46	202.78/364	55.78%
	Total	3.82	0.46	202.78/364	55.78%
Grand Total		2.65	0.35	430.54/910	43.31%

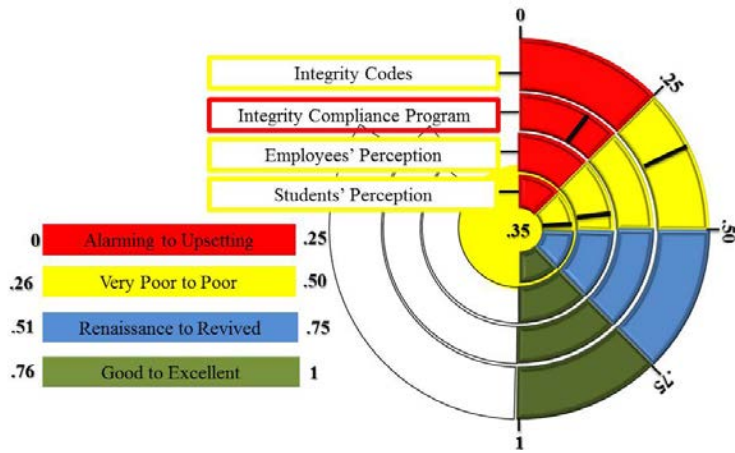
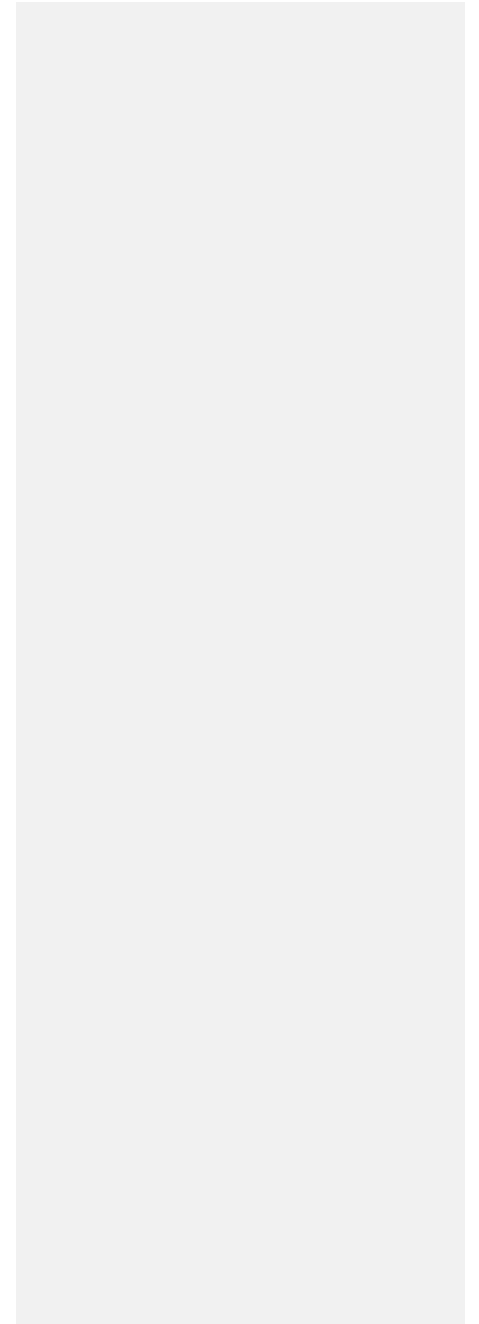


Figure 5.14: Integrity Index Dial; Institution (University XYZ)

Figure 5.15: Overall Institutional Integrity Index of University XYZ



CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The study begins with a very aim of developing a multipronged approach that could compute integrity index for any higher education institution. This apparently modest aim made us realize that there exists no framework that could present a holistic view of an educational institution's integrity with a pragmatically doable pathway. So, after developing integrity framework, that caters basic elements of integrity in Higher education Institutions (HEIs), we collected and processed quantitative data. From the perspective of our findings, let us have discussion on each critical and fundamental element and overall integrity of the university. Furthermore, implications of the study, limitations future direction, and conclusion are also provided in this chapter.

6.1 INTEGRITY CODES

As Victor and Cullen (1988), Wimbush and Shepherd (1994), Martin and Cullen (2006), and Arnaud and Schminke (2012) advocate the existence of codes as first and major step to have integrity at the institution, thus we considered codes as critical element. The findings of the study reveal that University XYZ has dismal condition pertaining to integrity codes. Though general rule books, developed by provincial bodies exist, but the institutional effort to develop further codes seems inattentive.

University bodies whether administrative or academic, are very influential and decision of their members lead. We agree that structure and system of such bodies do exist, but condition of integrity codes for their members require much improvement. Among all, only Board of Advance Studies and Research (BASR) has much better version of codes, and the reason might be special interference of Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan in doing so. But our integrity index highlights that codes for university bodies are in poor condition and require proper updating.

Integrity codes for administrative and academic functions; performance appraisal, procurement, class conduct, examinations etc. were available; though in vague, and inaccessible manner, but one of the most important dimensions; whistleblowing is completely ignored, and surprisingly we found no codes regarding that. As whistleblowing is recognized important for curbing corruption (Rehg, Miceli, Near & Van Scotter, 2008; Chassang,2014) among scholars and international anti-corruption communities, but the university seems ignorant of it. Furthermore integrity codes relevant to employees' and students' conduct are poorly crafted and fall in upsetting section of our integrity index bandwidth, with the integrity score of 0.29 as whole. Integrity score highlights that codes for employees, are better than for students; possible reason could be the intervention external bodies and they seem to be more active but for the students the external pressure is less thus university did not attend the need to strengthen the integrity codes for students.

Explicit formal integrity codes influence the conduct of its members (McCabe et al. 1996) and determine the institutions' core belief (Adams, Tashchian and Shore, 2001), and commitment toward rightful conduct (Schwepker, 2001). Furthermore, policies, procedures, and codes in an attempt to help deter violations and ultimately change the climate of dishonesty and misconduct in an academic setting is also showing respect for learning (Hamlin, Barczyk, Powell, & Frost, 2013). Thus University XYZ needs to pay special focus on developing, and updating integrity codes. This will not only fulfill the basic requirement, but would portray much improved integrity picture of the University.

6.2 INTEGRITY COMPLIANCE MECHANISM

Scholars have identified that integrity codes alone cannot deliver the desired results, but a parallel compliance mechanism can offer so, thus compliance mechanism is required to propagate the existence of codes and get its employees acquainted with their composition (Wotruba, Chonko, and Loe, 2001). University XYZ has disappointing and alarming condition as far as compliance mechanism is concerned.

While probing into documents for the integrity compliance mechanism; commitment display, monitoring, and awareness, we come across startling results. Only mission statement of the university contains a word 'Integrity' whereas no other statement; vice chancellors, deans', chairpersons' messages etc., do not

even contain a word i.e. integrity, honesty, ethics, morality, values etc., which shows 'Integrity' as their least priority.

The university displays no sign showing their concern, seriousness about integrity, honesty, morality or any concepts from the same basket. We have gone through its website, prospectuses, brochures, news bulletin, social media; Facebook, twitter, minutes of meeting (ones accessible), training topics and pamphlets, comments and recorded addresses, but it is lamentable to mention that even showcasing institutional determination toward integrity is heartbreakingly overlooked. With the score of 0.17, the display of commitment falls into alarming zone, and require an urgent attention from the university authorities.

Likewise, there exists no formal or informal central monitoring team to assure that codes are followed as prescribed; though codes themselves are also not elaborative of doing so. There exists a disciplinary committee of generic nature for students, QEC (Quality Enhancement Cell) members pay visits during exams, and they have system to make committees on case-to-case bases, however proper central or departmental integrity monitoring teams are absent.

As Caldwell (2010) precisely mentioned the need to conduct integrity orientation and awareness program, and our data reveals most disheartening truth that university XYZ is absolutely without any integrity awareness program. Though QEC provides information on exam conduct (only), but area of formal awareness programs to make employees and students conscious toward integrity in all their actions, is completely inattentive.

As compliance mechanism is likely more important than just plainly the existence or nonexistence of the code itself (Valentine and Barnett, 2003), thus university needs to establish integrity compliance mechanism on war footings.

6.3 EMPLOYEES' AND STUDENTS' PERCEPTION

The findings reveal that with 0.45 and 0.46 integrity score, university employees and student respectively, perceive their leaders/ teacher, awareness - transparency and administrative/ academic justice, poor. It is important to note that beside repeated assurance of maintaining confidentiality of responses, employees and students displayed the sign of worry while filling the survey questionnaire. For instance; while searching for compliance mechanism we inspected the training topics and pamphlet and found integrity training and awareness program unavailable, but employees on the contrary have mentioned to receive integrity training program during their induction. From here we could infer that while filling the questionnaire they were slightly closefisted and avoided to surface the truth. This has to be considered as a natural concern, because we asked them to disclose their opinion about their immediate leaders, teachers and system of their own university.

Employees and students are the internal members of an institution. They maintain a perception of their institution on the basis of their interaction with authorities and institutional system, among others. It is not intelligent to solely gauge the integrity of an institution only on the basis of codes and compliance or vice versa. Therefore our study included the perception of employees and students to compute the integrity index.

6.4 INSTITUTIONAL INTEGRITY INDEX

In our proposed study the scores of codes, compliance mechanism, employees' and students' perception, sum-ups the institutional integrity. The integrity score of 0.48 shows that the institution stands poor. Though our index shows very poor condition of integrity codes, but most grave and upsetting concern for the university is integrity compliance mechanism. The perception of employees and students mark the university fair, but university has to pull this perception toward excellence, through their will and determination by developing and updating integrity codes and launching integrity compliance mechanism.

6.5 IMPLICATIONS

Once I was told by an old fellow "spending years in research, if brings no use to society, is a waste of those years". This advice not only pulled me toward present study but also helped me to shape my craft, thus the study offers theoretical as well as practical implications.

6.5.1 Theoretical Implications

The study offers following theoretical implications:

- Holistic Integrity approach is recommended by several scholars i.e. Huberts and Hoekstra (2014), Visser (2014), Schwartz (2011), Kooistra (2014); Langseth et al. (1997), but such approach has never been attempted holistically. So the study contributes by trying the untested.
- Most of the current studies in corruption and integrity domain have followed single rater approach. Present study has used dual rater; organization and individuals, approach that paves a way for future researchers in the same domain.
- While measuring the integrity of educational institution, mostly if not all, have focused on the specific academic functions, i.e. examination, class conduct etc., and completely ignore pure administrative and academic administration elements. Our study has attempted to capture maximum elements involved in any higher education institution.
- Prior studies have used either qualitative or quantitative approach to measure integrity. This study has applied mixed method approach to reach out and understand reality.

6.5.2 Practical Implications

The study offer many practical implications for higher education institutions:

- As beacon of high morality and supreme values, higher education institution has to assure its integrity that will reflect in to its graduates. Our study proposes a full-fledged mechanism to not only compute integrity index and find where the institution stand, but also helps in identifying the

areas that require corrective measures. We can say that the study do not tell a problem but guides toward solution as well.

- Integrity cannot be reached unless and until all members participate in it. Our study can prove to help administrative and academic both sides to foster integrity in their very institution. For instance our study guides to recognize the strength of codes and compliance mechanism relevant to university bodies, employees and students. The study also helps to figure out perceived weak areas that could be improved by taking willful and adequate steps.

6.6 STUDY LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTION

Research endeavors in social sciences are never without their limitations and in our case where we had to chisel-out the integrity statue, which simply means surfacing the untidy picture; if any, of HEI, the challenges and limitations were manifold.

First limitation was data collection. As no institution was ready to offer itself for experiment, therefore institutional help was absent. Due to absence of support from the institution reaching out to documents, employees and students was more challenging. To our best of effort we managed to access relevant documents. But while reaching to employees and students it was more difficult, because most of the employees and students had a hindsight feeling that such information might be used to victimize them by their institution or teacher respectively, or they might be caught blowing whistle. Though we are confident not having single rater measurement error because our data consists of institutional level information as well individual, but this made task more tedious and rigorous.

Another limitation was the selection of variables; institutional and individual level. Though variables selected were literature, FGDs and semi-structured interview based, they are limited to two institutional level variables; codes and compliance, three employee and three students' perception indicators. There might be other relevant factors, such as external stakeholders, media, external pressure groups etc. In a single study there

is a limit of number of variables that can be handled adequately, therefore more variables could be considered in further studies.

There is always room to improve or intensify the research. Following are some directions for the future researchers.

- Future study can capture the variables outside the university premises that could influence or impact the overall integrity of higher education institutions.
- Area of integrity and variables that can influence the individuals and institutions to adopt integrity, asks for action research. Future scholars can contribute through taking that path.
- There is an ample room to devise research based integrity curricula specific to higher education institutions, especially in context of Pakistan.

6.7 CONCLUSION

Human endeavor to reach heights is consistent and evolving. This study has added into the journey by recognizing and developing integrity framework that could lead to compute integrity index for any public sector higher education institution. Our index help in knowing the magnitude of integrity in an institution, and we believe that, higher the magnitude of integrity, lower the altitude of corruption, and until, unless we cannot measure we cannot control, thus our work assist in measuring the integrity so pragmatic, focused, and result oriented corrective measure could be drawn.

REFERENCES

1. Abed, G., & Gupta, S. (2002). *Governance; Corruption and Economic Performances*, International Monetary Fund, Washington.
2. Ackerman, S. R. (1978). *Corruption: a study in political economy*. New York: Academic Pres.
3. Ackerman, S. R. (1978). *Corruption: a study in political economy*. New York: Academic Pres.
4. Adams, J. S., Tashchian, A., & Shore, T. H. (2001). Codes of ethics as signals for ethical behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 29(3), 199-211.
5. Adams, J. S., Tashchian, A., & Shore, T. H. (2001). Codes of ethics as signals for ethical behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 29(3), 199-211.
6. Adams, J. S., Tashchian, A., & Shore, T. H. (2001). Codes of ethics as signals for ethical behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 29(3), 199-211.
7. Akçay, S. (2006). Corruption and human development. *Cato J.*, 26, 29.
8. Alatas, H. (1990). *Corruption: its nature, causes, and functions*: Avebury.
9. Albrecht, C. C., Sanders, M. L., Holland, D. V., & Albrecht, C. (2011). The debilitating effects of fraud in organizations. *Crime and corruption in organizations: Why it occurs and what to do about it*, 167.
10. Al-Sadig, A. (2009). Effects of Corruption on FDI Inflows, The. *Cato J.*, 29, 267.
11. Amundsen, I. (2000). Corruption. Definition and concepts.
12. Armstrong, E. (2005). Integrity, transparency and accountability in public administration: Recent trends, regional and international developments and emerging issues. *United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs*, 1-10.
13. Arnaud, A., & Schminke, M. (2012). The ethical climate and context of organizations: A comprehensive model. *Organization Science*, 23(6), 1767-1780.
14. Ashforth, B. E., Gioia, D. A., Robinson, S. L., & Trevino, L. K. (2008). Re-viewing organizational corruption. *Academy of management review*, 33(3), 670-684.
15. Asongu, S. (2014). Financial development dynamic thresholds of financial globalization: evidence from Africa. *Journal of Economic Studies*, 41(2), 166-195.
16. Audi, R., & Murphy, P. E. (2006). The many faces of integrity. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 16(01), 3-21.
17. Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 72(4), 441-462.
18. Baccili, P. A. (2003). *Effects of company and manager psychological contract violation on justice, negative affect and commitment*. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Proceedings.
19. Badaracco Jr, J. L., & Ellsworth, R. R. (1991). Leadership, integrity and conflict. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 4(4), 46-55.
20. Banfield, E. C. (1958). The moral basis of a backward society. *New York: Glencol*, 3(4).

21. Barth, Mary E., Wayne R. Landsman, and Mark H. Lang. "International accounting standards and accounting quality." *Journal of accounting research* 46.3 (2008): 467-498.
22. Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *The leadership quarterly*, 10(2), 181-217.
23. Basu, P. K. (2006). Corruption: A theoretical perspective and relevance for economic growth. *International Review of Business Research Papers*, 2(4), 59-68.
24. Batson, C. D., Eidelman, S. H., Higley, S. L., & Russell, S. A. (2001). "And who is my neighbor?" II: Quest religion as a source of universal compassion. *Journal for the Scientific Study of Religion*, 40(1), 39-50.
25. Baumeister, R. F. (1991). *Meanings of life*: Guilford Press.
26. Bayley, D. H. (1966). The effects of corruption in a developing nation. *The Western Political Quarterly*, 19(4), 719-732.
27. Becker, C. L., DeFond, M. L., Jiambalvo, J., & Subramanyam, K. (1998). The effect of audit quality on earnings management. *Contemporary Accounting Research*, 15(1), 1-24.
28. Becker, G. S. (1968). Crime and punishment: An economic approach *The Economic Dimensions of Crime* (pp. 13-68): Springer.
29. Bews, N. F., & Rossouw, G. J. (2002). A role for business ethics in facilitating trustworthiness. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 39(4), 377-390.
30. Bisping, T. O., Patron, H., & Roskelley, K. (2008). Modeling academic dishonesty: The role of student perceptions and misconduct type. *The Journal of Economic Education*, 39(1), 4-21.
31. Blaxter, L, Hughes, C & Tight, M. 2002, *How to research*, Berkshire, Open University Press.
32. Bowers, W. J. (1964). Student dishonesty and its control in college.
33. Bretag, T., & Mahmud, S. (2015). A Conceptual Framework for Implementing Exemplary Academic Integrity Policy in Australian Higher Education.
34. Bretag, T., Mahmud, S., Wallace, M., Walker, R., McGowan, U., East, J., . . . James, C. (2014). 'Teach us how to do it properly!' An Australian academic integrity student survey. *Studies in Higher Education*, 39(7), 1150-1169.
35. Bruton, S. V., & Rachal, J. R. (2015). Education journal editors' perspectives on self-plagiarism. *Journal of Academic Ethics*, 13(1), 13-25.
36. Bryman, A & Bell, E 2007, *Business research methods*, Oxford University Press, USA.
37. Buchanan, J. E. (1996). *Signal and Power Integrity in Digital Systems: TTL, CMOS, and BiCMOS*. McGraw-Hill, Inc..
38. Burke RJ, Tomlinson EC, Cooper CL (eds) (2011) *Crime and corruption in organizations: why it occurs and what to do about it*, Psychological and behavioral aspects of risk series. Gower Publishing, Surrey
39. Burke, J. A., Polimeni, R. S., & Slavin, N. S. (2007). Academic dishonesty: A crisis on campus. *The CPA Journal*, 77(5), 58.
40. Burke, J. A., Polimeni, R. S., & Slavin, N. S. (2007). Academic dishonesty: A crisis on campus. *The CPA Journal*, 77(5), 58.
41. Caldwell, C. (2010). A ten-step model for academic integrity: A positive approach for business schools. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 92(1), 1-13.

42. Callahan, J. L. (2014). Creation of a moral panic? Self-plagiarism in the academy. *Human Resource Development Review*, 13(1), 3-10.
43. Carter, S. L. (1996). *Integrity*: Harper Collins.
44. Cavill, S., & Sohail, M. (2007). Increasing strategic accountability: a framework for international NGOs. *Development in Practice*, 17(2), 231-248.
45. Cha, S. E., & Edmondson, A. C. (2006). When values backfire: Leadership, attribution, and disenchantment in a values-driven organization. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(1), 57-78.
46. Chapman, D. W., & Lindner, S. (2014). Degrees of integrity: the threat of corruption in higher education. *Studies in Higher Education*, 41(2), 247-268.
47. Chiesl, N. (2007). PRA GMA TIC METHODS TO REDUCE DISHONESTY IN WEB-BASED COURSES. *Quarterly Review of Distance Education: Volume 8, Number 3*, 203.
48. Chonko, L. B., & Hunt, S. D. (1985). Ethics and marketing management: An empirical examination. *Journal of business research*, 13(4), 339-359.
49. Chye Koh, H., & Boo, E. F. H. (2004). Organisational ethics and employee satisfaction and commitment. *Management Decision*, 42(5), 677-693.
50. Cialdini, R. B. (2009). *Influence: Science and practice* (Vol. 4): Pearson Education Boston, MA.
51. Cialdini, R. B., & Trost, M. R. (1998). Social influence: Social norms, conformity and compliance.
52. Cinali, G. (2016). Middle Eastern Perspectives of Academic Integrity: A View from the Gulf Region. *Handbook of Academic Integrity*, 113-133.
53. Cleek, M. A., & Leonard, S. L. (1998). Can corporate codes of ethics influence behavior? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 17(6), 619-630.
54. Cooray, A. V., & Schneider, F. (2014). Does corruption promote emigration? An empirical examination.
55. Cox, D., La Caze, M., & Levine, M. (2003). Integrity and the fragile self.
56. Craig, S. B., & Gustafson, S. B. (1998). Perceived leader integrity scale: An instrument for assessing employee perceptions of leader integrity. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 9(2), 127-145.
57. Cummings, K. M., & Armenta, M. (2002). Penalties for peer sexual harassment in an academic context: The influence of harasser gender, participant gender, severity of harassment, and the presence of bystanders. *Sex Roles*, 47(5-6), 273-280.
58. Damasio, A. (2012). *Self comes to mind: Constructing the conscious brain*: Vintage.
59. Davis, S. F., Drinan, P. F., & Gallant, T. B. (2011). *Cheating in school: What we know and what we can do*: John Wiley & Sons.
60. Davis, S. F., Drinan, P. F., & Gallant, T. B. (2011). *Cheating in school: What we know and what we can do*. John Wiley & Sons.
61. De Graaf, G., & Huberts, L. W. (2008). Portraying the nature of corruption using an explorative case study design. *Public Administration Review*, 68(4), 640-653.
62. Decoo, W. (2002). *Crisis on campus: Confronting academic misconduct*: MIT Press.

63. Del Monte, A., & Papagni, E. (2007). The determinants of corruption in Italy: Regional panel data analysis. *European Journal of Political Economy*, 23(2), 379-396.
64. Den Hartog, D. N., C Shippers, M., & L Koopman, P. (2002). The impact of leader behaviour on trust in management and co-workers. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 28(4).
65. Denisova-Schmidt, E. (2015). Academic Dishonesty or Corrupt Values: the Case of Russia.
66. Denisova-Schmidt, E., & Leontyeva, E. (2013). Corruption in Higher Education and Research: Russia.
67. Denisova-Schmidt, E., Huber, M., & Leontyeva, E. (2016). On the development of students' attitudes towards corruption and cheating in Russian universities. *European Journal of Higher Education*, 6(2), 128-143.
68. DeSouza, E., & Fansler, A. G. (2003). Contrapower sexual harassment: A survey of students and faculty members. *Sex Roles*, 48(11-12), 529-542.
69. Dimant, E., Krieger, T., & Meierrieks, D. (2013). The effect of corruption on migration, 1985–2000. *Applied Economics Letters*, 20(13), 1270-1274.
70. Dininio, P. (2009). *Linkages between corruption and democracy*. Washington, D. C. : Woodrow Wilson International Center for Scholars.
71. Dobel, J. P. (1999). Public integrity.
72. Dobel, J. P. (2016). Integrity and Corruption. In F. A. (Ed.), *Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance*. Switzerland Springer International Publishing.
73. Dong, B., & Torgler, B. (2013). Causes of corruption: Evidence from China. *China Economic Review*, 26, 152-169.
74. Dridi, M. (2014). Corruption and education: Empirical evidence. *International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues*, 4(3), 476.
75. Drinan, P. M., & Gallant, T. B. (2008). Plagiarism and academic integrity systems. *Journal of Library Administration*, 47(3-4), 125-140.
76. Duska, R. F. (2005). A look at integrity in financial services. *Journal of Financial Service Professionals*, 59(5), 26.
77. Dziech, B. W., & Weiner, L. (1984). *The lecherous professor: Sexual harassment on campus*: University of Illinois Press.
78. Ehrlich, I. (1972). The deterrent effect of criminal law enforcement. *The Journal of Legal Studies*, 1(2), 259-276.
79. Eigen, P. (1996). Combatting corruption around the world. *Journal of Democracy*, 7(1), 158-168.
80. El Ghoul, S., Guedhami, O., Pittman, J. A., & Rizeanu, S. (2015). Cross-Country Evidence on the Importance of Auditor Choice to Corporate Debt Maturity. *Contemporary Accounting Research*.
81. Elliott, K. A. (1997). *Corruption and the global economy*: Peterson Institute.
82. Embleton, K., & Helfer, D. (2007). The plague of plagiarism and academic dishonesty.
83. Everson, S. (1996). *Aristotle: The politics and the constitution of Athens*: Cambridge University Press.
84. Ferrell, O. C., & Skinner, S. J. (1988). Ethical behavior and bureaucratic structure in marketing research organizations. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 103-109.

85. Fitzgerald, L. F., Shullman, S. L., Bailey, N., Richards, M., Swecker, J., Gold, Y., . . . Weitzman, L. (1988). The incidence and dimensions of sexual harassment in academia and the workplace. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 32(2), 152-175.
86. Fowler Jr, F.J. 2009, *Survey research methods*, SAGE Publications, Incorporated.
87. Fox, S., & Spector, P. E. (1999). A model of work frustration–aggression. *Journal of Organizational behavior*, 20(6), 915-931.
88. Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Miles, D. (2001). Counterproductive work behavior (CWB) in response to job stressors and organizational justice: Some mediator and moderator tests for autonomy and emotions. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 59(3), 291-309.
89. Galitskii, E., & Levin, M. (2004). Korrupciia v rossiiskoi sisteme obrazovaniia. *Corruption in the Russian education system), Narodnoe obrazovanie*, 10, 45-52.
90. Gallant, T. B. (2008). Academic Integrity in the Twenty-First Century: A Teaching and Learning Imperative. ASHE Higher Education Report, Volume 33, Number 5. *ASHE Higher Education Report*, 33(5), 1-143.
91. Gallant, T. B. (2011). *Creating the ethical academy: A systems approach to understanding misconduct and empowering change*: Routledge.
92. Gallant, T. B., & Drinan, P. (2008). Toward a model of academic integrity institutionalization: Informing practice in postsecondary education. *The Canadian Journal of Higher Education*, 38(2), 25.
93. Gardiner, J. A. (1970). *The Politics of Corruption: Organized Crime in an American City: Organized Crime in an American City*: Russell Sage Foundation.
94. Glendinning, I. (2016). European Perspectives of Academic Integrity. *Handbook of Academic Integrity*, 55-74.
95. Goudie, A. W., & Stasavage, D. (1997). *Corruption: the issues*: Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development.
96. Gould, D. J., & Amaro-Reyes, J. A. (1983). The effects of corruption on administrative performance. *World Bank Staff Working Paper*, 580, 2514.
97. Graeff, P., & Svendsen, G. T. (2013). Trust and corruption: The influence of positive and negative social capital on the economic development in the European Union. *Quality & Quantity*, 47(5), 2829-2846.
98. Graycar, A., & Prenzler, T. (2013). *Understanding and preventing corruption*: Springer.
99. Greenberg, M. D. (2013). *Culture, Compliance, and the C-Suite*: Rand Corporation.
100. Grimes, P. W. (2004). Dishonesty in academics and business: A cross-cultural evaluation of student attitudes. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 49(3), 273-290.
101. Gundlach, E., & Paldam, M. (2008). The transition of corruption: From poverty to honesty. *Economics Letters*, 103(3), 146-148.
102. Gupta, M. S., & Abed, M. G. T. (2002). *Governance, corruption, and economic performance*: International Monetary Fund.
103. Gupta, S., Davoodi, H., & Alonso-Terme, R. (1998). *Does corruption affect inequality and poverty?* : International Monetary Fund.

104. Gupta, S., Davoodi, H., & Alonso-Terme, R. (2002). Does corruption affect income inequality and poverty? *Economics of governance*, 3(1), 23-45.
105. Gyimah-Brempong, K. (2002). Corruption, economic growth, and income inequality in Africa. *Economics of governance*, 3(3), 183-209.
106. Gyimah-Brempong, K., & de Gyimah-Brempong, S. M. (2006). Corruption, growth, and income distribution: Are there regional differences? *Economics of governance*, 7(3), 245-269.
107. Habib, M., & Zurawicki, L. (2002). Corruption and foreign direct investment. *Journal of international business studies*, 291-307.
108. Hagermoser Sanetti, L. M., Fallon, L. M., & Collier-Meek, M. A. (2013). Increasing teacher treatment integrity through performance feedback provided by school personnel. *Psychology in the Schools*, 50(2), 134-150.
109. Hakkala, K. N., Norbäck, P.-J., & Svaleryd, H. (2008). Asymmetric effects of corruption on FDI: evidence from Swedish multinational firms. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 90(4), 627-642.
110. Hallak, J., and Poisson, M. 2007. *Corrupt Schools, Corrupt Universities: What Can Be Done?* Paris: International Institute for Educational Planning, UNESCO.
111. Hellman, D. (2012). Defining Corruption and Constitutionalizing Democracy. *Mich. L. Rev.*, 111, 1385.
112. Hellman, J. S., Jones, G., & Kaufmann, D. (2000). Seize the state, seize the day: State capture, corruption and influence in transition. *World Bank policy research working paper* (2444).
113. Helton-Fauth, W., Gaddis, B., Scott, G., Mumford, M., Devenport, L., Connelly, S., & Brown, R. (2003). A new approach to assessing ethical conduct in scientific work. *Accountability in Research: Policies and Quality Assurance*, 10(4), 205-228.
114. Heyneman, S. P. (2004). Education and corruption. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 24(6), 637-648.
115. Heyneman, S. P. (2011). The concern with corruption in higher education. *Creating the ethical academy: A systems approach to understanding misconduct and empowering change in higher education*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group. .
116. Heyneman, S. P. (2013). Higher education institutions: Why they matter and why corruption puts them at risk. *Global corruption report: Education, transparency international*, 101-108.
117. Hoekstra, A. (2014). *Integrity management infrastructure: Dutch design*. Paper presented at the International Conference: National Anticorruption Strategies, Central Anticorruption Bureau, the Ministry of the Interior and the Civil Service: Warsaw.
118. Holtz, B. C., & Harold, C. M. (2013). Interpersonal Justice and Deviance The Moderating Effects of Interpersonal Justice Values and Justice Orientation. *Journal of Management*, 39(2), 339-365.
119. Huberts, L. (2014). *The Integrity of Governance: What it is, What We Know, What is Done and Where to Go*: Springer.
120. Huberts, L., & Hoekstra, A. (2016). Integrity management in the public sector: The Dutch approach.
121. Huberts, L., Lamboo, T., & Punch, M. (2003). Police integrity in the Netherlands and the United States: Awareness and alertness. *Police Practice and Research*, 4(3), 217-232.
122. Huntington, S. P. (1968). The bases of accommodation. *Foreign Affairs*, 46(4), 642-656.

123. Itzkovich, Y., & Alt, D. (2015). Development and Validation of a Measurement to Assess College Students' Reactions to Faculty Incivility. *Ethics & Behavior*, 1-17.
124. Jain, A. K. (2001). Corruption: A review. *Journal of Economic Surveys*, 15(1), 71-121.
125. Janis, I. L. (1982). *Groupthink: Psychological studies of policy decisions and fiascoes* (Vol. 349): Houghton Mifflin Boston.
126. Johnston, M. (2005). *Syndromes of corruption: wealth, power, and democracy*: Cambridge University Press.
127. Junion-Metz, G. (2000). The e-Plagiarism Plague What you can do about online plagiarism. *School Library Journal*, 46(9), 43-44.
128. Justesen, M. K., & Bjørnskov, C. (2014). Exploiting the poor: Bureaucratic corruption and poverty in Africa. *World Development*, 58, 106-115.
129. Justesen, M. K., & Bjørnskov, C. (2014). Exploiting the poor: Bureaucratic corruption and poverty in Africa. *World Development*, 58, 106-115.
130. Kaplin, W. A., & Lee, B. A. (2011). *The law of higher education*: John Wiley & Sons.
131. Kapunda, S., & Moffat, B. D. (2013). Trends in economic growth and poverty reduction in Botswana: A corruption control perspective. *Pula: Botswana Journal of African Studies*, 26(1), 83-92.
132. Karabag, S. F., & Berggren, C. (2012). Retraction, dishonesty and plagiarism: analysis of a crucial issue for academic publishing, and the inadequate responses from leading journals in economics and management disciplines. *Journal of Applied Economics and Business Research*, 2(3), 172-183.
133. Kaufmann, D. (2005). Myths and realities of governance and corruption. Available at SSRN 829244.
134. Kaufmann, D., Hellman, J. S., Jones, G., & Schankerman, M. A. (2000). Measuring governance, corruption, and state capture: How firms and bureaucrats shape the business environment in transition economies. *World Bank Policy Research Working Paper*, (2312).
135. Kaunas Conference. 2013. 14th European Conference on Knowledge Management – ECKM 2013. Kaunas University of Technology, Kaunas, Lithuania, September 5-6.
136. Kelley, M. L., & Parsons, B. (2000). Sexual harassment in the 1990s: A university-wide survey of female faculty, administrators, staff, and students. *Journal of Higher Education*, 548-568.
137. Khan, K., Abbas, M., Gul, A., & Raja, U. (2015). Organizational justice and job outcomes: Moderating role of Islamic Work Ethic. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 126(2), 235-246.
138. Khera, R. (2011). India's public distribution system: utilisation and impact. *Journal of Development Studies*, 47(7), 1038-1060.
139. Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1996). Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(1), 36.
140. Klein, H. A., Levenburg, N. M., McKendall, M., & Mothersell, W. (2007). Cheating during the college years: How do business school students compare? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 72(2), 197-206.
141. Klitgaard, R. (1988). *Controlling corruption*: University of California Press.

142. Klitgaard, R. (1998). Strategies against corruption. *Presentation at Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional Foro Iberoamericano sobre el Combate a la Corrupción, Santa Cruz de la Sierra, Jun*, 15-16.
143. Koehn, D. (2005). Integrity as a business asset. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 58(1-3), 125-136.
144. Kolthoff, E., Macaulay, M., & Anechiarico, F. (2013). Introduction: Integrity systems for safeguarding ethics and integrity of governance. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 79(4), 593-596.
145. Korsgaard, C. M. (2009). *Self-constitution: Agency, identity, and integrity*: Oxford University Press, USA.
146. Krueger, A. O. (1974). The political economy of the rent-seeking society. *The American economic review*, 64(3), 291-303.
147. Krueger, A. O. (1974). The political economy of the rent-seeking society. *The American economic review*, 64(3), 291-303.
148. Lambsdorff, J. G., Taube, M., & Schramm, M. (2004). *The new institutional economics of corruption*: Routledge.
149. Langlois, C. C., & Schlegelmilch, B. B. (1990). Do corporate codes of ethics reflect national character? Evidence from Europe and the United States. *Journal of international business studies*, 21(4), 519-539.
150. Langseth, P., Stapenhurst, R., & Pope, J. (1997). The role of a national integrity system in fighting corruption 1. *Commonwealth Law Bulletin*, 23(1-2), 499-528.
151. Latova, N., & Latov, J. (2007). Obman v uchebnom protzesse [Cheating in the educational process]. *Obschestvennye nauki i sovremennost*, 1, 31-46.
152. Lawton, T., McGuire, S., & Rajwani, T. (2013). Corporate political activity: A literature review and research agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 15(1), 86-105.
153. Ledeneva, A. V. (1998). *Russia's economy of favours: Blat, networking and informal exchange* (Vol. 102): Cambridge University Press.
154. Lee, Y. M., & Kaplan, M. M. (1995). Primary sclerosing cholangitis. *New England Journal of Medicine*, 332(14), 924-933.
155. Leff, N. H. (1964). Economic development through bureaucratic corruption. *American behavioral scientist*, 8(3), 8-14.
156. Leroy, H., Palanski, M. E., & Simons, T. (2012). Authentic leadership and behavioral integrity as drivers of follower commitment and performance. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 107(3), 255-264.
157. Lewis, C. W., & Gilman, S. C. (2005). *The ethics challenge in public service: a problem-solving guide*. John Wiley & Sons.
158. Li, H., Xu, L. C., & Zou, H. f. (2000). Corruption, income distribution, and growth. *Economics & Politics*, 12(2), 155-182.
159. Llaca, E. G. (2005). *La corrupción: patología colectiva*: Instituto Nacional de Administración Pública.
160. Lowe, P. (2006). Counterfeiting: links to organised crime and terrorist funding. *Journal of Financial Crime*, 13(2), 255-257.
161. Lumsden, D. B. (2004). *The anatomy of academic dishonesty: Cognitive development, self-concept, neutralization techniques, and attitudes toward cheating*. University of North Texas.
162. Luo, Y. (2005). An organizational perspective of corruption. *Management and Organization Review*, 1(1), 119-154.
163. Macaulay, M., Newman, C., & Hickey, G. (2014). Towards a Model of Local Integrity Systems: The Experiences of Local Government in Great Britain. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 37(2), 83-92.

164. Macdonald, R., & Carroll, J. (2006). Plagiarism—a complex issue requiring a holistic institutional approach. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 31(2), 233-245.
165. MacMullen, R. (1988). *Corruption and the Decline of Rome*: Yale University Press.
166. Manion, M. (2004). Lessons for Mainland China from Anti-corruption Reform in Hong Kong. *China Review*, 81-97.
167. Martin, K. D., & Cullen, J. B. (2006). Continuities and extensions of ethical climate theory: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 69(2), 175-194.
168. Mauro, P. (1995). Corruption and growth. *The quarterly journal of economics*, 681-712.
169. McCabe, D. L., Butterfield, K. D., & Trevino, L. K. (2012). *Cheating in college: Why students do it and what educators can do about it*. JHU Press.
170. McCabe, D. L., Butterfield, K. D., & Trevino, L. K. (2012). *Cheating in college: Why students do it and what educators can do about it*. JHU Press.
171. McCabe, D. L., Trevino, L. K., & Butterfield, K. D. (1996). The influence of collegiate and corporate codes of conduct on ethics-related behavior in the workplace. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 6(04), 461-476.
172. McFall, L. (1987). Integrity. *Ethics*, 98(1), 5-20.
173. McKendall, M., DeMarr, B., & Jones-Rikkens, C. (2002). Ethical compliance programs and corporate illegality: Testing the assumptions of the corporate sentencing guidelines. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 37(4), 367-383.
174. Mocan, N. (2008). What determines corruption? International evidence from microdata. *Economic Inquiry*, 46(4), 493-510.
175. Morley, L. (2011). Sex, grades and power in higher education in Ghana and Tanzania. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 41(1), 101-115.
176. Morris, E. J., & Carroll, J. (2015). Developing a Sustainable Holistic Institutional Approach: Dealing with Realities “on the Ground” When Implementing an Academic Integrity Policy.
177. Morris, E. J., & Carroll, J. (2015). Developing a Sustainable Holistic Institutional Approach: Dealing with Realities “on the Ground” When Implementing an Academic Integrity Policy. *Handbook of Academic Integrity*, Springer Sciences+Business Media, Singapore.
178. Morrison, A. (2001). Integrity and global leadership. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 31(1), 65-76.
179. Muñoz-García, A., & Aviles-Herrera, M. J. (2014). Effects of academic dishonesty on dimensions of spiritual well-being and satisfaction: a comparative study of secondary school and university students. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 39(3), 349-363.
180. Narasaiah, M. L. (2005). *Corruption and Poverty*: Discovery Publishing House.
181. National Accountability Bureau (2002), Pakistan: *National anti-corruption strategy*. Retrieved from <http://www.nab.gov.pk/Downloads/Doc/NACS.pdf>
182. Neu, D., Everett, J., & Rahaman, A. S. (2014). Preventing corruption within government procurement: Constructing the disciplined and ethical subject. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 28, 49–61.

183. Neuman, W. L. (1997). 'Social research methods: qualitative and quantitative approaches. Allyn & Bacon', *Needham Heights, USA*.
184. Newman, B. (2003). Integrity and presidential approval, 1980–2000. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 67(3), 335-367.
185. Newstead, S. E., Franklyn-Stokes, A., & Armstead, P. (1996). Individual differences in student cheating. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 88(2), 229.
186. Nonis, S., & Swift, C. O. (2001). An examination of the relationship between academic dishonesty and workplace dishonesty: A multicampus investigation. *Journal of Education for business*, 77(2), 69-77.
187. Nonis, S., & Swift, C. O. (2001). An examination of the relationship between academic dishonesty and workplace dishonesty: A multicampus investigation. *Journal of Education for business*, 77(2), 69-77.
188. Nye, J. S. (1967). Corruption and political development: A cost-benefit analysis. *American political science review*, 61(02), 417-427.
189. Nye, J. S. (1967). Corruption and political development: A cost-benefit analysis. *American political science review*, 61(02), 417-427.
190. O'Donovan, J., Wagner, H. F., & Zeume, S. (2016). The Value of Offshore Secrets—Evidence from the Panama Papers. *Available at SSRN 2771095*.
191. OECD. (1998). Recommendation of the Council on improving ethical conduct in the public service including principles for managing ethics in the public sector. <http://acts.oecd.org/Instruments/-ShowInstrumentView.aspx?InstrumentID=129&Lang=en>. Retrieved 8 Feb 2016
192. OECD. (2009). Towards a sound integrity framework: instruments, processes, structures and conditions for implementation, Paris. [http://www.oecd.org/official documents/publicdisplaydocumentpdf-/?doclanguage=en&cote=GOV/PGC/GF\(2009\)1](http://www.oecd.org/official documents/publicdisplaydocumentpdf-/?doclanguage=en&cote=GOV/PGC/GF(2009)1). Retrieved 27 Jan 2016
193. Oleinik, A. (2012). Institutional transfers in the Russian system of higher education: A case study. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 46(4), 881-908.
194. Osipian, A. 2007. "Corruption in Higher Education: Conceptual Approaches and Measurement Techniques." *Research in Comparative and International Education* 2 (2): 313–332.
195. Osipian, A. L. (2012). Education corruption, reform, and growth: Case of Post-Soviet Russia. *Journal of Eurasian Studies*, 3(1), 20-29.
196. Osipian, A., Sweeney, G., Despota, K., & Lindner, S. (2013). Recruitment and Admissions: Fostering Transparency on the Path to Higher Education. *Global corruption report: Education, transparency international*, 148-154.
197. O'Toole, C. M., & Tarp, F. (2014). Corruption and the efficiency of capital investment in developing countries. *Journal of International Development*, 26(5), 567-597.
198. Paine, L. S. (1994). Managing for organizational integrity. *Harvard business review*, 72(2), 106-117.

199. Palanski, M. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (2007). Integrity and Leadership:: Clearing the Conceptual Confusion. *European Management Journal*, 25(3), 171-184.
200. Park, N. (2002). Managing Corruption in Code and Practice: The Prosecution of Jiang Zhou and Qian Du. *CORNELL EAST ASIA SERIES*, 114, 155-182.
201. Park, N. E. (1997). Corruption in eighteenth-century China. *The Journal of Asian Studies*, 56(04), 967-1005.
202. Parry, K. W., & Proctor-Thomson, S. B. (2002). Perceived integrity of transformational leaders in organisational settings. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 35(2), 75-96.
203. Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook and classification*: Oxford University Press.
204. Philp, M. (1997). Defining political corruption. *Political Studies*, 45(3), 436-462.
205. Pillay, S., & Kluvers, R. (2014). An institutional theory perspective on corruption: The case of a developing democracy. *Financial Accountability & Management*, 30(1), 95-119.
206. Posner, B. Z. (2001). What does it mean to act with integrity? *Teaching Business Ethics*, 5(4), 461-473.
207. Quah, J. S. (1999). Corruption in Asian countries: Can it be minimized?. *Public Administration Review*, 483-494.
208. Rawls, J. (1971). A theory of justice Oxford University Press. *New York*.
209. Rehg, M. T., Miceli, M. P., Near, J. P., & Van Scotter, J. R. (2008). Antecedents and outcomes of retaliation against whistleblowers: Gender differences and power relationships. *Organization Science*, 19(2), 221-240.
210. Rimskii, V. (2010). 'Sposobstvuet li sistema vysshego obrazovaniia rasprostraneniuiu korrupcii v Rossii?' [Does the Higher Education System Promote the Spreading of Corruption in Russia?]. *Terra Economicus*, 8(3), 91-102.
211. Rohr, J. (1988). *Ethics for bureaucrats: An essay on law and values* (Vol. 36): CRC Press.
212. Rose, R., & Peiffer, C. (2015). *Paying Bribes for Public Services: A Global Guide to Grass-Roots Corruption*: Palgrave Macmillan, Springer.
213. Rose-Ackerman, S. (1999). Political corruption and democracy. *Conn. J. Int'l L.*, 14, 363.
214. Rose-Ackerman, S. (2004). Governance and corruption. *Global crises, global solutions*, 301, 310-311.
215. Rossouw, G. J., & Van Vuuren, L. J. (2003). Modes of managing morality: A descriptive model of strategies for managing ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 46(4), 389-402.
216. Rothstein, B. (2011). *The quality of government: Corruption, social trust, and inequality in international perspective*: University of Chicago Press.
217. Rummyantseva, N. L. (2005). Taxonomy of corruption in higher education. *Peabody Journal of Education*, 80(1), 81-92.
218. Rummyantseva, N., & Denisova-Schmidt, E. (2015). Corruption inside-out: A grass-root approach.
219. Sandholtz, W., & Koetzle, W. (2000). Accounting for corruption: Economic structure, democracy, and trade. *International studies quarterly*, 44(1), 31-50.

220. Sargiacomo, M., Ianni, L., D'Andreamatteo, A., & Servalli, S. (2015). Accounting and the fight against corruption in Italian government procurement: A longitudinal critical analysis (1992–2014). *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 28, 89-96.
221. Schedler, A. (1999). Conceptualizing accountability. *The self-restraining state: Power and accountability in new democracies*, 14.
222. Schneider, R. G. (1986). Sexual harassment and higher education. *Tex. L. Rev.*, 65, 525.
223. Schramm, M., & Taube, M. (2004). Privat Ordering of Corrupt Transactions: The Case of Chinese Guanxi-Networks and Their Challenge by a Formal Legal System. *Corruption and the New Institutional Economics*. Routledge, New York, 181-197.
224. Schwepker, C. H. (2001). Ethical climate's relationship to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and turnover intention in the salesforce. *Journal of business research*, 54(1), 39-52.
225. Seligson, M. A. (2002). The impact of corruption on regime legitimacy: A comparative study of four Latin American countries. *Journal of politics*, 64(2), 408-433.
226. Shah, A., & Schacter, M. (2004). Combating corruption: look before you leap. *Finance and Development*, 41(4), 40-43.
227. Shishkin, S., Zaborovskaia, A., Kliachko, T., Korolev, I., Chernets, V., Chirkova, L., & Shilova, L. (2004). Vyshee obrazovanie v Rossii: Pravila i real'nost. *Higher Education in Russia: Rules and Reality*. Moscow: NISP.
228. Simons, T. L. (1999). Behavioral integrity as a critical ingredient for transformational leadership. *Journal of organizational change management*, 12(2), 89-104.
229. Simons, T., & Parks, J. M. (2000). *The sequential impact of behavioral integrity on trust, commitment, discretionary service behavior, customer satisfaction, and profitability*: Cornell University, Center for Hospitality Research.
230. Sims, R. L. (1993). The relationship between academic dishonesty and unethical business practices. *Journal of Education for business*, 68(4), 207-211.
231. Sims, R. L., & Keenan, J. P. (1998). Predictors of external whistleblowing: Organizational and intrapersonal variables. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 17(4), 411-421.
232. Sivak, E. (2006). Prestuplenie v auditorii. Determinanty nechestnogo povedeniya studentov (plagiata i spisyvaniya)[Wrongdoing in the Classroom. Students' Foul Play Determiners (Plagiarist and Copying)]: Working paper WP10/2006/06. Moscow: HSE.
233. Solomon, R. C. (2007). *True to our feelings: What our emotions are really telling us*: Cambridge Univ Press.
234. Spector, P. E., & Fox, S. (2002). An emotion-centered model of voluntary work behavior: Some parallels between counterproductive work behavior and organizational citizenship behavior. *Human Resource management review*, 12(2), 269-292.
235. Suchman, M. C. (1995). Managing legitimacy: Strategic and institutional approaches. *Academy of management review*, 20(3), 571-610.
236. Svensson, J. (2005). Eight questions about corruption. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 19(3), 19-42.
237. Svensson, J. (2005). Eight questions about corruption. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 19(3), 19-42.
238. Sweeney, G., Despota, K., & Lindner, S. (2013). *Global Corruption Report: Education*: Routledge.

239. Tanaka, S. (2001). Corruption in education sector development: a suggestion for anticipatory strategy. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 15(4), 158-166.
240. Tanzi, V. (1998). Corruption around the world: Causes, consequences, scope, and cures. *Staff Papers-International Monetary Fund*, 559-594.
241. Teachout, Z. (2009). The Anti-Corruption Principle. *Cornell Law Review*, 94(341).
242. Tebaldi, E., & Mohan, R. (2010). Institutions and poverty. *The journal of development studies*, 46(6), 1047-1066.
243. Titaev, K. (2012). Akademicheskii sgovor. Otchego rossiiskie vuzy stanoviat'sia, zaborostroitel'nymi institutami [Academic Collusion. Why Russian Universities are Becoming 'Fence-building Institutions'], *Otechestvennye zapiski*, 2, Accessed August 17, 2015.
244. Toma, J.D. (2007). Expanding peripheral activities, increasing accountability demands and reconsidering governance in us higher education. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 26(1), 57-72.
245. Townsley, N. C., & Geist, P. (2000). The discursive enactment of hegemony: Sexual harassment and academic organizing. *Western Journal of Communication (includes Communication Reports)*, 64(2), 190-217.
246. Tracey, J. B., & Hinkin, T. R. (1994). Transformational leaders in the hospitality industry. *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, 35(2), 18-24.
247. Transparency International (2000) TI sourcebook 2000: confronting corruption: the elements of a national integrity system. <http://archive.transparency.org/publications/sourcebook>
248. Transparency International. (2013). *Global Corruption Report 2013*, Retrieved from <http://www.wingia.com/web/files/news/61/file/61.pdf>
249. Tremblay, K., Lalancette, D., & Roseveare, D. (2012). Assessment of higher education learning outcomes: Feasibility study report, volume 1 design and implementation: OECD Paris.
250. Trevino, L. K., Hartman, L. P., & Brown, M. (2000). Moral person and moral manager: How executives develop a reputation for ethical leadership. *California management review*, 42(4), 128-142.
251. United Nations Convention Against Corruption (2004) UN Office on Drugs and Crime. <http://www.unodoc.org/unodoc/en/treaties/cac>
252. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (2013) An anticorruption ethics and compliance program for business: a practical guide. United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime, New York
253. United Nations Organization (2004). *United nations convention against corruption*. Retrieved from https://www.unodc.org/documents/brussels/UN_Convention_Against_Corruption.pdf
254. United States Agency for International Development (1999). *A handbook on fighting corruption*. Retrieved from http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/Pnace070.pdf
255. Uslaner, E. M., & Brown, M. (2005). Inequality, trust, and civic engagement. *American politics research*, 33(6), 868-894.

256. Valentine, S., & Barnett, T. (2002). Ethics codes and sales professionals' perceptions of their organizations' ethical values. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 40(3), 191-200.
257. Valentine, S., & Barnett, T. (2003). Ethics code awareness, perceived ethical values, and organizational commitment. *Journal of personal selling & Sales Management*, 23(4), 359-367.
258. Victor, B., & Cullen, J. B. (1988). The organizational bases of ethical work climates. *Administrative science quarterly*, 101-125.
259. Vincent-Lancrin, S., Sweeney, G., Despota, K., & Lindner, S. (2013). Cross-border higher education Addressing corruption, ensuring opportunity. *Global corruption report: Education, transparency international*, 142-147.
260. Vojak, C. (2006). What market culture teaches students about ethical behavior. *Ethics and Education*, 1(2), 177-195.
261. Weber, M. (1946). Bureaucracy. *From Max Weber: essays in sociology*, 196, 232-2
262. Wedeman*, A. (2005). Anticorruption campaigns and the intensification of corruption in China. *Journal of Contemporary China*, 14(42), 93-116.
263. Wedeman, A. (2012). *Double paradox: rapid growth and rising corruption in China*: Cornell University Press.
264. Wei, S.-J. (2000). How taxing is corruption on international investors? *Review of economics and statistics*, 82(1), 1-11.
265. Wei, S.-J., & Wu, Y. (2002). Negative alchemy? Corruption, composition of capital flows, and currency crises *Preventing currency crises in emerging markets* (pp. 461-506): University of Chicago Press.
266. Wei, T., Chesnut, S. R., Barnard-Brak, L., & Schmidt, M. (2014). University students' perceptions of academic cheating: Triangulating quantitative and qualitative findings. *Journal of Academic Ethics*, 12(4), 287-298.
267. Wheeler, G. (2009). Plagiarism in the Japanese universities: Truly a cultural matter? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18(1), 17-29.
268. Wheeler, G. (2016). Perspectives from Japan. *Handbook of Academic Integrity*, 107-112.
269. Wilder, A. N. (2014). *New Testament faith for today*. Wipf and Stock Publishers. 8th Ave, Suite 3 Eugene.
270. Wilhelm, P. G. (2002). International validation of the corruption perceptions index: Implications for business ethics and entrepreneurship education. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 35(3), 177-189.
271. Wilson, J. Q. (1989). *Bureaucracy: What government agencies do and why they do it*. Basic Books. Basic Books, Inc. Printed in the United States of America
272. Wimbush, J. C., & Shepard, J. M. (1994). Toward an understanding of ethical climate: Its relationship to ethical behavior and supervisory influence. *Journal of Business ethics*, 13(8), 637-647.
273. Wong, W., Lam, W., Lui, P., & Wong, W. (2012). The civil service. *Contemporary Hong Kong Government and Politics*, Hong Kong University Press, Hong Kong, 87-110.
274. Worden, S. (2003). The role of integrity as a mediator in strategic leadership: A recipe for reputational capital. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 46(1), 31-44.
275. World Bank, *Population Growth (annual %) 2014*. Retrieved from <http://grantland.com/the-triangle/the-tale-of-two-flaccos/>

276. World Bank, *World Development Report 1997: The State in a Changing World*, New York: Oxford University Press, 1997.
277. Wotruba, T. R., Chonko, L. B., & Loe, T. W. (2001). The impact of ethics code familiarity on manager behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 33(1), 59-69.
278. Young, O. R. (2013). *Compliance & Public Authority: A Theory with International Applications*: Routledge.
279. Yukl, G., & Van Fleet, D. (1992). *Theory and research on leadership in organizations. u: Dunnete MD i Hough LM [ur.] Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, Palo Alto: CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
280. Zaelke, D., Kaniaru, D., & Kružíková, E. (2005). *Making Law Work: Environmental Compliance & Sustainable Development*: Cameron May.
281. Chassang, S. (2014). *Corruption, Intimidation, and Whistle-blowing: a Theory of Inference from Unverifiable Reports* (No. w20315). National Bureau of Economic Research.

ANNEXURE A
TYPES STUDENTS CHEATING

**Twenty one (21) distinct types of students cheating by
Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes and Armstead (1996)**

1. Paraphrasing material from another source without acknowledging the original author
2. Inventing data (i.e., entering nonexistent results into the database)
3. Allowing own coursework to be copied by another student
4. Fabricating references or a bibliography
5. Copying material for coursework from a book or other publication without acknowledging the source
6. Altering data (e.g., adjusting data to obtain a significant result)
7. Copying another student's coursework with their knowledge
8. Ensuring the availability of books or journal articles in the library by deliberately mis-shelving them so that other students cannot find them, or by cutting out the relevant article or chapter
9. In a situation where students mark each other's work, coming to an agreement with another student or students to mark each other's work more generously than it merits
10. Submitting a piece of coursework as an individual piece of work when it has actually been written jointly with another student
11. Doing another student's coursework for them
12. Copying from a neighbor during an examination without them realising
13. Lying about medical or other circumstances to get an extended deadline or exemption from a piece of work
14. Taking unauthorized material into an examination (e.g., cribs)
15. Illicitly gaining advance information about the contents of an examination paper
16. Copying another student's coursework without their knowledge

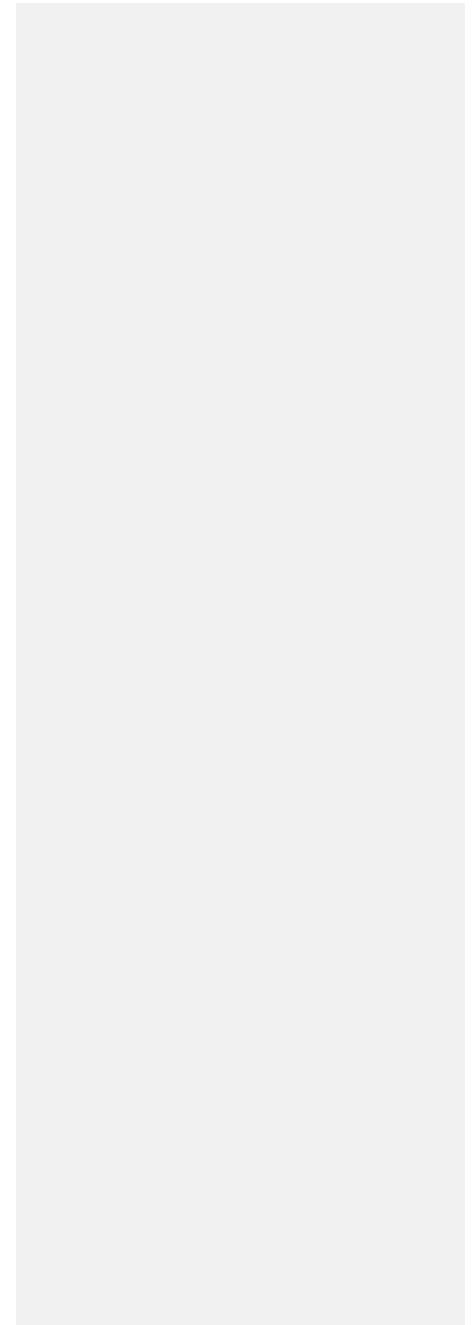
17. Submitting coursework from an outside source (e.g., a former student offers to sell pre-prepared essays; "essay banks")
18. Premeditated collusion between two or more students to communicate answers to each other during an examination
19. Lying about medical or other circumstances to get special consideration by examiners (e.g., the Exam Board to take a more lenient view of results; extra time to complete the exam)
20. Attempting to obtain special consideration by offering or receiving favors through, for example, bribery, seduction, corruption
21. Taking an examination for someone else or having someone else take an examination for you

ANNEXURE B
MISCONDUCTS CONCERNING STUDENTS

Thirty one (31) academic misconducts concerning students by
Bisping, Patron and Roskelley (2008)

1. Copying from others during tests
2. Preparing cheat sheets but not using them
3. Using cheat sheets during tests
4. Having someone else do your class work but presenting it as your own
5. Copying or buying an entire paper but presenting it as your
6. Copying word by word from a source without giving proper reference
7. Turning in a paper that you wrote in more than one class
8. Asking other students about the content of a test you are about to take
9. Using the work of other students in your paper without giving them credit
10. Reading Cliff Notes or condensed versions instead of full-length assignments
11. Listing unread material in the reference section of a paper
12. “Making up” references in a paper
13. Listing nonpertinent material in the reference section of a paper
14. Working in groups when assignments are meant to be completed individually
15. “Sitting for” a student during a test
16. Memorizing test questions to review them later
17. Having a paper edited, when style, grammar, etc. are not being
18. Having a paper edited, when style, grammar, etc. are being graded
19. Giving false excuse to miss class or to postpone tests or assignments

20. Keeping a page or multiple pages of a test when the teacher does not allow it
21. Getting a copy of a test by having a student “sit in” on the test and not turn it
22. Removing reserved material from a file to prevent other students from viewing it
23. Looking at someone else’s test, and keeping your answer when both responses are the same
24. Changing your answer on a test after it was graded and reporting a false misgrade
25. Deliberately marking two answers on a computer answer sheet when only one answer is allowed
26. Deliberately marking two answers on a hand-scored test, making your choice unclear
27. Permitting others to look at your test
28. Claiming to have handed in a test or a paper when you did not
29. Shirking your responsibilities in a group project
30. Trying to bias a professor after a test or at the end of the quarter
31. Changing margins or format of a paper to make it appear longer or shorter



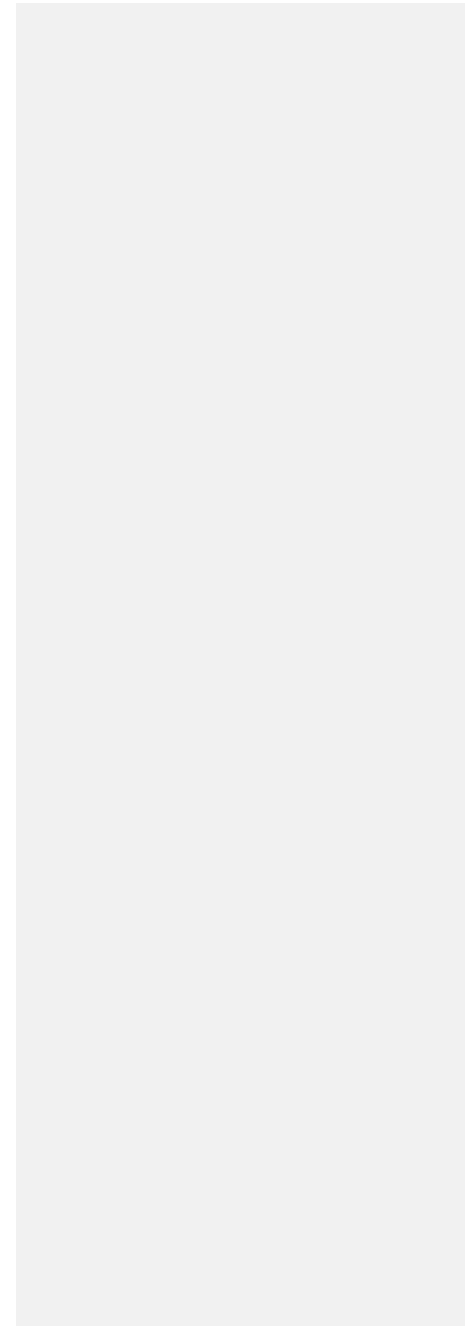
ANNEXURE C

FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPALS IN EACH ESTABLISHED PARADIGMS

Principles	Realism	Constructivism	Positivism
<p>Ontology Refers to fundamental assumptions being made about the elements of reality (specifying what exists)</p>	<p><i>Critical realism</i> Assumes that there is a 'real' reality but such reality is imperfectly apprehensible because the world is too complex for limited human beings to understand fully, so triangulation from many sources is required to try to know it.</p>	<p><i>Critical relativism</i> Realities are constructed by people with specific multiple local identities, hence such realities are more or less relatively constructed according to individual values.</p>	<p><i>Primitive realism</i> Apprehensible reality is assumed to exist and is governed by natural laws.</p>
<p>Epistemology Is the study of the nature and knowledge about phenomena (how do we come to know what exists?)</p>	<p><i>Modified objectives</i> A person may rely on the critical community and/or pre-existing knowledge to find the truth. However, the truth is probabilistically apprehensible.</p>	<p><i>Subjectivist</i> Findings are created in the process of the person's investigations, not the objective 'truth' that is produced from investigations.</p>	<p><i>Objectivist</i> Truth is objective and can be measured.</p>
<p>Methodology Is the way of</p>	<p><i>Case studies / convergent</i></p>	<p><i>Hermeneutical/dialectical</i> The investigator is deeply</p>	<p><i>Experiments/surveys</i> Questions and</p>

studying those phenomena (how do we gain knowledge about the world?)	<i>interviewing</i> Triangulation is adopted to interpret research questions.	involved and thus becomes a 'passionate participant' within the world that is being researched.	hypotheses can be verified by empirical testing chiefly through quantitative methods.
--	--	---	---

Source: Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Perry *et al.* (1999).



ANNEXURE D
Invitation Letter/ email for Focus Group Discussion

SUBJECT: INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

Investigators: Mr. Muhammad Ali Hamza (PhD student, mali.hamza@yahoo.com)

Dr. Alia Ahmed (Supervisor, dralia @ncbae.edu.pk)

Respected Participant,

I am currently a PhD student in the National College of Business Administration and Economics (NCBA&E). This research project is being conducted to fulfill the requirements of my PhD degree. The project has been approved by the competent authority at NCBA&E.

This research project is designed to explore the dimensions and elements that can have significant impact on the integrity of public sector Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), so that integrity level of HEIs could be measured with precision. The first stage of this research will use Focus Group Discussion (FGD) with experts in the HEIs, to collect their views on the topic.

Your good self is an expert of the said field; therefore I cordially invite you to participate in this research project. Your views on educational integrity, its practical importance, existing policy and application to foster integrity, factors that can amplify integrity, and weightage of the impact of each factor to assure integrity, are some of very important points to form our understanding about measuring integrity level of a public sector HEIs. The program is hereunder:

- Date: _____
- Day: _____
- Venue: _____
- Duration: 60 min approximately

The findings of this study will be disseminated in conferences and published in journals and could also be used as policy guidelines for Higher Education Commission and HEIs of Pakistan.

I attach here a list of FGD broad questions so you can decide whether you want to participate. There are no perceived risks. Participation in this research is entirely voluntary and anonymous; you may withdraw your participation and any unprocessed data concerning you at any time, without prejudice. There is no direct benefit to the participants as a result of their participation. However, I will be delighted to provide you with a copy of the research report upon request as soon as it is published.

Your privacy and confidentiality will be strictly maintained in such a manner that you will not be identified in the thesis report or any subsequent publications under the terms of research ethics. FGD data will be only seen by my supervisor and examiners.

To ensure that data collected is protected, the data will be retained for five years upon completion of the project after which time paper records will be shredded and placed in a security recycle bin and electronic data will be deleted/destroyed in a secure manner. All hard data will be kept in a locked filing cabinet and soft data in a password protected computer in the custody of the investigator.

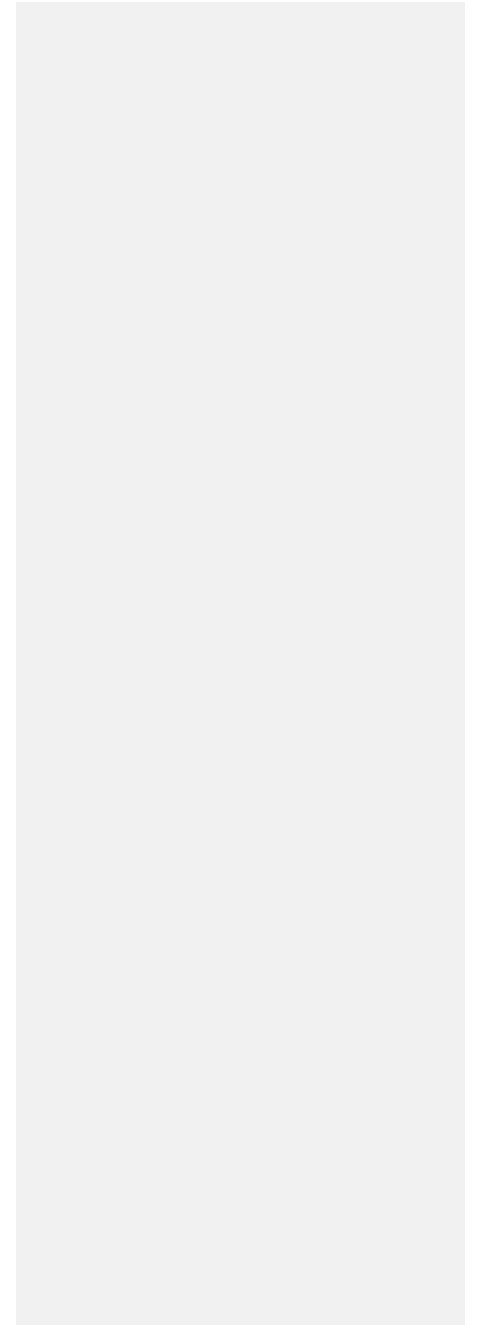
If you have any queries regarding this project please contact me at +92-300-4368873 or email me at mali.hamza@yahoo.com. You may also contact my supervisor, Dr. Alia Ahmed at +92-300-8412454 or email at dralia@ncbae.edu.pk.

Thank you very much for your contribution to this research.

Yours Sincerely,

Muhammad Ali Hamza
PhD Candidate,
School of Business Management,
NCBA&E, Gulberg, Lahore.

Dr Alia Ahmed
Associate Professor,
School of Business Management
NCBA&E, Gulberg, Lahore.



ANNEXURE E

