

2018


Perceived causes and methods of examination malpractice in the Malawian education system: A case study of secondary schools in South East Education Division (SEED)

Fiddelis Blessings Makaula
University of Northern Iowa

Let us know how access to this document benefits you

Copyright ©2018 Fiddelis Blessings Makaula

Follow this and additional works at: <https://scholarworks.uni.edu/etd>

 Part of the [Elementary and Middle and Secondary Education Administration Commons](#), and the [International and Comparative Education Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Makaula, Fiddelis Blessings, "Perceived causes and methods of examination malpractice in the Malawian education system: A case study of secondary schools in South East Education Division (SEED)" (2018). *Dissertations and Theses @ UNI*. 530.
<https://scholarworks.uni.edu/etd/530>

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Student Work at UNI ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations and Theses @ UNI by an authorized administrator of UNI ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact scholarworks@uni.edu.

Copyright by

FIDDELIS BLESSINGS MAKAULA

2018

All Rights Reserved

PERCEIVED CAUSES AND METHODS OF EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE IN
THE MALAWIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM: A CASE STUDY OF SECONDARY
SCHOOLS IN SOUTH EAST EDUCATION DIVISION (SEED)

An Abstract of a Dissertation

Submitted

in Partial Fulfilment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Approved:

Dr. Susan Alborn-Yilek, Committee Chair

Dr. Patrick Pease,
Interim Dean of the Graduate College

Fiddelis Blessings Makaula

University of Northern Iowa

May 2018

ABSTRACT

Examination has been generally accepted as the best means of assessment. Unfortunately, this all-important means of assessing students has become ineffective since all forms of examination malpractice have been introduced into the system. While such cheating on examinations is quite common and as a victimless crime may not be considered very serious, cheating on high stakes examinations assumes greater importance.

The purpose of this study was to examine perceived causes and methods of examination malpractice in the Malawian education system. The target population of the study comprised teachers, including head teachers, and students at secondary school level in South East Education Division (SEED) in Malawi from ten secondary schools in the division. This stratified random sample study included 200 respondents. As self-developed questionnaire, which adapted and combined items from four instruments previously used to investigate causes and forms of cheating in examinations by students (Achio, Ameko, Kutsanedzie, Alhassan, & Ganaa, 2012; Adeyemi, 2010; Akaranga & Ongong, 2013; Petters & Okon, 2014), was used to collect data for this study. In addition, qualitative data was collected through focus groups to help with the triangulation of all of the data sources in order to improve the validity and credibility of the research findings (Denzin, 1978; Patton, 1990). The quantitative data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 16.0. Importance Performance Analysis (IPA) was also conducted. The qualitative data was analyzed by themes using open coding, axial, and selective coding processes.

The findings of the study indicated various causes and methods of examination malpractice. For example, perceived student-related causes include laziness to work hard, and the desire among students to pass examinations at all costs. Examples of perceived teacher/examination official-related causes include insufficient teacher preparation for examinations, and inadequate coverage of the syllabus. Furthermore, examples of student-related methods of cheating include bringing prepared answers to examination halls, and writing on body parts. Examples of teacher/examination official-related methods of cheating include school authorities colluding with examination officials to assist students, and leakage examination papers.

The causes participants identified are but symptoms of the collapsing system of education, which is particularly due to widespread corruption and poor civil service delivery. While the blame can squarely be put on students, the government and the teachers are also implicated. The government is to blame for not creating a conducive and favorable teaching and learning environment and for failing to reinforce the teaching ethics which have resulted in teachers behaving irresponsibly. To begin to tackle the problem of student cheating, educational leaders need to look at the issue holistically. Using Bolman and Deal's (1997) approach to change can inform newer, bolder, and more coherent strategies that can help to curb cheating. Acknowledging student cheating as corruption rather than as simple misbehavior will generate strategies that are less about managing cheating and more about institutionalizing academic integrity. Attention, therefore, needs to be given to strengthening and restoring a culture of integrity by heightening public awareness of the effects of fraud and corruption.

PERCEIVED CAUSES AND METHODS OF EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE IN
THE MALAWIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM: A CASE STUDY OF SECONDARY
SCHOOLS IN SOUTH EAST EDUCATION DIVISION (SEED)

A Dissertation

Submitted

in Partial Fulfilment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

Approved:

Dr. Susan Alborn-Yilek, Chair

Dr. Kathleen Scholl, Co-Chair

Dr. Kim Huckstadt, Committee Member

Dr. Michele Devlin, Committee Member

Fiddelis Blessings Makaula

University of Northern Iowa

May 2018

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to God Almighty, my strong pillar, source of wisdom, knowledge, and understanding who ordained this path for me. He has been the source of my strength throughout this program and on His wings have I soared even in most difficult times. By the grace of God I am what I am, and his grace to me was not without effect. I worked harder, yet not I, but the grace of God that was with me (1 Corinthians 15:10).

I also dedicate this work to my beloved son, Montfort, who meant and continues to mean so much to me. I wish he were alive to see the fruits of his father's achievement. Dear Son, I treasure every moment you spent in life with me. I hoped to have you longer, but it was not meant to be. You left this world so suddenly. With heavy hearts and tear-filled eyes, family and friends bade you goodbye on that fateful day, Wednesday, 21 September 2016, as your body was laid into the grave. I feel so lost and lonely, and I cry from missing you. Although you are gone, we feel you near. You are so loved by everyone here. You touched our lives in numerous ways and brightened many of our days. Sharing memories of time with you is something that we love to do. We laugh, we cry, in joy and pain. I know you are in a better place. I know you are happy there. I know one day I will join you, but the wait is hard to bear. I pray that God will give me strength until He calls me too. Goodbye for now, until we meet again.

I dedicate this work also to my beloved and loving parents, Montfort (A Haji) and Zenobia (A Nagama), whose love, passion and care made me become what I am today.

Even in absentia, I know this dream is yours also. This work is also dedicated to Mr. Masuso who always saw me to and from Chileka Airport. I grieve your sudden departure.

Dearest Jesus, who wept at the death of your friend and taught that they who mourn shall be comforted, grant us the comfort of your presence in our loss. Send Your Holy Spirit to direct us lest we make hasty or foolish decisions. Send Your Spirit to give us courage lest through fear we recoil from living. Send Your Spirit to bring us your peace lest bitterness, false guilt, or regret take root in our hearts.

The Lord has given. The Lord has taken away. Blessed be the name of the Lord always.

Amen.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The dissertation journey is such a demanding one that all alone I could not have made it without the joint efforts, assistance, love, and encouragement from other people. I hereby want to express my gratitude to all these people for their valuable support. First of all, I would like to express my deep and sincere appreciation to Dr. Victoria Robinson who made it possible that I get a scholarship and get admitted into the Ed. D Program. I say thank you so much, Dr. Victoria Robinson, for allowing yourself to be used by God to come to my assistance.

Second, my sincerest gratitude goes to the committee members: Dr. Susan Alborn-Yilek, Dr. Michele Devlin, Dr. Kim Huckstadt, and Dr. Kathleen Scholl for providing me with their invaluable guidance, constructive advice, and timely and relevant feedback throughout this study. I acknowledge with a lot of humility and appreciation the support I received from my committee. It was a great privilege and honor to work under their guidance. Thank you so much. Moreover, my gratitude goes to Dr. Nick Pace for the love and support he showed me throughout my stay and studies.

Third, my heartfelt gratitude goes to all members of Educational Leadership and Postsecondary Education Department, including Dr. Timothy Gilson, Dr. Denise Schares, Dr. Mike Waggoner, Dr. David Schmid "Schmiddy," Carol Bean, and also my friend Loleta Carter Montgomery. Your support, love, and encouragement gave me energy to move on and feel at home far away from home. I am also appreciative to various people and friends who helped me in different ways: Dr. Elana Joram, Dr. Latricia Hylton, Dr. Deanne Gute, Dr. Dave Else and his wife Barbra, Christopher Neuhaus, Janet Witt, Linda

Jernigan, Henry Meja, Marie Elomba Adebiyi, Pujaningsih Pujaningsih, Younis Al-Hassan, Kyrie Borsay, Olivia Bradley Yokas, Kiley Schmidt, Kayla Stafford, Nicole Lewis, and St. Stephen the Witness Catholic Student Center community.

My sincere appreciation also goes to Mr. Gregory Alufandika, the Education Division Manager of the South East Education Division, for allowing me to conduct the study in his area of jurisdiction, as well as the head teachers, teachers and students who voluntarily participated in this study. Special thanks also go to my wife, Clara, my children, Christina, Harold, Joan, and Pemphero, my sisters, and Mr. and Mrs. Kamtunda for their inspirational, moral support and the prayers they accorded me during the entire period of my study. God should bless you all abundantly.

To crown it all, I thank God for making a way when there seemed to be no way (Phil. 2:13, 14) and for lifting me up from the valley to the mountain top. God's name be glorified all the time. Son of David, God of Prophet TB Joshua, have me mercy on me. Let your divine mercy locate and speak for me always. Amen.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | |
|---|-----|
| LIST OF TABLES | xiv |
| LIST OF FIGURES | xvi |
| CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| Statement of the Problem..... | 5 |
| Purpose of the Study | 7 |
| Background Information Relevant to the Study | 7 |
| Research Question | 9 |
| Significance of the Study | 10 |
| Researcher’s Educational Background | 11 |
| Researcher’s Motivation for the Current Study | 11 |
| Limitations | 14 |
| Delimitations..... | 15 |
| Definitions..... | 15 |
| Examinations..... | 15 |
| Examination Malpractice | 15 |
| Ethics..... | 16 |
| Ethical Theory..... | 16 |
| Forms | 16 |
| Invigilator..... | 16 |
| Virtue Theories | 16 |
| Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB)..... | 17 |
| South-East Education Division (SEED) | 17 |
| Research Design Timeline | 17 |
| Summary | 20 |
| CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW | 21 |
| Theoretical Frameworks | 22 |
| Review of Ethical Theories | 23 |
| Ethical Egoism | 24 |

| | |
|---|----|
| Utilitarian Ethics | 24 |
| Deontological Ethics | 26 |
| Ethics of Care..... | 27 |
| Rights Theory..... | 27 |
| Theory of Justice..... | 29 |
| Virtue Theory..... | 30 |
| Relevance of Ethical Frameworks to the Study | 31 |
| Ethical Perspectives on Why Cheating on Examinations is Considered Bad..... | 32 |
| Perspective from Ethical Egoism..... | 32 |
| Perspective from Utilitarianism Ethics | 32 |
| Perspective from Deontological Ethics..... | 33 |
| Perspective from Ethics of Care | 34 |
| Perspective from Rights Theory Ethics | 34 |
| Perspective from Justice Theory Ethics | 35 |
| Perspective from Virtue Theory Ethics..... | 35 |
| Origin of Public Examinations..... | 36 |
| Characteristics of Public Examinations | 37 |
| Purpose of Public Examinations | 38 |
| Examination Malpractice | 40 |
| Definition of Examination Malpractice | 41 |
| History of Examination Malpractice..... | 42 |
| Examination Malpractice in Africa..... | 45 |
| Causes of Examination Malpractice | 48 |
| Pressure from peers, parents, and guardians | 49 |
| Emphasis on certificates | 50 |
| Students' desire to pass examinations at all costs..... | 51 |
| Personality disposition | 51 |
| Corruption and moral decadence | 52 |
| Learning environment..... | 52 |

| | |
|---|----|
| Methods of Examination Malpractice..... | 54 |
| Leakage..... | 54 |
| Smuggling of foreign materials | 55 |
| Impersonation | 57 |
| Copying and collusion | 57 |
| Examination Malpractice before Examinations..... | 58 |
| Examination Malpractice during Examinations..... | 59 |
| Examination Malpractice after Examinations..... | 60 |
| Effects of Examination Malpractice | 61 |
| Key Players in Examination Malpractice | 66 |
| Measures taken to Curb Examination Malpractice..... | 67 |
| Background Information of the Country: Malawi | 72 |
| Geographical Context of Malawi..... | 72 |
| Political Context of Malawi..... | 73 |
| Economic Context of Malawi | 73 |
| Cultural Context of Malawi | 74 |
| Diachronic Aspects of Malawian Education System..... | 78 |
| Curriculum Change and Development in Malawi | 80 |
| The Introduction of Free Primary Education | 85 |
| The Malawian Education Sector..... | 89 |
| The Primary Sub-Sector..... | 90 |
| The Secondary Sub-Sector..... | 90 |
| The Tertiary Sub-Sector..... | 91 |
| Education Quality | 91 |
| A Brief History of the Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB) | 92 |
| Major National School Examinations in Malawi..... | 93 |
| The Primary School Leaving Certificate Examinations (PSLCE)..... | 93 |
| The Junior Certificate Examinations (JCE) | 94 |
| The Malawi School Certificate Examinations (MSCE)..... | 94 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Summary | 98 |
| CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY | 99 |
| Introduction..... | 99 |
| World-Views and Paradigms of Social Science Research..... | 99 |
| Research Design..... | 100 |
| Approach..... | 100 |
| Research Setting..... | 101 |
| Participants..... | 101 |
| Sampling Strategy..... | 102 |
| Motivation to use Stratified Random Sampling..... | 102 |
| Recruitment of Participants..... | 103 |
| Materials | 104 |
| Survey | 104 |
| Focus Group..... | 107 |
| Data Analysis | 107 |
| Quantitative Data | 108 |
| Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) | 108 |
| Quadrant A (Upper Left Quadrant)..... | 109 |
| Quadrant B (Upper Right Quadrant)..... | 110 |
| Quadrant C (Lower Left Quadrant) | 110 |
| Quadrant D (Lower Right Quadrant)..... | 110 |
| Qualitative Data Analyses..... | 112 |
| Confidentiality and Privacy | 113 |
| Reliability and Validity of the Research Design..... | 116 |
| Reliability..... | 117 |
| Validity | 118 |
| Controlling Research Biases | 119 |
| Selection and Sampling Biases | 119 |
| Measurement Biases | 120 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Summary | 121 |
| CHAPTER 4: RESULTS | 122 |
| Introduction..... | 122 |
| Quantitative Analyses | 122 |
| Demographics | 123 |
| Demographic Characteristics of the Sample Population | 124 |
| Teachers' and Students' Perceptions about the Rate of Cheating in Examination.... | 125 |
| Importance-Performance Analysis..... | 126 |
| Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) Results..... | 127 |
| Causes of Examination Malpractice | 127 |
| Student Cheating Analysis..... | 127 |
| Teacher-working Conditions Analysis | 128 |
| Testing Environment and Corrupt Behavior..... | 130 |
| Methods of Cheating..... | 132 |
| Methods of Student Cheating Analysis..... | 132 |
| Teacher Behavior Analysis..... | 133 |
| Statistical Analysis..... | 134 |
| Teachers' and Students' Perceptions on Causes of Examination Malpractice | 135 |
| Causes Perpetrated by Students | 135 |
| Causes Perpetrated by the Environment | 138 |
| Causes Perpetrated by Teachers and Invigilators | 138 |
| Causes Perpetrated by Bad Habits or Behavior | 142 |
| Important Causes to Address Cheating..... | 142 |
| Causes Perpetrated by Students | 143 |
| Causes Perpetrated by Facility or Testing Environment..... | 146 |
| Causes Perpetrated by Teachers and Invigilators | 146 |
| Causes Perpetrated by Bad Habits or Behavior | 150 |
| Teachers' and Students' Perceptions on Serious Methods of Cheating | 150 |
| Methods of Cheating Caused by Students | 151 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| Methods of Cheating Caused by Teachers..... | 154 |
| Teachers’ and Students’ Perceptions on Common Methods of Cheating..... | 156 |
| Methods of Cheating Caused by Students | 156 |
| Methods of Cheating Caused by Teachers..... | 159 |
| Qualitative Analyses | 161 |
| Causes of Cheating | 162 |
| Personal Factors | 162 |
| Social Factors..... | 163 |
| Psychological Factors | 164 |
| Environmental Factors | 164 |
| Inadequate coverage of syllabus | 165 |
| Sexual favors..... | 165 |
| Lack of security of the examinations | 166 |
| Negative attitudes by teachers | 166 |
| Overcrowding of students in examination halls..... | 166 |
| Lack of punitive measures to offenders | 167 |
| Methods of Cheating..... | 168 |
| Individual-cheating Methods | 169 |
| Bringing of unauthorized materials | 169 |
| Writing on body parts | 169 |
| Hiding materials in the restrooms | 170 |
| Students copying from friends | 170 |
| Graffiti..... | 171 |
| Collaborative-cheating Methods..... | 171 |
| Using body parts (sign language) | 171 |
| Poor invigilation/supervision | 172 |
| Impersonation | 173 |
| Technology-assisted Cheating Methods | 173 |
| Measures to Curb Examination Malpractice at School and National Level..... | 175 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Proper Administration of Examinations | 175 |
| Proper Teaching and Learning..... | 176 |
| Communication/Civic Education..... | 176 |
| Quantitative and Qualitative Methodological Triangulation | 177 |
| A Review of the Triangulation Results..... | 179 |
| Summary | 180 |
| CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND | |
| RECOMMENDATIONS..... | 182 |
| Introduction..... | 182 |
| Summary of Problems and Procedures | 182 |
| Demographics of Study Participants..... | 184 |
| Summary of the Findings..... | 184 |
| Discussion..... | 185 |
| Causes of Cheating | 189 |
| Methods of Cheating..... | 199 |
| Educational Implications of the Study | 206 |
| The Government | 207 |
| Teachers | 210 |
| School Principals | 213 |
| Students..... | 217 |
| Recommendations for the Study..... | 220 |
| Bolman and Deal’s Four-Frame Organizational Theory | 220 |
| Teachers’ Involvement in the Planning and Implementation of the Change | |
| Initiative | 223 |
| Creating a Supportive Environment for Change Initiative to curb Cheating..... | 224 |
| Building collaborative cultures..... | 225 |
| Communication..... | 226 |
| Motivating..... | 227 |
| Involving others and promoting teamwork..... | 228 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Implementation of the Change Initiative | 228 |
| Planning | 228 |
| Actual Implementation..... | 229 |
| Evaluation | 230 |
| Recommendations for Further Research..... | 231 |
| Conclusion | 232 |
| REFERENCES | 235 |
| APPENDIX A SECONDARY SCHOOL EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS/HEAD TEACHERS | 262 |
| APPENDIX B SECONDARY SCHOOL EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS | 270 |
| APPENDIX C INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) STUDY APPROVAL LETTER | 278 |
| APPENDIX D PERMISSION LETTER TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SOUTH EAST EDUCATION DIVISION (SEED)..... | 280 |

LIST OF TABLES

| TABLE | PAGE |
|--|------|
| 1 Participating Schools and Time of Survey Administration | 123 |
| 2 Gender and Status of Respondents | 124 |
| 3 School Area and Grade Level of Students | 125 |
| 4 Teachers' and Students' Perceptions about the Rate of Cheating | 125 |
| 5 Causes of Examination Malpractice Perpetrated by Students | 136 |
| 6 Causes of Examination Malpractice Perpetrated by the Environment | 138 |
| 7 Causes of Examination Malpractice Perpetrated by Teachers and Invigilators .. | 140 |
| 8 Causes of Examination Malpractice due to Bad Habits or Behavior..... | 142 |
| 9 Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Important Causes to Address Cheating | 144 |
| 10 Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Important Causes to Address Cheating | 146 |
| 11 Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Important Causes to Address Cheating | 148 |
| 12 Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Important Causes to Address Cheating | 150 |
| 13 Methods of Cheating Caused by Students | 152 |
| 14 Methods of Cheating Caused by Teachers..... | 155 |
| 15 Common Methods of Cheating Caused by Students | 157 |
| 16 Common Methods of Cheating Caused by Teachers..... | 160 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| 17 Students' and Teachers' Responses about Causes of Examination Malpractice.. | 168 |
| 18 Serious Causes of Examination Malpractice | 168 |
| 19 Methods of Examination Malpractice..... | 174 |
| 20 Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Common Methods of Examination Malpractice between Students and Teachers | 174 |
| 21 Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Measures to curb Examination Cheating at National Level | 177 |
| 22 Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Measures to curb Examination Cheating at School Level | 177 |
| 23 Summary of Quantitative and Qualitative Data Triangulation Results..... | 180 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| FIGURE | PAGE |
|---|------|
| 1 Research Timeline | 19 |
| 2 Political Map of Malawi | 97 |
| 3 Example of IPA Action Grid | 111 |
| 4 Student Cheating Analysis on Important Causes to Address Examination Cheating | 128 |
| 5 Teacher-working Conditions Analysis on Important Causes to Address Examination Cheating | 130 |
| 6 Testing Environment and Corrupt Behavior Analysis on Important Causes to Address Examination Cheating..... | 131 |
| 7 Student Cheating Analysis on Common Methods of Examination Cheating..... | 133 |
| 8 Teacher Behavior Analysis on Common Methods of Examination Cheating..... | 134 |
| 9 Change Process Model..... | 231 |

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The rampant occurrence of examination malpractice in the recent times has become an issue of growing importance and concern in the global education system. Most examinations are marked by complaints of various forms of malpractice, and in most of these examinations, cheating is a recurrent event (Petters & Okon, 2014). Cheating in examinations is a worldwide phenomenon (Nyamwange, Ondima & Onderi, 2013) and, according to Anderman and Midgley (2000), about 80% of high-achieving high school students and 75% of college students admitted having cheated in an examination. Isangedighi (2007) also observed that the rising wave of examination malpractice amongst today's youths poses a big challenge to contemporary society. Adams and Esther (2013) lamented that it is regrettable, that in most countries of the world, the examination system is infected with examination misconduct or wrongdoing.

According to Shahid (2007), examinations are designed to evaluate the academic achievement of students and to ascertain whether they have achieved a standard of academic learning and knowledge. Examinations are considered the basis for promotion to higher classes, a source of motivation for learners to advance to additional studies, and a basis for prediction about students' future education and job aptitudes. Nyamwange et al. (2013) opined that school examinations are a tool for measuring learners' mastery of content and instructors' effectiveness in delivering the content at different levels of schooling in education systems all over the world.

Educators have viewed examination malpractice variously. Busayo (2008) viewed examination malpractice as an improper and dishonest act with a view to obtaining an unmerited advantage. Bruno and Obidigbo (2012) viewed examination malpractice as any action carried out by stakeholders such as educational administrators, teachers, parents or students that is likely to render the assessment or examination ineffective or useless. Ifijeh, Michael-Onuoha, Ilogho, and Osinulu (2015) defined examination malpractice as dishonest practice that encompasses any action by an individual or group of students to gain an undue advantage in any form of assessment, be it coursework, tests, or examinations.

In the same vein, Petters and Okon (2014) argued that despite ugly penalties such as suspension, methods of cheating continue to increase in strength and sophistication. They further argued that examination may no longer be a true test of one's ability since most students are not serious with their studies and indulge in examination malpractice as a shortcut to success.

Examinations should be reliable and consistent as means of measuring students' achievement (Wilayat, 2009), however, when irregularities or examination malpractice occurs, then the validity and resulting outcomes become questionable (Akaranga & Ongong, 2013). To this end, Fasasi (2006) concluded that examination malpractice is an unethical act because it encourages mediocrity in the sense that students who succeed through such unorthodox methods may be rated equal to those who struggle on their own to excel.

Petters and Okon (2014) observed that although many efforts have been put forward by different governments, school authorities and individuals to eradicate this malady, in most instances these efforts have proved unsuccessful. Examination malpractice is becoming a menace in many educational systems. Many reasons have been given for the prevalence of examination malpractice, and the causes are thought to be multi-dimensional.

Asante-Kyei and Nduro (2014) listed a number of additional factors that lead to examination malpractice, including cultural practices, school programs, teaching or learning environment, and characteristics of teachers and students. They noted that cheating has become an indicator of a serious breakdown in the cultural structure as a result of the confusion between cultural norms and goals and the capacities of members to act in accordance with it.

According to Anzene (2014), the root causes of examination malpractice include the following: an emphasis on paper qualifications or certificates, inadequate teaching and learning facilities such as classrooms, libraries, laboratories, high student/teacher ratios which in turn affect teaching and learning, poor moral upbringing of some of the youths by parents, and students' vices such as cultism, drug abuse, sexual promiscuity, and truancy.

In a study by Suleman, Gul, Ambrin, and Kamran (2015), factors that contribute to examination malpractice at the secondary school level in Kohat Division in Pakistan were also identified. The study found the following as factors that contribute to examination malpractice: corruption, poor implementation of examination rules, poor

invigilation, students and parental threats, lack of fear of punishment, inadequate preparation for examinations, and collusion. Other factors included disloyalty of examination bodies, fear of failure, poor morale, and economic depression of supervisory staff. The sample for Suleman et al.'s (2015) study was made up of 840 respondents, selected through simple random sampling technique from 80 all-male secondary schools. A semi-structured questionnaire was used as a research instrument for data collection. Descriptive statistical analysis, that is, simple percentage, mean, standard deviation as well as inferential statistics was conducted. Specifically, ANOVAs were applied for the statistical analysis of data (Suleman et al., 2015).

Furthermore, the Suleman et al.'s (2015) study revealed that the various forms of examination malpractice included the following: bringing unauthorized materials to the examination hall, sending of prepared answers to students by teachers and parents, impersonation of test takers, leakage of questions and papers, and script-changing. The study made the following recommendations:

- Examination laws and rules should be implemented effectively. Students who are guilty of examination malpractice should be given severe punishment according to examination rules so that it may serve as a lesson to others.
- Students should be thoroughly body-searched before entering the examination hall. A system of finger-printing should be introduced for identification of the students to avoid impersonation.

- The number of invigilators and supervisors should be increased in the examination halls.

Yusuf, Olofunke, and Bamgbose (2015) investigated undergraduates' perceptions of factors responsible for examination malpractice in Osun State University in Nigeria. Their findings revealed poor study habits, poor concentration during lectures, and peer influence. The descriptive study had a sample population of 200 undergraduates. Data collected were analyzed using frequency counts, mean scores, t-test and ANOVAs. The study recommended that functioning counseling units should be established in tertiary institutions to provide guidance to students on educational issues and other related problems. The study also recommended that the school management should enforce strong punitive measures to any students that engage in examination malpractice.

Examination malpractice has many negative impacts. According to Akaranga and Ongong (2013), examination malpractice often leads to expulsion of students from academic institutions. According to Adelakum and Lawal (2008), the effects of examination malpractice are erosion of confidence in the education system and loss of credibility in the education assessment, loss of confidence in examination agencies, which leads to loss of confidence in the certificates that are issued by the agencies, and rising cost of conducting examinations, especially in areas where leakage has been documented.

Statement of the Problem

Examination dishonesty is a vice that has bedeviled the Malawian education system for many years. In the wake of 2000, 2007, 2012 and 2013 examinations Malawi

has had registered cases of cheating during examinations. Despite efforts by the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology as well as the Malawi National Examination Board to curb the practice of cheating in examinations by students, the malpractice still continues. Malunga (2000) asserted that every year the Malawi National Examination Board (MANEB) deals with cases of unscrupulous school administrators, teachers, parents and students involved in examination fraud. As the cases of malpractice have increased, penalties have also become more severe. Large numbers of students have had their results nullified and some heads of schools and teachers have been taken to court or have lost their jobs for promoting or getting directly involved in cheating. Some schools have had results of all their candidates' examinations nullified and the schools themselves have had their licenses to serve as examination centers cancelled.

A paper presented at a civic education workshop on the problem of corruption, Khanje (1999) argued that examination malpractice was negatively impacting the Malawian education system. Over the years, incidences of examination malpractice had been reported, and in some instances the perpetrators had been either jailed or asked to pay fines. Teachers who were caught cheating had had their services terminated. MANEB reported that of 65, 644 candidates who sat for the Malawi School Certificate of Examinations (MSCE), 5, 254 candidates were apprehended for cheating during the 2002 national examinations. In 2003, of 59,080 candidates who sat for the MSCE, MANEB registered 2345 cases of cheating, representing 3.97%; while in 2014, 126 candidates were caught cheating, representing 0.1% (Chirombo, 2016; MoEST & UNESCO, 2008). The numbers show that there has been a decline in the number of cheating cases. This is

attributed to the efforts taken by MANEB. For example MANEB has stepped up security of examinations within the Board premises during test development, and in the field too during delivery and administration of examinations. MANEB also conducts spot checks to monitor proper conduct of examinations in the centers. While there is a decline in the number of cheating cases, one question that arises is why students continue to cheat in spite of tough measures taken to deal with cheating. Therefore, one can also argue that the decline in the number of cheating cases is because the students are getting better at cheating by devising methods which the examination officials are not aware of, or it could be that some of the cheating cases are never reported to MANEB by the school authorities. It is for this reason that this study aims to identify the methods of cheating students use during examinations.

Purpose of the Study

This study aimed at investigating the perceived causes of examination cheating among students in secondary schools in Malawi's South-East Education Division (SEED). The study looked at the different methods students in the Division use to perpetuate this vice for the purpose of formulating recommendations for eliminating the problem not only in specific areas of study, but also throughout the entire education system.

Background Information Relevant to the Study

Academic dishonesty, consisting of acts of cheating and plagiarism, has received great attention and has been examined in many studies (McCabe, 2005; McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, 2002; Smyth & Davis, 2004). Petters and Okon (2014) observed

that the rampant occurrence of examination malpractice has become an issue of growing importance and concern in the global educational systems in which examinations are usually marked by complaints of various forms of malpractice.

Isangedighi (2007) also observed that the rising wave of examination malpractice amongst youths today is posing a big challenge to contemporary society. Petters and Okon (2014) further observed that examinations are no longer a true test of one's ability. Many students are no longer serious about their studies because they believe solely in indulging in examination malpractice which to them is a shortcut to success. Since examination is aimed at evaluating each candidate's merit and predicting subsequent performance, it generates competition among candidates resulting in examination malpractice in some instances.

Bloodgood, Turnley and Mudrack (2008) asserted that cheating suggests behavior that diverges from ethical norms and involves violating rules deceptively to gain something of value. Although estimates vary on both the frequency and magnitude of cheating behaviors (West, Ravenscroft, & Shrader, 2004), cheating does seem prevalent in academic settings more broadly (Granatiz & Loewy, 2007).

Akaranga and Ongong (2013) asserted that the seriousness of examination as the primary end of formal education at the institutions of learning can never be underrated. Examinations engage students in a competitive manner to achieve good results and satisfy the expectations of both their teachers and parents. However, notwithstanding this observation, passing examinations and obtaining certificates are nevertheless essential for the success of the examinees in today's competitive world. This is because, for one to

join any reputable training program or university, a standard grade is required. This expectation explains why students are prone to examination irregularity.

Akaranga and Ongong (2013) further noted that examination malpractice is a serious and punishable offence leading to instant disqualification of candidates or dismissal of the official involved. However, many perpetrators are not caught or are simply ignored. Even when the perpetrators are caught and convicted, examination malpractice continues unabated. This could be because the causes and effects of examination malpractice have not been fully appreciated.

Research Questions

It is the aim of every researcher to identify a specific area of focus in addressing a particular problem. This is done by identifying insightful questions. According to the National Research Council (2002), research questions are interrogations and purpose-driven cogitations by scientific inquirers whose aim is to fill a gap in existing knowledge or to seek new knowledge to pursue the identification of the cause or causes of some phenomena in order to solve practical problems or to formally test hypotheses. The research questions for this study are aimed at investigating perceived causes and methods of examination malpractice among students in secondary schools in the South-East Education Division (SEED) in Malawi. The following were the research questions:

1. What are the perceived causes of examination malpractice in public examinations in secondary schools in Malawi?
2. What methods of examination malpractice in secondary schools do Malawian students and teachers identify as the most serious?

Significance of the Study

Akaranga and Ongong (2013) asserted that examination malpractice poses a great threat to the validity and reliability of the education system. They described a trend that is harmful not only to moral development but also to the intellectual development of the students. If the trend is not controlled, not only will the programs' graduates lack the moral discipline but they will also lack the knowledge, skills and competence necessary to exploit the resources at their disposal. From an ethical point of view, assessing the extent to which examination malpractice affects the education system in the South East Education Division (SEED) in particular and in Malawi in general, is of grave importance. Therefore, this study unearthed the causes that lead students to cheat and the devices they use when cheating in an examination and, thus, is significant. It was hoped that the findings of this study would generate information which education policy makers, including the personnel working at the examining body, MANEB, would use to compare with and add to the already existing knowledge on examination malpractice.

Eckstein (2003) asserted that maintaining protection against possible malfeasance forms part of the security concerns and practices of examination authorities. It is important to understand that some people think that they cannot face examinations without cheating. Thus, the study should also help schools to build confidence in students preparing and sitting for examinations by helping them appreciate the negative consequences associated with examination malpractice and to face examinations with boldness and confidence rather than resorting to cheating. This would help to produce

graduates of substance who can contribute effectively to the economic development of Malawi.

The study, which was expected to highlight causes that motivate students to cheat and methods of examination malpractice at school level, could also enable educational authorities to devise ways to stop the behavior. Through its findings, the study could help to draw the attention of not only the teachers, students, parents, and administrators, but also the nation at large to these unwanted practices, to help them begin to think of remedies to curb the tendency.

Researcher's Educational Background

After completing my secondary school level in 1985, I first went to Blantyre Teachers College (BTC), where for two years I trained as a primary school teacher. In 2000, I went to Domasi College of Education (DCE) where, for three years, I trained as a secondary school teacher and graduated with a Diploma in Education majoring in English and Theology and Religious Studies (TRS). Five years later, I graduated with a Bachelor of Divinity degree. In 2011, I enrolled for a Master's degree program. In 2012, I graduated with a Master's degree in Leadership and Change Management from Leeds Metropolitan University, which later became Leeds Beckett University in 2014. When this study was conducted, I was the principal of a community day secondary school, a position I was appointed to in 2010.

Researcher's Motivation for the Current Study

Although it was not the intention of this study to discuss in depth the different types of theories of motivation, there was a need to understand why people are motivated

to do the things they normally do, including my own motivation for conducting the study. Therefore, a review of Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory helps to explain why I was motivated to do the study.

According to Maslow's hierarchy of human needs, people are motivated by five basic needs. These needs are arranged in the order in which a person seeks to gratify them. They are as follows:

1. Physiological needs; food, clothing, shelter, etc.,
2. The need for safety and security; freedom from danger, job security, health-care etc.,
3. The need to belong; acceptance by the group, friendships, love etc.,
4. The need for esteem; recognition by others, feeling of achievement etc.,
5. The need for self-actualization; fulfillment of capacities (Maslow, 1954, 1970).

The needs are arranged in order of importance, under the assumption that a lower level need is satisfied before the next higher level need becomes a motivating factor. People try to satisfy their physiological needs first. When their basic needs are ensured, they seek security, belongingness, esteem, and, finally, self-actualization. When one need is satisfied, next higher level need emerges to take its place. Since people are always striving to satisfy the new needs that emerge, and since I have realized the first three levels, I decided to do this research to feel a sense of achievement knowing that the problem of cheating is very common among students in my native home of Malawi.

I have been aware of the problem of examination malpractice among primary and secondary school students in Malawi since I started teaching in 1987. At that time, stories about organized cheating in examinations were rampant. This was so especially with the standard eight examinations. In 1987, there were few public secondary schools. Pupils had to scramble for the few places that were available in those secondary schools. This put pressure on the students as they strived to get admission into the secondary schools. Because of this, some pupils and teachers engaged in examination malpractice. Parents, too, would connive with teachers and invigilators to allow their children to cheat during examinations. Sometimes an organized syndicate would tamper with examinations.

During the time I had been teaching, I would be assigned to invigilate examinations. During these times, I could see that some students wanted to cheat. In some cases, some irresponsible teachers perpetuated the malpractice and, as a result, they lost their jobs. To date, cases of cheating in examinations are still rising. No examination goes without cases of cheating.

I initially did not think of researching issues having to do with examination malpractice. As a high school principal, I had other areas which I wanted to research, such as leadership styles, school culture and motivation of teachers. However, in the summer of 2015, I went back home to Malawi during the University of Northern Iowa (UNI) summer break. During this time, I met up with one of my secondary school friends at the airport in Johannesburg. The friend was now working at the Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB), a body that is mandated to administer all national

examinations. I asked him what he was doing in South Africa. He told me that he was coming from a conference where he presented a paper on examination malpractice in Malawi. That was a regional conference that had drawn participants from many parts of Africa. He indicated that the conference was meant to share notes on how countries were administering examinations in their respective countries, problems they faced with regard to examination malpractice, and strategies countries had so far taken to address the problem of cheating on examinations. In the case of Malawi, the friend indicated that while MANEB had done everything possible to seal the loopholes used for cheating, the tendency still persisted. It was upon that premise that I was motivated to investigate causes and methods of examination malpractice as a way of trying to understand why students would cheat in examinations. As a teacher and principal, I was very much concerned about the malpractice and I wanted to see cheating come to an end.

Limitations

The sample population of the study included teachers and students from one of the six education divisions of the country. Even though the results from this division might have suggested a trend of the examination malpractice in other divisions and Malawi as a whole, the results could not be generalized to the remaining five divisions of the country without further studies. However, it was expected that the sample would be representative enough to offer results that would harmonize with the available literature worldwide. Generalization of the findings would therefore still be acceptable.

Delimitations

The study was limited to teachers and students from 10 of the 110 public secondary schools in the division. The study did not look at every school in the division. Rather, the study was based on selected public secondary schools in the five districts that make up the South East Education Division (SEED). These districts were Zomba City, Zomba Rural, Balaka, Machinga and Mangochi.

Definitions

Like other professions and disciplines, education too uses technical terms to describe its work. The following key and recurrent concepts are described in order to help the readers to understand this education.

Examinations

Examination is the measurement of proficiency, knowledge, or skills, in oral or written form, and evaluating the adequacy of these proficiencies possessed by candidates. This is the pivot around which the whole system of education revolves (Wilayat, 2009).

Examination Malpractice

Examination malpractice is commonly defined as deliberate wrongdoing contrary to official examination rules designed to place a candidate at an unfair advantage or disadvantage (Wilayat, 2009). Fasasi (2006) added that examination malpractice may be understood as misconduct or improper practice, before, during or after any examination by examinees or others with a view to obtaining good results by fraudulent means.

Ethics

The Ethics Handbook for Financial Services Professionals (2006) noted that the English word *ethics* comes from the ancient Greek words *ethos*, which meant the part of a person's character that connected with universal truths. In the present day, The Oxford English Dictionary defines ethics as the study concerned with the principles of human duty and the rules of conduct recognized in certain associations or departments of human life.

Ethical Theory

An ethical theory is a systematic reflection of a particular view about the nature and basis of good or right. It provides reasons or norms for judging acts to be right or wrong and attempts to give a justification for these norms. An ethical theory provides ethical principles that embody certain values (Mackinnon, 2012).

Forms

Forms refer to class or grade level.

Invigilator

This is someone who keeps watch over students at an examination, similar to proctor. The invigilator's role during examinations is to ensure that all candidates have an equal opportunity to demonstrate their abilities; ensure the security of the examination papers and completed response sheets, before, during and after the examination.

Virtue Theories

Virtues are character traits or habits of action which, according to virtue theory, define the moral person. Virtue theory accepts the importance of intentions and

consequences but rejects as rationalistic and unrealistic the view of ethics in the other approaches and sees ethical actions as combining reason and emotions. A virtue approach sees being ethical as not just determining specific acts from abstract principles but having a type of character with sound judgment to respond correctly to varied complex circumstances. In the virtue framework, people are concerned with what kind of person they want to be and what their actions indicate about their character (Grcic, 2013).

Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB)

The Malawi National Examination Board (MANEB) oversees all national examinations. The examinations MANEB administers include the Malawi School Certificate of Education (MSCE), Junior Certificate of Education (JCE), and Primary School Leaving Certificate (PSLC). It also administers artisan examinations.

South-East Education Division (SEED)

This is but one part of the education divisions in the country. The Ministry of Education (MoE) has six administrative education divisions. Divisions are managed by the Education Division Managers (EDMs).

Research Design Timeline

Some literature views the dissertation process as a journey that takes someone through several steps before the person reaches the destination. Some of the milestones would be the planning, writing, making a dissertation defense, and sharing the body of knowledge, as part of the research findings (Roberts, Priest, & Traynor, 2006). The road map for this study has four major landmarks that includes the identification of the research topic, literature review, methodology, as well as reporting, and closure. Each

step comprises the main activities, the stakeholders involved in each step, and tentative schedule as detailed in Figure 1.

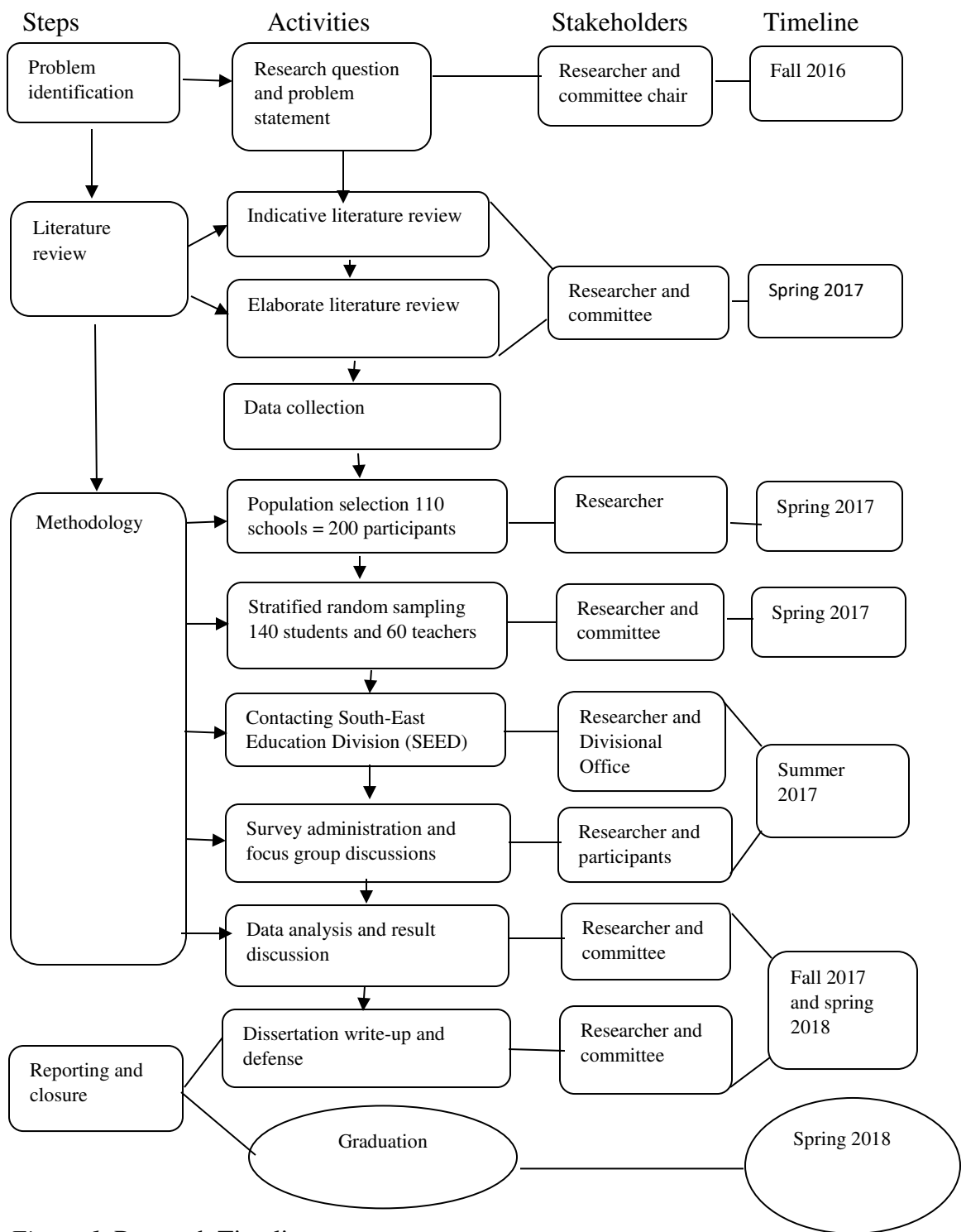


Figure 1. Research Timeline

Summary

Chapter 1 laid premises of the study. Among many aspects, the chapter elaborated on topics such as statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions; researcher's educational background, and motivation for doing the study. Also, functional definitions of major technical terms were provided to help readers figure out specific jargons used in this study. Next is Chapter 2 which is devoted to literature review.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Gay, Mills, and Airasian (2006), a review of related literature involves the systematic identification, location, and analysis of documents containing information related to the research problem. For Wellington, Bathmaker, Hunt, McCulloth, and Sikes (2005), reviewing the literature involves searching, collecting, prioritizing, reading with a purpose and seeking out key issues and themes, and then presenting and discussing these critically whose aims are:

- To establish which of the problems identified for solution by means of empirical research have been solved by other researchers so that they can be removed from the research equation,
- To give readers a clear idea of the nature and context of one's research,
- To convince the reader of one's knowledge of the field,
- To build a case for the empirical part of one's study.

The literature review has several important purposes that make it well worth the time and effort. According to Creswell (1994), the literature review provides a framework for establishing the importance of one's study; it acts as a benchmark for comparing the results of one's study to other findings, and it presents results of other studies that are closely related to one's study. For this reason, I will review literature related to this study which is about perceived causes and methods of examination malpractice in the Malawian education system: A case study of secondary schools in Malawi's South-East Education Division (SEED).

The literature review section encompasses five themes. First, the discussion focuses on the theoretical framework underpinning this study and the definition of examination malpractice. Second, the literature review discusses causes of examination malpractice which other researchers have found. Third, the chapter outlines the different methods students use when cheating on an examination. Fourth, the chapter highlights notable players involved in examination malpractice apart from students and finally, the chapter discusses some of the negative effects examination malpractice poses to any educational system.

Theoretical Frameworks

Connelly (2014) stated that various terms are used to refer to the theoretical basis of a study. Such terms include theory, theoretical framework, conceptual framework, and models. Liehr and Smith (1999) defined a framework for research as a structure that provides guidance for the researcher as study questions are fine-tuned, methods for measuring variables are selected and analyses are planned. They explained that once data are collected and analyzed, the framework is used as a mirror to check whether the findings agree with the framework or whether there are some discrepancies; where discrepancies exist, a question is asked as to whether the framework can be used to explain them.

Imenda (2014) defines a theoretical framework as a theory a researcher chooses to guide him or her in his or her research. Thus, a theoretical framework is the application of a theory, or a set of concepts drawn from one and the same theory, to explain an event, or shed some light on a phenomenon or research problem. According to Ennis (1999), a

theoretical framework creates logical links between the study and the major concepts, and the definitions that describe the phenomena under study. For this reason, it is important that ethical theories be reviewed.

Review of Ethical Theories

Ethics play an important role in our lives. Xu and Ma (2015) asserted that honesty is a noble virtue deserving of pursuit in almost every society. They argued that for individuals who have high moral identity, their internal moral compass automatically extracts, weighs, and integrates the relevant information when facing a moral dilemma before committing moral behavior. In contrast, individuals with low moral identity tend to use cognitive resources to control themselves, and they rely on willpower to overcome the temptation to cheat when the situation allows.

According to Mackinnon (2012), an ethical theory is a systematic reflection of a particular view about the nature and basis of good or right. It provides reasons or norms for judging acts to be right or wrong and attempts to give a justification for these norms. An ethical theory provides ethical principles that embody certain values. Thus, the present study made use of an ethical evaluation of the causes and forms of examination malpractice in selected public secondary schools in the South East Education Division. Though it is not the intention of this study to explore all the various ethical theories, nevertheless, the study will review some of the theories to better explain why cheating is considered bad. The theories to be reviewed include: ethical egoism, utilitarian ethics, deontological ethics, ethics of care, rights theory, theory of justice, and virtue theory.

Ethical Egoism

Teleological or consequentiality theories measure morality based on the consequences of actions. Ethical egoism focuses exclusively on maximizing the good for the moral agent (Reidenbach & Robin, 1990). We should note there are a few variations of the theory, but two forms of egoism are the most dominant psychological egoism and ethical egoism. Whereas psychological egoism is a descriptive theory of human behavior that holds that people are naturally programmed to behave only in their own self-interest, ethical egoism is the normative theory whereby people ought to act exclusively in their self-interest (Jones, Felps, & Bigley, 2007; Reidenbach & Robin, 1988). Thus, according to Shultz and Brender-Ilan (2004) and Jones et al. (2007), the moral principle of ethical egoism suggests that an act is ethical when it promotes the individual's long-term interest.

Utilitarian Ethics

Utilitarian ethics represents the dominant and most influential normative teleological or consequential ethics philosophy. Synoeyenbos and Humber (1999) observed that Jeremy Bentham (1789) and John Stuart Mill (1863) described a "hedonistic" conception of "pleasure or happiness," while pluralistic utilitarians have developed an approach that added a list of other intrinsically good things to pleasure, such as knowledge, freedom, friendship, etc. Therefore, it is noted that utilitarianism proposes a firmer basis for theories of utility, based on people's desires, choices, and behavior rather than on pleasure.

Schumann (2001) asserted that utilitarianism focuses on ends and not on the means required to achieve those ends. It also takes into account all present and future benefits and harms that accrue or might accrue to anyone who is affected by the action, including actions that may be difficult to evaluate accurately.

According to the utilitarian moral principle, an act is morally acceptable if it produces the greatest net benefit to society as a whole, where the net social benefit equals social benefits minus social costs (Brandt, 1979; Rachels, 1999; Schumann, 2001). Airaksinen (1987) and Lyons (1994) asserted that while utilitarianism regards the welfare of any single individuals as no more or less important as the welfare of any other individual, it does not assume that all individuals should be treated in the same way. For example, utilitarianism would endorse unequal treatment that maximizes the general welfare.

Research generally distinguishes between two forms of utilitarianism: *act utilitarianism*, which includes maximizing benefits relative to costs for a specific decision at hand, and *rule utilitarianism*, which involves following rules designed to achieve the greatest net positive consequences over time. Act utilitarianism subscribes precisely to the definition of utilitarianism—a person performs the acts that benefit the most people, regardless of personal feelings or the societal constraints such as laws. Rule utilitarianism takes into account the law and is concerned with fairness (Fritzsche & Becker, 1984; Premeaux, 2004). Therefore, according to Premeaux (2004), utilitarian decision makers are required to estimate the effect of each alternative on all parties concerned, and to select the one that optimizes the satisfaction of the greatest number.

Deontological Ethics

Another school of ethics is deontological ethics. These ethics are associated with Kant (1988), who argued that the highest good was good will, and morally right actions are those carried out with a sense of duty. Thus, the intention behind an action, rather than its consequences, makes an action good (Bowie, 2002). Bowie (1999) and Sullivan (1989) also observed that Kantian moral philosophy is based on the categorical imperative: “Act only on that maxim by which you can at the same time will that it should become a universal law.” They also noted that Kant’s second formulation of the categorical imperative dictates that human beings should be treated not simply as a means to one’s own ends but also as ends in themselves. It follows, therefore, that people in business relationships should not be used, coerced, or deceived (Bowie, 2002).

According to Bowie (1999), the third Kantian rule requires that one should act as if he were a member of an ideal “kingdom of ends.” In the organizational arena, this means that the rules that govern an organization must be such that they can be endorsed by every member in the organization. Moreover, a person who adopts a Kantian point of view sees the organization as a moral community within which each member of the organization stands in a moral relationship with all others.

The deontological class of ethical theories, therefore, states that people should adhere to their obligations and duties when engaged in decision making when ethics are in play. This means that a person will follow his or her obligations to another individual or society because upholding one’s duty is what is considered ethically correct.

Ethics of Care

The ethics of care emerged from feminist literature. Gilligan (1982) and Dillon (1992) have objected to the impersonal, male-dominated view of ethics that ignores the importance of the special relationship between individuals. According to Budd (2004), the ethics of care is related to virtue theory, but emphasizes virtues that are important to personal relations, such as compassion, sympathy, empathy, and loyalty. According to Schumann (2001), the ethics of care argues that a person's moral obligation is not to follow impartial principles but rather to care for the good of the particular individuals with whom the person has concrete special relationships. This means, therefore, that each one of us must attend to our own needs as well as those of other people in our web of relationships, which includes the people with whom we have close relationships as well as those in the larger communities in which we live.

According to the perspective of the ethics of care, an ethical dilemma is not an abstract problem with only one ethically correct solution that can be agreed on by impartial observers and by applying universally accepted principles. Rather solutions should emerge from relationships of mutual care and from the context in which the problems are embedded (Jones et al., 2007).

Rights Theory

Jones et al. (2007) noted that according to the theory of moral rights, human beings have certain fundamental rights that should be respected in all decisions, for example, the right to free consent, privacy, freedom of conscience, free speech, and due process. According to Duska (2002), a right is a capacity, a possession, or condition of

existence that entitles either an individual or a group to enjoy some object or state of being. For example, the right to free speech is a condition of existence that entitles one to express one's thoughts as one chooses.

Jones et al. (2007) asserted that rights theories distinguish between negative and positive rights. In the case of negative rights, the duty is to allow the party to act freely within the domain covered by the right. In the case of positive rights, the obligation is to provide the party with a benefit of some type. In this case, therefore, the moral force of a right depends on its strength in relation to other moral considerations applicable to the context in question (Duska, 2002).

Budd (2004) also stated that according to rights theory, as long as the distribution of wealth in a society is achieved through fair acquisition and exchange, the distribution is a just one regardless of any degree of inequalities that may ensue. The morally correct action is the one that a person has the moral right to do, that does not infringe on the moral rights of others, and that furthers the moral rights of others (Rachels, 1999; Schumann, 2001). Jones et al. (2007) asserted that people who rely on rights theory to justify their actions emphasize the entitlement of individuals. Restrictions on behavior should prevent harm to others, but unless your actions harm others, you should be free to do as you please. They noted that in ethical theories based on rights, the rights established by a society are protected and given the highest priority. Rights are considered to be ethically correct and valid since a large population endorses them.

Theory of Justice

Another theory of ethics to be reviewed is the theory of justice. According to Rawls (1971), under a veil of ignorance, rational, self-interested, and equal individuals will agree that each person is to have an equal right to the most extensive total system of basic liberties. Budd (2004) stated that social and economic inequalities must be arranged so that they are both to the greatest benefit of the least advantaged, and attached to offices and positions open to all under conditions of fair equality of opportunity. Jones et al., (2007) argued that the first virtue of social institutions is justice for the individual and not aggregate welfare. Jones et al. were more concerned with how the pie is divided than with how large it is. Inequalities are just only if they result in benefits for everyone, with particular emphasis on the least advantaged.

According to Jones et al. (2007) and Budd (2004), the theory of justice requires decision makers to be guided by equity, fairness, and impartiality. The theory relies on three types of moral prescriptions. First individuals who are similar in a relevant respect should be treated similarly and individuals who are different in a relevant respect should be treated differently in proportion to the difference between them. The second prescription is that rules should be administered fairly and clearly. The third prescription is that individuals should not be held responsible for matters over which they have no control and should be compensated for the cost of their injuries by those responsible for these injuries. Budd (2004) also noted that decision making and reasoning based on the theory of justice focus on the distributional effect of actions.

The justice principle states that decision makers should focus on actions fair to those involved. This means that ethical decisions should be consistent with the ethical theory unless extenuating circumstances that can be justified exist in the case. This also means that cases with extenuating circumstances must contain a significant and vital difference from similar cases that justify the inconsistent decision.

Virtue Theory

The last ethics framework to review is virtue theory. As opposed to utilitarianism or deontological ethics whose focus is on action, virtue ethics focuses on what sort of a person one ought to be. Virtue ethics deal with character traits or virtuous habits that people should have towards each other (Munachonga, 2014). Munachonga further noted that the theory is concerned with the good qualities of a person on moral uprightness cultivated over a period of time through good habits. She argues that one's life is lived according to virtue when one knows and chooses the reasonable middle ground between excesses and deficiency in one's actions, emotions and desires, neither too much nor too little. She also pondered that virtues avoid unreasonable extremes while vices are habits that go to the extreme. The virtue of prudence, for example, guides one on what is reasonable in a given situation. Whereas rashness and cowardice are examples of vices, temperance is a virtue.

Jones et al. (2007) asserted that the theory suggests that morality is primarily a matter of individual character. The focus is on excellence of character. Thus, in the ethics of the virtue theory, a person is judged by his or her character rather than by an action that may deviate from his/her normal behavior. It takes the person's morals, reputation,

and motivation into account when rating an unusual and irregular behavior considered unethical. Virtues are means to and constituents of happiness. Budd (2004) asserted that virtues are character traits essential for a good life. Moral virtues are those dispositions generally desirable for people to have in the kinds of situations they typically encounter in their daily lives.

Relevance of Ethical Frameworks to the Study

Lincoln and Holmes (2011) noted that, in their constant discovery of the world and themselves, students often face morally-charged situations. Examining different philosophical approaches to ethics, evaluating the decisions and consequences of historical moral problems, and discussing hypothetical case studies are some of the ways individuals can acquire skills for making ethical decisions. Moral education, therefore, attempts to prepare individuals to recognize and respond effectively to moral dilemmas.

As far as examination malpractice is concerned, an ethical theory will provide conceptual and theoretical tools to organize an inquiry into understanding the experiences of teachers and students. Specifically, an ethical theory framework considers subjects, the mission of their activity, and the way in which individuals determine whether a course of action or a stance about an ethical issue is morally right by evaluating various courses of action and taking into account ethical principles (Pettifor, Estay, & Paque, 2000).

Rest (1984) and Pettifor et al. (2000) argued that ethical reasoning is considered to be necessary for moral decision making and behavior, and it represents the process involved in judging what is morally right (Trevino, 1992). Therefore, an ethical

perspective theory will help to understand participants' feeling about examination malpractice.

Ethical Perspectives on Why Cheating on Examinations is Considered Bad

The following section will consider cheating on examinations in the context of each of the ethical frameworks described in this chapter.

Perspective from Ethical Egoism

When we evaluate the practice of cheating on an examination from the ethical egoism perspective, we can see that the action is wrong because it will not promote the long-term interest of the students. After all, this is not something which the students who cheat want to pursue for the rest of their lives. It may be a temporary act which in the future they are going to abandon. So, cheating on an examination cannot be termed as a long-term interest. It does not qualify. Therefore, if we consider cheating in this context, we can conclude that cheating is bad.

Perspective from Utilitarianism Ethics

Similarly, when we evaluate the action of cheating on an examination in light of utilitarian ethics, we can see that cheating does not produce the greatest net benefit to the society and in fact, it does more harm than good to the society. Examination malpractice has many negative impacts and consequences are enormous. Examination malpractice, for example, often leads to expulsion of a student from an academic institution (Akaranga & Ongong, 2013). From a utilitarian perspective, cheating seems to create a greater balance of harm than good in that only the cheaters themselves stand to benefit in any

significant way from cheating activities while others incur the associated direct and indirect costs (DeGeorge, 2006).

Perspective from Deontological Ethics

From the deontological point view of ethics, we can see that the action itself has not been endorsed by every member of the school community. Many people are opposed to cheating. Governments are opposed to cheating. That is why several efforts are always put in place to stop the tendency. Therefore, any student who accepts Kantian morality would ask whether cheating passes the test of the categorical imperative. The student would ask if the principle of cheating is based on good will. The students will have to ask also if by cheating it treats other students as ends in themselves, and whether the act of cheating can be approved universally without contradictions. Bowie (2002) argued that unless the principle of an action can be universalized, it is immoral for people to make exceptions for themselves. In this case, therefore, unless cheating can be universalized, it is immoral for students who cheat to make an exception for themselves. This is why cheating on an examination is considered bad.

Furthermore, if we weigh the action of cheating against the principles as advanced by Kant, then cheating is considered bad because people would not want everyone do it, and because cheating treats other humans merely as a means and not also as ends; it does not treat them with respect as rational-thinking human beings. In this case, therefore, cheating is bad because, if everyone were to do it, they would defeat the very purpose of having examinations. It also does not treat others with respect as rational beings in that it

deceives them into thinking that they know the answers to the examination questions when in actual fact they do not.

Perspective from Ethics of Care

In light of the ethics of care, we can argue that the students who cheat do not care about the good of other students with whom they have concrete special relationships. By cheating, those students who cheat attend to their own needs and not the needs of other people or fellow students in their web of relationships. Since such students act contrary to the principles of ethics of care, we can conclude that their actions are bad. So, cheating is bad as well.

Perspective from Rights Theory Ethics

When we evaluate cheating in an examination in light of rights theory, we can see that students who cheat violate the principles of these ethics. It should be appreciated that when students cheat, their actions harm not only their fellow students but also the entire society. In 2007, for example, all examinations in Malawi were cancelled due to massive leakages, and students had to wait for another six months to write fresh examinations (Malunga, 2000). One can imagine the time spent to prepare for the examinations only to be told that students were not going to write the examinations as scheduled just because the examination questions had leaked. On the part of the innocent students, this cancellation of testing was a waste of their time. On the part of the government it was a waste of resources because it had to spend money which was not budgeted for. This did not just bring stress to the other innocent students as they needed to prepare for the other set of examinations, but also anxiety as to whether the new set of examinations would be

reliable. Furthermore, when we consider that by cheating, students do infringe on the moral rights of other students who are opposed to cheating, the action itself is bad. In this case, therefore, cheating in an examination is bad and must not be condoned.

Perspective of Justice Ethics Theory

When the action of cheating is weighed from the perspective of the theory of justice, we can see that the action itself is against the principles that are being advanced by the theory of justice. For example, since the theory of justice requires that individuals who are similar in a relevant respect should be treated similarly, we expect that all students must be treated the same way. Since cheating is deemed bad, we expect all students not to be involved in cheating. Again, since the theory advocates that rules must be administered fairly and clearly, by indulging themselves in cheating, such students act against the rules of the conduct of examinations. Since it is the expectation of the society that those sitting for examinations should not cheat, therefore, students must conform to the norms and regulations that are applicable to all students. Anyone found cheating is contravening against this principle. When we consider these arguments, we can conclude that cheating in an examination is bad, and no way should it be condoned.

Perspective from Virtue Theory Ethics

When the action of cheating is weighed from the perspective of virtue theory, we can see that those students who indulge in cheating act against this theory since the theory advocates for the good qualities of a person on moral uprightness. The emphasis is on the moral uprightness of the action. Since cheating cannot be considered as something morally upright, then cheating must be bad.

Furthermore, honesty is a virtue and is usually referred to as integrity, or as avoiding lying or deception. On the other hand, honesty is defined in a positive and totally behavioral way (Bok, 1999; Sip, Roepstorff, McGregor, & Frith, 2008). For example, if an honest person finds a lost purse, that person will make efforts to return the purse to the rightful owner because it is the nature of that person to be honest. Similarly, in examinations, a virtuous person will not be expected to cheat. By cheating, it reflects the character of someone who is not honest. Therefore, since cheating is a result of not being honest, then cheating is bad.

It should be noted that virtues generally lead people to do right actions. They motivate people to act in a way that is generally right. It makes being virtuous an essential element in leading a moral life, and encourages people to develop good character traits. It has also been found that when the action of cheating is weighed from different ethical theories, the act of cheating contravenes the different principles which the different theories advocate. In this case, therefore, the conclusion is that cheating in any form is bad. We must accept that any form of cheating is bad not only during examinations but also in every other circumstance. Refraining from the habit of cheating is part of being good and responsible citizens. Therefore, students, like any other person who is involved in the administration of examinations, need to handle examinations with morality and integrity.

Origin of Public Examinations

According to Kellaghan (1990) and Lewin and Little (1982), public examinations are an important feature in many countries in Europe, Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean.

Their importance derives largely from the fact that examination performance forms the basis of important decisions about the educational and vocational futures of students. In performing their evaluative function, it has been noted that examinations have acquired a legitimacy based on the view that the qualifications they confer provide a fair indication of achievement and that decisions about the distribution of benefits on the basis of such qualifications are rewarding merit.

Miyazaki (1976) observed the origin of public examinations in the entrance and civil service examinations of China, which dates back at least to the period of the Sui Emperors (589-618), with a pre-history going back much further and which achieved their most complex form towards the end of the Ch'ing dynasty (1644-1911). Kellaghan (1992) noted that the Chinese systems inspired examinations in written format that began to appear in European schools in the 16th century, though it was not until some two hundred years later that public examinations of the type found in China were instituted in Europe for selection to universities, the civil service, and the professions.

Kellaghan (1992) further claimed that once examinations became a major feature of the educational systems of most European countries, they were in turn, passed on to their former colonies in Africa, Asia, and the Caribbean, where they still flourish.

Characteristics of Public Examinations

Noah and Eckstein (2001) and Madaus and Kellaghan (1991) noted that although there were considerable variations in the form and administration of examinations from country to country, public examinations generally shared a number of characteristics. First, the examinations were controlled to varying degrees at the national or regional level

and sometimes also administered by an agency or agencies outside the school, usually a state department or regional examining boards (Greaney & Kellaghan, 1995).

Second, the examinations were geared to the syllabi which were usually defined by an agency outside the school. Sometimes, the same agency would administer the examinations. Third, examinations were usually provided in the traditional areas of the curriculum such as mathematics, science, and languages. Fourth, examinations were often formal terminal procedures, taken on fixed days under controlled conditions by all candidates taking the examinations in a country or region at the end of a course of study. Fifth, examinations were largely written, very often using the essay format, but sometimes making use of multiple-choice items, either in conjunction with other formats or on their own. There were also provisions for oral and practical assessments. Finally, as a result of performance on the examinations, the student was awarded a grade or mark in each subject examined (Greaney & Kellaghan, 1995).

Purpose of Public Examinations

According to Greaney and Kellaghan (1995), public examinations normally were intended to serve a number of functions. The most obvious was to assess the competence of students' learning relative to some agreed standards. The results were then frequently used to discriminate among students with regard to their preferred futures: further education, admission to professional preparation, or employment.

Greaney and Kellaghan (1995) further argued that while certification was important, particularly for students who were leaving the educational system, there was a danger of losing sight of the purpose of assessing the competence of students' learning

because of the strong emphasis on selection. Examination results were also often used formally or informally to provide evidence of school effectiveness, and schools and teachers would be held accountable for their students' achievements as reflected in examination performance. This use became more obvious when results for individual schools were published.

It is particularly appropriate to raise the question of equity in the context of public examinations since, according to Miyazaki (1976), a reason frequently given for their introduction was to ensure an equitable distribution of educational and vocational benefits. For example, Chinese examinations were designed to select government officials on the basis of their ability and intellectual achievement rather than that of birth; there were no class restrictions on examination entry and students were not asked whether they were merchants, artisans, or peasants. Montgomery (1965) noted that in Britain also, a major reason for introducing public examinations was to replace patronage and nepotism in making appointments to the civil service.

The use of examinations for selection for further education or employment places a heavy burden on these systems. According to the World Bank (1990), the burden was particularly great in developing countries where rates of return were higher than in industrialized countries and education systems were pyramidal in structures. This meant that the number of students at lower grades reduced markedly as one proceeded through the grades.

The World Bank (1990) also observed that in many countries, there was a public examination at three points in the system. The first was held at the end of the primary

school and was used to identify students who would proceed to secondary education. Since the number of places in secondary schools would be extremely limited, relatively few students would progress. The World Bank noted, for example, that in the Sub-Saharan African countries for which data were available, only 31% of the students in the last grade of primary school succeeded in obtaining places in the first grade of secondary school. The percentages were as low as 4% in Rwanda and 9% in Burundi.

According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP; 2003), the second public examination was usually held three years after entry to secondary school when the cohort was further reduced, though not drastically as at the end of primary schooling. The final examinations would take place at the end of secondary schooling, when students competed for university entrance and a range of white-collar jobs. The UNPD noted that taking all developing countries together, only about 2% of an age cohort managed to get into tertiary institution.

Examination Malpractice

Education is an important instrument that is used to objectively evaluate and assess students' learning outcomes and ability to demonstrate knowledge, understanding, and mastery of different concepts and ideas. However, actions and practices that undermine the integrity of the examination process pose a serious threat to the quality and credulity of the students' learning outcomes. Examination malpractice is an example of actions that threaten the integrity of examinations, and /or damage the authority of those responsible for conducting them. Examination malpractice is also a threat to the validity and reliability of the educational system. It is harmful not only to the moral

development, but also to the intellectual development of the student. In recent years, examination malpractice in Malawi has not only been on the increase but has also become sophisticated and aggressive. Every year the Malawi National Examination Board (MANEB) has had to deal with cases of unscrupulous school administrators, teachers, parents, and students involved in examination fraud (Malunga, 2000).

Definition of Examination Malpractice

Different authors have defined the concept of examination malpractice differently. According to Asante-Kyei and Nduro (2014), examination malpractice is any act of omission or commission by a person who in anticipation of, before, during or after any examination fraudulently secures any unfair advantage for him or herself, or any other person in such a manner that contravenes the rules and regulation to the extent of undermining the validity, reliability, or authenticity of the examination and ultimately the integrity of the certificates issued.

Badejo and Gandonu (2010) saw examination malpractice as a deliberate act of wrongdoing, as contrary to the official rules, and is designed to place a candidate at an unfair advantage or disadvantage. The system is a careless, illegal or unacceptable behavior by a candidate in a formal test of his knowledge or ability in a particular subject. They further explained the concept as a counter-practice that is against the ethics of examination, and an act of disrespect to all rules and regulations guiding the good conduct of any examination or evaluation process.

In their study, Asante-Kyei and Nduro (2014) defined examination malpractice as any deliberate act of wrongdoing by academic authorities, learners, and parents before,

during, and after an exam to give one an upper hand in the assessment or evaluation process. Khan, Khan, and Khan (2012) defined examination malpractice as an illegal way a student uses to pass an examination which could be in the form of bringing notebooks into examination halls, cheating during examinations, copying from friends, paying another person to help in attempting the examination, or gaining foreknowledge of questions before the examinations.

History of Examination Malpractice

Just when the trend of examination malpractice found its roots in human communities, is not known. There are many examples of the worrisome but ubiquitous levels of cheating throughout the world. Globally, evidence abounds of increasing incidents of examination malpractice by learners at primary and secondary schools as well as at colleges. Kibler (1993) reported that examination malpractice was first known to have existed in the Chinese civil service examinations where examinations were given in individual cubicles to prevent examinees from looking at the test papers of others, despite strict precautions and regulations which included the death penalty for both the guilty students and the examiners. In the process, examiners searched for notes prior to entering the cubicles.

Similarly, there has been a long history of studies on the frequency of cheating in the United States of America and United Kingdom. Healy and Perry (2000) observed that in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, cheating was widespread at college campuses in the United States. The malpractice was continuously growing as a problem despite having jail terms imposed for perpetrators who were caught and

convicted. Students had been reported for hiding notes in toilet tanks and, up their sleeves or neck ties.

In another study of 4,500 high school students from 25 US high schools, Schulte (2002) reported that 72% of the students admitted to seriously cheating in examinations. In another study involving 20,829 middle and high school students, Josephson reported that 70% of the students claimed that they cheated on examinations. McCabe's (2005) studies of high school students in the USA revealed high levels of such misconduct. He found out that 75-80% of students admitted to copying from others or taking forbidden materials into tests or exams (Eckstein, 2003).

An Australian newspaper commented that the challenge to the integrity of Australian universities caused by Internet assistance to students cheating in examinations reduced confidence in the education provided by those institutions ("Cheating.com.au," 2001). China too suffers the problem. In a characteristic example of cheating assisted by modern devices, education officials and teachers in China provided examination candidates with answers to questions on the national university examinations by means of a pager ("Six jailed over examination cheating," 2001).

Gbenda (2008) reported that in India it was common to see teachers, invigilators and security agencies looking helplessly in the classrooms during examination hours as dozens of brothers, sisters, fathers, and cousins stood outside government schools hurling rock-propelled answer sheets to students.

In Pakistan, the trend of examination malpractice is on the increase. Munachonga (2014) noted that while in the past the value system was strong in Pakistan, the

breakdown in ethics in Pakistan culture generated many problems for the education sector. Some of the causes identified for the increase in malpractice included a weak educational system, pressure from teachers and parents, decline in ethical social values, self-centered culture, and technological developments. Khan et al. (2012) reported that in Pakistan the malpractice in Secondary School Certificate (SSC) examinations could not be eliminated completely; they still continued in one way or the other. For this reason, a number of educationists and researchers criticized the public examination system in Pakistan.

Maheshwari (2011) noted that in India, examination malpractice, was seen as a form of corruption. It was noted that social, economic, political, religious, and educational vices were celebrated and rewarded in the country while virtue was punished. Patton (2002) reported that there was an increase of 27% in the number of General Certificates in Secondary Education and A-Level candidates caught cheating in England, Wales, and Northern Ireland in the 2009 summative examinations.

Lebeloane and Nyaumwe (2014) claimed that a significant number of FBI agents writing a test which was intended to measure their knowledge of recently-introduced guidelines on procedures for conducting criminal investigations, national security probes, and foreign intelligence collection, were found cheating.

Eckstein (2003) noted that the use of “high-tech” facilities makes malpractice a growing international phenomenon. He argued that in the entrance exams for Jakarta State University, where candidates outnumbered available places by roughly twelve to one, candidates could pay so-called “jockeys” to supply them with answers from stolen

exam papers. The authorities also admitted that cheating was commonplace but claimed that very little could be done while the culture of corruption within the bureaucracy was so endemic (“Cheats charter,” 2002).

Examination Malpractice in Africa

Africa, too has not been spared the problem. Eckstein (2003) acknowledged the fact that there are problems in administering national examinations in less developed nations of the world. He observed that each stage of the national examinations in developing countries is vulnerable to malfeasance of one kind or another. He asserted that before the actual administration of national exams upon which so much depends, leakage of information is common while the questions are being formulated, and the papers printed and distributed to examination centers. At the actual testing sites, test documents may be opened ahead of time, copied, and sold. Impersonation of a candidate, smuggling information into the examination room, and covert passing of answers between candidates, as well as conveying information from outside into the examination room are all methods which are used in cheating.

In Nigeria, for example, the first examination malpractice was recorded in 1914 when the Cambridge School Certificate Examination was leaked to candidates. Similarly, in 1948, a Nigerian candidate’s result was cancelled because of his possession of notes already prepared and taken to the examination hall of the Cambridge Examination (Akinseye, 2005). Gbenda (2008) noted that in 1977 the menace of examination malpractice in Nigeria had reached an alarming stage with the leakage of the West African Examination Council question papers which prompted an investigation and

subsequent promulgation of Decree 20 of 1984 by the Federal Government of Nigeria. Since then, the situation has advanced to the extent that examination malpractice in Nigeria had become so internalized and legitimized among students that some of them regard it as the normal process of passing examinations.

In Kenya, Akaranga and Ongong (2013) observed that although there was no substantive evidence, some workers in the Kenya National Examinations Council had been suspected and accused of leaking out or selling examination papers to selected potential candidates. Such suspicion was corroborated by the Ministry of Education's frequent suspension of examination results from some schools at the end of each examination season.

Njue, Muthaa, and Muriungi (2014) lamented that cheating in examinations has become a global concern to the extent that some see it as the outcome of the "backwash effects" of examination. Examination malpractice in Kenya reached alarming proportion and the malpractice methods were sophisticated and institutionalized. Kithuka (2004) observed that efforts by government administration and stakeholders in the educational sector to curtail the trend did not yield any fruit. Aullo (2004) lamented that the nature of examination malpractice had resulted in high turnover of incompetent graduates by institutions of higher learning. Lebeloane and Nyaumwe (2014) noted that some open and distance learning (ODL) students at the University of South Africa (Unisa) also contributed to the statistics on examination cheating in the October/November Master of Law (LLB) examinations.

In Egypt, Mashanyare and Chinamasa (2014) reported that three A-level examination papers had to be destroyed amid concerns that the content could have leaked out. They noted that a report by Clark which was issued in 2012 alleged that copies of the papers were mixed with batches of past examination papers sent out to schools in Egypt which requested them from Edexcel GCE (Britain) for pupils to use in revision sessions. Three “live” A-level papers were sent by mistake before they had been written, a confirmation that some examination leakages start from the distribution point.

In Zambia, a study conducted by Munachonga (2014) established that incidences of examination malpractice had in recent times taken a dangerous and disturbing turn because parents, teachers, supervisors and even school managers were directly involved. In some instances, even officers from the Examinations Council of Zambia were involved. The study also discovered that examination malpractice was commonly committed before and during the examination, and sometimes, though rarely, after the examination stage. It was noted that during each examination session, examination candidates invented different ways of cheating with some methods being so challenging and sophisticated that invigilators were unable to detect them.

Mashanyare and Chinamasa (2014) claimed that in Zimbabwe, school examinations may have been leaking although they did not receive much publicity before localization of examinations. They reported that examinations were a nightmare in Zimbabwe. They argued that the Standard newspaper alleged that since ZIMSEC had taken over the administration of examinations in 1998, standards had plummeted. The newspaper cited a scandal which involved the late former Minister of Education’s, 14-

year-old daughter, who leaked a Zimbabwe Junior Certificate History examination paper to friends and schoolmates at a high school in Harare in 2004. This was after the then Minister of Education had taken the paper to his home before examinations had been written.

Mashanyare and Chinamasa (2014) reported that in 2006, the Voice of America-Zimbabwe alleged that “O” level examinations were stolen from a Headmaster in Karoi, Mashonaland West by a man to whom he had given a ride in his car. The issue of examination malpractice is not new to Malawi. Eckstein (2003) stated that conditions in Malawi are characteristic of less developed nations and typically difficult to cope with. In this country, misconduct of all kinds at every stage of the national school examinations is common.

Causes of Examination Malpractice

The reasons that are given for students’ involvement in examination malpractice are varied. Different people have divided the causes of examination malpractice into different categories. Eckstein (2003) noted that examination malpractice is a result of many factors, subjective and objective. Subjective causes of examination malpractice are attitudinal and individual that include, for example, simple ignorance of the rules and conventions that embody what is right and what is unacceptable, dubious, or even criminal. Objective causes include the pressures directed at individuals by society, family, and other external force, as well as society’s demand for skilled and educated workers, and professionals.

Achio et al. (2012) attributed the causes to three factors: psychological, environmental, and intelligence factors. Psychological factors included stress and anxiety to meet the demands of various subjects and fear of failure or scoring low grades that can force some candidates to be susceptible to the temptation to cheat. Environmental factors included inadequate coverage of syllabus coupled with candidates sitting close to each other at examinations as factors that could entice candidates to commit examination malpractice. Examples for intelligence factors include candidates' different academic strengths or intelligence quotient (IQ) levels which can make weaker students compare themselves with naturally-gifted ones. Not wanting to work extra hard to match the brilliant ones, the academically-weak ones may get themselves involved with examination malpractice.

Asante-Kyei and Nduro (2014) identified cultural implications, school programs, teaching or learning environment, teacher factors, and student factors as categories of causes for examination malpractice. They noted that cheating is a serious breakdown in the cultural structure as a result of the confusion between cultural norms and goals and the capacities of members to act in accordance with it. For specificity, the following are reasons or factors that are responsible for examination malpractice:

Pressure from peers, parents, and guardians. Achio et al. (2012) noted that while some candidates intentionally indulge in the malpractice, others find themselves involved in it due to peer pressure, and through ignorance, carelessness or forgetfulness in applying regulations. Carrell, Malmstrom, and West (2008) and Henningsen, Valde, and Denbow (2013) observed that when academic misconduct was seen as acceptable,

students were more likely to engage in cheating behaviors. They argued that the appropriateness of cheating behavior was guided by the perception that others were cheating. They noted that one way by which students would develop a norm of cheating was to observe classmates performing cheating behaviors. Eckstein (2003) noted that students usually cheat because of concern about their performance as they are prompted by anxiety about their capacity to produce acceptable work, by demands and pressures made on them by parents and teachers. According to Munachonga (2014) in a study of Zambia, pressure from peers in society and in schools, and also from parents contributed to examination malpractice.

Emphasis on certificates. The other reason given for the malpractice is the great premium or emphasis on certificates or paper qualifications to be able to fit into any system (Onyechere, 2006). Ihejirika (2005) noted that the position assumed by paper qualification is superfluous, and that learners or examinees are deceived to think that indulging in cheating practices is the best choice to achieve results, coupled with incessant demand by companies and labor institutions. According to Munachonga (2014), factors leading to examination malpractice in Kenya included competition for limited opportunities in training institutions and labor engagements where employers demand good academic results. She noted that the emphasis placed on the benefits expected to be accrued from passing an examination, such as advancement in education and training, job opportunities, perceived financial gains, as well as elevation in social status, was another factor which influenced examination malpractice.

Students' desire to pass examinations at all costs. This is another factor that contributes to examination malpractice. Achio et al. (2012) noted that various rules and regulations, and corresponding sanctions for various forms of malpractice are normally enlisted by examination bodies, but hardened and daring candidates try to find innovative ways to outwit authorities. They noted that a most important factor responsible for examination malpractice was the desire by candidates to pass at all costs. The root cause lay in their lack of confidence and fear of failure or getting low marks, as well as being ill-prepared for the examinations.

Personality disposition. Some students are more prone to cheating than others because they are either lazy or of dubious character. Personality traits included lack of positive self- concept, lack of effective study habits, inadequate preparation, and reluctance to work hard (Petters & Okon, 2014). They argued that students needed positive self-concept, positive attitude toward studies, and effective study habits to achieve academic success. Inability to apply good study skills created opportunities for anxiety, which in turn reduced the extent of students' effectiveness in the process of acquiring knowledge, as such students tended to cheat in examinations. Students are more likely to cheat when they doubt their intelligence, lack academic confidence, or expect failure (LaBeff, Clark, Haines, & Diekhoff, 1990; Schab, 1991). In a related study Adeyemi (2010) figured out that general indiscipline among learners could be a key factor involved in cheating. This factor was suggested by 97.3% of his respondents in the survey. Others with an equally high response was inadequate preparation (90%), and the desire to pass notwithstanding the cost involved (82.4%). Pratt (1980), and Munachonga

(2014) discovered that inadequate preparation on the part of the students serves as a fertile ground for cheating.

Corruption and moral decadence. The study which Suleman et al. (2015) conducted, revealed that there were a number of factors that contributed to malpractice in examinations in Pakistan. They noted that corruption was one of the main factors that contributed to examination malpractice. They noted that the students knew that if they offered a bribe to supervisory staff, they would be permitted to cheat in the examination hall. According to Munachonga (2014) in a study of Zambia, corruption among the teachers and other education authorities contributed to the malpractice. Okoh (2014) found out that the most common cause of examination malpractice in Nigeria was moral decadence in the society. This implied that the observable corruption in the society where people could do anything to get what they wanted had also crept into the school system where students were ready to do anything to get good results. She argued that moral decadence which had its roots in corruption had eaten deep into almost every area of life in Nigeria. Such corruption gave rise to wrong notions and orientation in terms of preparing for and writing examinations. Aullo (2004) found that economic factors such as poor salaries and corruption in management of government affairs encouraged instructors and examination administrators to accept bribes for entrance and certification examinations to supplement their low salaries.

Learning environment. Research indicates that an unconducive learning environment also contributes to examination malpractice. Awanabor (2005) argued that school programs were the building blocks of education employed by both the instructor

and the learner to bring about the desired or needed input in the life of the learner. He argued that a good school program must be relevant for the present or the future life of the individual and as well be dynamic to meet the demands of the global market. But where these qualities are not present, the deficiencies create temptation for students to indulge in unethical practices during exams in order to get undeserved grades and promotion. Crown and Spiller (1998); Genereux and McLeod (1995), and Roig and Ballew (1994) also previously established that the environment or atmosphere created by the instructor or tutor within the classroom or examination setting could have a significant relationship with cheating. Ruwa (1997) attributed the prevalence of cheating to poor instructional delivery, inadequate facilities, poor conditions of service, and admission of unqualified candidates.

Munachonga (2014) noted the use of spoon-feeding techniques in teaching whereby teaching is focused on examinations preparation, and rewarding teachers. Competition between schools, and over-enrollment in the schools which leads to overcrowding in classrooms was attributed to examination malpractice in Zambia. Okoh (2014) also identified inadequate learning facilities, poverty level of staff, lack of control of admission quotas, and poor teaching methods as factors that contributed to cheating in Nigeria.

Gbenedio (1993) noted that lack of motivation of teachers, which may be due to many reasons, and lack of control over the admission quota which often leads to overcrowded classrooms, are among the main causes leading to examination malpractice. These factors give rise to other sub-factors such as lack of proper invigilation and

teachers who are not properly prepared and as such do not teach well. Consequently their students may not be well prepared for examinations. In the case of Malawi, Khanje (1999) observed that there are basically two reasons why people get involved in examination malpractice. One reason is to help a weak candidate pass. The other reason is to get a reward. The desire to make candidates pass examinations and receive monetary or other benefits, compel candidates, teachers, and other individuals to ignore examination regulations and participate in cheating.

Methods of Examination Malpractice

Examination malpractice takes various forms that can be categorized as follows:

- Leakage – illegally getting examination questions before the examination time;
- Impersonation – representing and writing an examination for another candidate;
- Cheating – transgressing any of the rules governing the conduct of examinations.
- Taking foreign material into the examination room.
- Collusion – malpractice performed in cooperation with others, such as passing notes, or receiving or giving assistance to other candidates in the examination room (Okorodudu, 2013).

Leakage. Munachonga (2014) asserted that more often than not, examination malpractice takes the form of leakage of examination question papers, which sometimes

come through teachers or lecturers, faculty offices and examination officers, or the examination council itself.

Smuggling of foreign materials. This is perhaps the most common method of examination malpractice. It relates to the introduction of unauthorized materials (e.g. note-books, crib notes charts, and answers) into the examination hall. The materials are frequently smuggled in pants, shoes, hems, and bras, or information is written on parts of the body. Munachonga (2014) reported that in Ghana, students perfected various forms of cheating in examination rooms. Some of the tricks employed under this practice included, smuggling foreign materials into the examination rooms, such as prepared notes and material written on palms, or thighs (especially for girls), and in textbooks or novels for subjects such as literature.

In Zambia, Munachonga (2014) noted that other forms of examination malpractice candidates used included smuggling written information relevant or irrelevant to the examination questions in textbooks, pieces of paper, shirts, palms, and thighs. Akaranga and Ongong (2013) observed a number of ways examination cheating is done. Some of the ways include written notes on examination desks, walls palms, clothes, and electronic devices. In their study Suleman et al. (2015) found different forms of malpractice occurring during examinations. In the study, the majority of the participants (96.7%) responded that students brought unauthorized materials, i.e. pocket guides and, electronic devices to the examination hall, teachers and parents sent prepared answers to students during examinations in order to ensure good results of their school (94.4%), and student cheated directly from textbooks (94.2%).

Nnam and Inah (2015) stated that examination malpractice varied from institution to institution, while their common interest or goal was to attain an unmerited success after an examination and occupy an enviable height in the society. In their study, a greater proportion of the respondents noted smuggling of unlawful tiny pieces of paper containing nuggets into the examination hall; the use of mobile phones and other electronic devices during examinations were some of the other common forms of examination malpractice at the Ebonyi State University in Nigeria.

Clabaugh and Rozycki (2009) claimed that the art of cheating in examinations is increasing in sophistication, ranging from physical possession of unauthorized materials to the use of technology. The traditional crib notes are an ancient form of cheating in which students smuggle illegal materials into the examination room. Information may be smuggled using small pieces of paper, and as studies already mentioned have noted, writing somewhere on their bodies, clothes, wrist-watches and other places that they think invigilators will not suspect in order to give a candidate an advantage of using concealed unauthorized materials.

According to Clabaugh and Rozycki (2009), common forms of cheating by both male and female students is writing crib notes on the bottom of shoes, inside hats, or inside a neck tie, or belt. Some students empty the contents of a wrist-watch and replace them with crib notes, or cover with a long-sleeved shirt or blouse. Sometimes crib notes are written on hands and arms. They claimed that female students have extra places to hide crib notes on their thighs, where they cross their legs during writing and start reading the notes. Female students who use this method believe that male invigilators will ignore

them as they read crib notes written on their thighs because they believe that the male invigilators will fear being labeled as perverts or molesters. In their study, Lebeloane and Nyaumwe (2014) established that there were five different forms of crib media used for cheating by candidates in examinations namely crib notes on paper, rulers, calculator covers, hands, and cell phones. Burke, Polimeni, and Slavin (2007) found that electronic devices, such as cell phones, iPod, electronic calculators, and personal data assistants are used for assisting with formulas and other crucial information.

Impersonation. This occurs when a registered candidate engages or hires some other person to sit for the examination on his or her behalf. Munachonga (2014) reported that in Kenya, students who were vulnerable to cheating used impersonation. In their study, Suleman et al. (2015) reported that 74.5% of the participants claimed that impersonation was observed during examinations.

Copying and collusion. This is another form of examination malpractice. Collusion is done when candidates pass unauthorized information to one another usually by exchanging notes or scripts. Munachonga (2014) reported that students in Kenya were guilty of copying answers from other candidates, and communicating via electronic gadgets during examinations. She noted that other forms of examination malpractice students in Zambia used included whispering to each other, passing notes to each other to copy, and exposing their work for others to copy. Akaranga and Ongong (2013) observed that collusion can be done among the candidates themselves and between candidates and officials in charge of examinations. They also noted that sometimes students use what is called “giraffing,” where some students stretch their necks to be able to see and copy

work from other students. In their research findings, Franklyn-Stokes and Newstead (1995), and, McCabe and Trevino (1996a) noted that copying from each other, and assisting each other were some of the methods of cheating students use. Burke et al. (2007) found that electronic devices, such as cell phones, iPod, electronic calculators, and personal data assistants are used for assisting with formulas and other crucial information. Ingram and Parks (2002) revealed that candidates use coded or sign language to enable them cheat during examinations. A candidate may produce a sound or drop something in order to attract the attention of a fellow candidate so that they can communicate and share the answers during examinations.

It is reported that examination malpractice takes place at different times. The malpractice can take place before the examinations are written. It can also take place when candidates are writing the examinations, or after the examinations have been written.

Examination Malpractice before Examinations

The most common form of examination malpractice before the examination is leakage. Achio et al. (2012) noted that leakage usually comes from persons who have access to the questions and/or the marking schemes, which may include people such as course lecturers/examiners, Examinations Officers, Heads of Departments, and academic Deans. Children, spouses, other family members, or personnel working in the offices of these secretaries, cleaners, and messengers could also easily have access to the material. They contended that other forms of examination malpractice that could occur before the examination include the following: secretly breaking into a staff office for question

papers and/or answer scripts, writing of project(s) or report(s) for student(s) by staff or co-students, falsifying candidate' particulars to qualify them to take an examination, plagiarism, unauthorized adaptation of some-one's' work to earn marks for promotion, or for commercial ventures, and allotment of choice of examination centers or appointment of choice of invigilating staff to specified centers. Leakage is a very common and most serious form of examination malpractice. When leakage occurs, candidates have prior knowledge of the questions that they are supposed to answer beforehand. This in itself is a danger to society because it defeats the purpose of examination since students are already aware of what is expected to come during examinations.

Examination Malpractice during Examinations

Different forms of examination malpractice during examinations have been reported in literature. Achio et al. (2012) noted that examination malpractice can take place when the examinations are in progress. During examination the following malpractice is common: impersonation; writing on items (sheets of papers, handkerchiefs, erasers, and covers of calculators); writing on parts of the body (arms, thighs, palms); using programmable calculators during the examination; hiding materials in washrooms, pockets, private parts, or pen corks; writing answers on question papers and exchanging them with others to copy; and communicating orally or through gestures.

A study conducted by Akaranga and Ongong (2013) in Nairobi on examination malpractice found that candidates were able to replace an already answered script with the one given to them. This was made possible by candidates making arrangements with invigilators and supervisors before the commencement of examinations.

Munachonga (2014) noted that the nature of examination malpractice adopted during the conduct of the examinations in Rwanda included: threatening the examiners with dire consequences in instances where they refuse to “cooperate” with the candidates; copying from slips of papers, text books etc. and sneaking them into the examination room; copying from neighbor’s answer sheets etc.; illegal assistance from invigilators, teachers and others to answer questions; exchanging answer scripts with friends; copying directly from each other because of congestion in the examination room; and inserting additional answer sheets on which answers had been written at home.

Examination Malpractice after Examinations

There are times when examination malpractice takes place after examinations have been written. According to Achio et al. (2012), some of the examination malpractice commonly noticed after the examinations include the following: colluding with member(s) of staff to replace the original answered script with a new prepared answer script, and paying for marks or paying to have marks changed. Course lecturers, examination officers, and Academic Affairs staff are most prone to involvement in these acts.

According to Munachonga (2014), the malpractice adopted after the conduct of the examinations in Rwanda involved insertion of additional material or making corrections in the answer books; soliciting examiners and other officials with inducements to enhance marks; changing or swapping answer sheets; inflation of candidates’ marks; and carelessness in marking or adding marks etc. by an examiner.

Effects of Examination Malpractice

Examinations have an important place in any educational set-up. Akaranga and Ongong (2013) asserted that examination is a very integral part of any educational system, so much so that a cursory look at educational institutions seems to suggest that these institutions have been established for the sole purpose of preparing students for examinations. They further argued that this is why teaching, learning, and the success of any given educational system is evaluated according to the purpose and efficacy of its examination system.

Akaranga and Ongong (2013) further argued that the significance of examinations cannot be overrated because they are conducted and managed to assess the performance of the learners and establish whether they have the expected standard of academic learning and knowledge. Moreover, the examination often engages the students in a competitive manner to achieve good results and satisfy the expectations of both their teachers and parents. However, it is the pressure that is placed on these students to succeed at all costs that makes them prone to examination irregularity.

Unfortunately, examination malpractice has many negative impacts. The consequences are enormous. According to Akaranga and Ongong (2013), examination malpractice often leads to expulsion of students from academic institutions. According to Achio et al. (2012), examination malpractice end up producing “half-baked” students who hold certificates without the know-how, which cripples productivity. These students may end up losing highly demanding jobs due to incompetence even though the remuneration is high.

Adelakum and Lawal (2008) also outlined the consequential effects of examination malpractice, including erosion of confidence in the education system; loss of credibility in the education assessment; examination agencies discredited, leading to a loss of confidence in the certificates that are issued by the agencies; the rising cost of conducting examinations when massive leakage is established; cancellation of results causing undue suffering to innocent students; increased corruption levels in a society; and eventual retardation of national development. They further stated that as resourcefulness and creativity are compromised and havoc wreaked on the social, economic, religious and political lives of people, the resultant effects are corruption, lack of seriousness, laziness, and loss of self-confidence among both teachers and students.

Anzene (2014) noted that individuals who are involved in examination malpractice lose their moral direction. Such people no longer recognize ethics as a value in discharging their duties. If they are lawyers, for example, they would corrupt justice and promote unjust causes because they cannot differentiate between an accused person and the complainant. Anzene further argued that as long as examination malpractice is prevalent, institutions will end up producing the kind of doctors who will forget scissors and towels in the stomach after surgical operations. This vice will continue to produce students with distinctions in our examinations, but without quality knowledge in any definite course or subject. In addition, the system will continue to reward teachers who cannot impart knowledge to the students.

Anzene (2014) further observed that examination malpractice has grave consequences on the individuals and institutions of learning, to communities, and to the

country as a whole. He observed that dismissal, termination, loss of position and loss of self-confidence are effects and have brought much embarrassment and suffering to individuals, families and communities. The guilty ones who are not caught and punished cannot defend the certificates issued to them, let alone perform their duties effectively. He also asserted that examination malpractice leads to irreversible loss of credibility. He argued that a country that is ranked high in examination malpractice loses international credibility. The implication is that certificates or documents emanating from such a country's educational system will be treated with suspicion and doubt.

Nigeria is a good example of the consequence of examination malpractice. According to Okoh (2014), consequences in Nigeria included lack of recognition of academic qualification, frequent cancellations, suspension of results, unproductive labor force, lack of confidence in the educational system, molestation and harassment of students by lecturers, and vice versa. Okoh argued that examination malpractice is an unacceptable behavior that is continually destroying the Nigerian educational system. The effect of this problem is that the Nigerian educational system has gradually lost its credibility within and outside the country. The certificates that are issued seem like mere sheets of paper.

Petters and Okon (2014) considered the effects of examination malpractice on the society and on undergraduate students. They noted that examination malpractice discourages candidates from studying hard first, closely followed by underachievement in the labor market. Coming in third was the denial of admission to deserving students followed by overall reduction in quality of education. They noted that examination

malpractice discourages students from working hard; rather, they spend their time to plan the strategy they intend to employ to cheat in the examination. The study also found that examination malpractice reduces the credibility of Nigerian certificates outside the country.

Nwaba and Nwaba (2005) observed that examination malpractice has serious implications for the educational system, students, teachers, parents and the school as a whole. Nigeria, for example, had been associated with poorly-prepared graduates, low productivity and poor job performance, certificate racketeering and qualification inflation, making the credibility of Nigerian certificates questionable internationally.

Chaminuka and Ndudzo (2014) lamented over examination malpractice and its various effects. They noted that these acts have very serious economic, political, and social consequences that can cripple a nation. Good students are discouraged from working hard in their studies so that they might be tempted to adopt the “if you can’t beat them, then join them” syndrome. This can also be prompted by seeing other corrupt students escaping any form of punishment. They believe that even if they are caught, they will get away with it too and this practice generally results in indiscipline and laziness.

Chaminuka and Ndudzo (2014) further observed that examination malpractice may also deny and frustrate innocent students who venture into the job market simply because the corrupt students will have scored “higher” grades. This may also rob a country of any chances of engaging the best brains in any form of development. Kayode (2012) observed that many graduates can no longer defend their certificates. Such

candidates might have psychological problems arising from the way they got their certificates as well as being unable to meet the expectations of employers. That scenario renders the goals of education invalid and point to the likelihood of collapse in the education system.

Eckstein (2003) argued that in some countries, controversy over examination malpractice and academic fraud may result in civil disorder and violence. He cited an example of the riots that broke out in Bangladesh when college professors and administrators tried to prevent students from cheating in the compulsory national English examinations. He recounted that 321, 000 candidates at 602 testing centers were involved and students became enraged when professors and administrators tried to prevent them from using “unfair means to pass.” Punishments were drastic: more than 3,000 students were expelled, and nearly 100 were injured in the demonstration.

In the case of Malawi, Eckstein (2003) found that the costs of security measures for administering national examinations sapped an already inadequate budget for education. In 2000, for example, the government spent over thirty million Kwacha (US\$400,000) to prepare for the foiled examinations. The government said that since the new examination papers would be set in a hurry, government would have to spend much more than this amount.

Khanje (1999) concurred that corruption in examinations has many negative consequences, which may be felt immediately when cheating has taken place or after a long time. Some consequences affect individuals while others affect a whole school, the entire education system, or a whole nation. Effects on individuals include a candidate’s

results being cancelled or teachers interdicted or dismissed. In serious cases, culprits are prosecuted in a court of law, and if convicted, the culprits pay fines and get imprisoned, and parents' resources and efforts to educate their children are wasted when such children have been disqualified. Effects on schools included disqualification of the results for the whole school, and cancellation of the license to conduct examinations. Students of the school go elsewhere to write examinations as external candidates. This is expensive, and the reputation of the school is spoiled.

Khanje (1999) noted that there are several additional consequences that affect the community and the nation. He argued that cheating teaches immoral behavior. Students who are future leaders/adults learn corruption at school if they cheat in examinations. Such people are likely to practice corruption as adults. The community or the nation becomes full of corrupt people, and this is dangerous for a society. He further contended that cheating breeds indolence. Teachers and students develop laziness because they expect to get results through cheating. As such, the students grow up to become lazy adults who cannot inculcate diligence in their children. He also noted that cheating destroys self-confidence. Poor candidates have to receive further education, candidates perform poorly at work, and certificates lose credibility.

Key Players in Examination Malpractice

One will agree that students are by no means the only possible malefactors within the system. Eckstein (2003) observed that teachers and schools, too, resort to fraudulent behavior in order to improve their standing in examinations.

Munachonga (2014) discovered the teacher as a principal factor. He saw the teacher as a vital figure in the business of schooling on whom the quality of instruction given is highly dependent. The quality of instruction he professed is affected by the caliber of people in the teaching job and the extent to which they desire to upgrade themselves and the working environment.

Achio et al. (2012) argued that the whole citizenry of a nation has roles to play on issues of examination malpractice; however they noted that the key players include examination bodies which fail to sanction rules against institutions that violate fraud rules; school proprietors, teachers and supervisors who tend to lure supervisors to allow their candidates to be drilled during the examination; and parents and guardians who know that their children are academically weak but place pressure on them to get good grades. Parents send their children to schools thinking that school can “perform the magic” without caring about the knowledge or skill they can acquire.

Suleman et al. (2015) found that parents were also responsible for developing the trend of cheating during examinations. They considered cheating as a right for their children. Parents would make approaches to the supervisory staff at any cost. For this purpose, they would offer gifts and take care of supervisory staff. In some cases, they would threaten supervisory staff in order to permit their children to cheat in examinations.

Measures Taken to Curb Examination Malpractice

A number of measures have been devised to curb examination malpractice. Troubled by the extent of academic misconduct, organizations in several countries have

become more active than ever before in their efforts to control the malpractice. They seek to raise awareness by publishing examples of misconduct and procedures for dealing with them and to engage professionals in discussion of the subject. They promote and teach ethical behavior in academic institutions and societies. They also attempt to ensure that both whistle-blowers and those accused of misconduct are protected from unfair treatment by their fellows and the authorities (Decoo, 2002).

Eckstein (2003) argued that methods of control depend on the type of misconduct. Traditional forms of cheating in examinations, such as copying, smuggling information into the exam room, and impersonation are dealt with in traditional ways, including teacher vigilance, security, identity checks, and so on. He also noted that penalties for infractions continue to be used which range from cancellation of results, repetition or exclusion from exams, and even fines and imprisonment in the most serious cases. Educators have also called for a ban from the examination rooms of all kinds of electronic devices such as handheld calculators (Noah & Eckstein, 2001).

In the USA, for example, Eckstein (2003) noted that several agencies had been established to combat academic fraud by promoting academic integrity. For example, the American College Personnel Association conducts programs related to legal rights and responsibilities within the academic community.

Other countries are taking additional measures. According to Bamusananire (2010), the Rwanda National Examination Council (RNEC), for example, had since 1998 ensured that the printing of examinations was done abroad, where secure packaging and storage of the papers prior to being air freighted was also guaranteed. Rules and

regulations regarding examinations were made known to District Education Officers, headmasters, supervisors, invigilators, and prospective candidates well in advance. Other measures that were taken to curb the tendency were that the examination papers were accompanied by the police and military personnel during transportation to and from the various locations. The same security measures were put in place at the examination centers. He noted that since 2008 when Rwanda introduced the award of the senior six certificates that bear the candidates' photographs, cases of impersonation had been reduced.

In 2008, the Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) came up with a number of regulations including the development of draft legislation on the administration of examinations and banning of mobile phones in the examination room; and in 2009, the examination body reviewed its examinations timetable and eliminated examinations in the afternoons. Additional vehicles and security personnel were dispatched to support the administrators of examinations. Moreover, examination papers were collected from KNEC headquarters a day or two before the date of the papers, thus minimizing the risk of examination leakage from months and weeks to days and hours (KNEC, 2008).

According to Ramani, Ngala, and Ochichi (2010), as way of curbing the malpractice, the Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC) among other measures banned offenders for at least two years from sitting for national examinations; ensured that all the examinations were written in the morning since it was found that most examination cheating occurred in the afternoon. The proposal also introduced the issue of

certificates including candidates' photographs. Furthermore, to eliminate or minimize forgery, KNEC had purchased modern gadgets to detect such cases.

While research by McCabe revealed the alarming extent of cheating by students in universities as well as high schools, he was optimistic that effective strategies were being implemented to reduce high rates of cheating in these institutions. He pointed to honor codes and efforts by faculty and student leadership in changing student behavior and enhancing academic integrity. He believed that published institutional policies that announce what constitutes proper behavior and the consequences of misconduct may also be an important basis for combating the malpractice. But he was quick to point out that the duty of teaching about the importance of academic integrity should not be left to universities alone because the lessons should also be taught in the home, at early levels of the education system and in society at large (McCabe & Pavela, 2000).

In Zimbabwe, Mashanyare and Chinamasa (2014) indicated that the Zimbabwe School Examination Council (ZIMSEC) had been writing circulars and memos to examination center heads on regulations and conduct of examinations. For example, Regional Circular Number 3 of 2011 reminded heads of centers about proper administration of public school examinations and avoiding all forms of cheating. ZIMSEC Examinations Circular Number 37 of 2012 encouraged heads of schools to pool resources together where applicable and hire transport so that they could avoid use of public transport when ferrying examinations. Regional Circular Number 1 of 2012 emphasized that the keys to the strong room should be handled by members of staff, not bursars or clerks during the examination sessions. The real issue was not the loss of

examination papers from the strong room but leaking before they got to the examination strong room.

Other measures involve civil and even military forces to maintain security for examination sites. Eckstein (2003) noted that the Cambodian Government, for example, deployed hundreds of soldiers and police to cordon off high schools in an effort to prevent cheating in their national annual examinations. Armed personnel prevented parents and others from passing answers to students inside the schools and nearby photocopying shops were ordered to be closed.

Eckstein (2003) also noted that Jakarta's Ministry of National Examination instituted strict security controls over the national final examinations for junior high schools after cheating was discovered in the senior high school exams the previous week. As such, test papers were distributed under strict supervision, and examination officials were urged to stay overnight at schools in order to guard them and supervise their distribution and collection. Students were also subject to sporadic searches and in one region required to leave their belongings outside the exam room.

This review of literature on causes, methods, and effects of examination malpractice as well as measures to curb examination malpractice shows a dangerous trend. The trend seems to mutate at the rate at which new measures are devised to curb it. Ramani et al. (2010) asserted that forms of examination cheating were moving with the times. The pattern of examination malpractice in different countries seemed to be similar, though differences were apparent because of the differences in technological development within countries. From the reviewed literature, one can conclude that there

is no notable breakthrough as far as curbing examination malpractice is concerned. There is a need, therefore, for countries to formulate a more pragmatic and lasting solution to eradicate this malpractice. This research, therefore, will consider proposals that may lay the foundation upon which various stakeholders in the education sector can redesign new ways of conducting examinations that will be malpractice-free.

Background Information of the Country: Malawi

This section outlines the history and essential facts and information about Malawi in general and the education system in particular.

Geographical Context of Malawi

Malawi is a land-locked country which is situated in the Southern part of the African continent. Malawi became independent in 1964. Malawi has a total land area of 119,140 square kilometers – of which 20 percent is covered by Lake Malawi. Malawi is bordered by Zambia to the West, Tanzania to the North, and Mozambique to the East and South (See Figure 2). Malawi has a tropical continental climate with maritime influences. Rainfall and temperature vary depending on altitude and proximity to the lake. From May to August, the weather is cool and dry. From September to November, the weather becomes hot. The rainy season begins in October or November and continues until April (National Statistical Office & ICF Macro, 2011).

At the 2008 national census, the country's total population was slightly above 13 million with a population density of 139 people per square kilometer. For administrative purposes, Malawi is divided into three regions (North, Centre, and South) which cover 28 districts. Six districts are in the Northern Region, nine are in the Central Region, and 13

are in the Southern Region. Administratively, the districts are subdivided into traditional authorities (TAs), presided over by chiefs. Each TA is composed of villages, which are the smallest administrative units, and the villages are presided over by village headmen (National Statistical Office & ICF Macro, 2011).

Political Context of Malawi

Politically, Malawi has been a stable country with no wars as has been the case with many other countries in the southern part of Africa. Historically, Malawi was ruled by Britain and known as the Nyasaland protectorate from 1891 until July 1964. In 1953, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was created, which was composed of three countries, Southern Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia), and Nyasaland (now Malawi). In July 1964, Nyasaland became the independent state of Malawi, which gained republic status in 1966. Malawi has been a one party state since independence in 1964. A multiparty system of government was introduced in 1994. In spite of this, the country remains politically stable although the economy has faced many challenges (National Statistical Office & ICF Macro, 2011).

Economic Context of Malawi

Malawi is classified as a least developed country by the United Nations (UN), and as a Highly Indebted country by the World Bank. The estimated GNP per capita was US\$ 200, and the real growth in GNP per capita was 0.6% in 1998. Malawi with its narrow economic base, no significant mineral resources, high population density, and land-locked status, with prohibitive costs of external trade, is heavily dependent on agriculture which accounts for 30 percent of the gross domestic product (GDP). Nearly

90% of the rural population derive their livelihood from agriculture (National Statistical Office & ICF Macro, 2011).

Cultural Context of Malawi

According to Briggs (2010), culture is the center point of people's co-existence with other human beings in their communities and, outside their communities, as well as with their environment. It dictates people's attitudes and perception of life in general. It should, therefore, be noted that Malawi has a rich and diverse cultural heritage exemplified by national monuments, museums, and cultural industries including music, folklore, crafts, arts, and traditional dances.

Malawi boasts a unique culture and a rich cultural mix with the Chewa being the largest tribe, and because of the friendliness of its people, Malawi is also nicknamed the Warm Heart of Africa. Cook (2009) asserted that Malawi earns its name not only from the country's warm temperatures and beautiful scenery, but also from the warm hearts of its inhabitants. Although Malawi is one of the least developed countries in the world, it claims cultural charm and beauty unequalled even by its close neighbors. Several of the ethnic groups represented in Malawi today are the native African Chewa, Nyanja, Tumbuka, Yawo, Tonga, Ngonde, Lomwe, Sena, and Ngoni, along with some Asians and Europeans (Cook, 2009). According to Crosby (1993), the most widely spoken language (60% of the population) is Chichewa, which originated among the tribes of South Africa. The language of government, industry and commerce is English, which every schoolchild studies. English is spoken in cities but rarely in rural areas.

Cook (2009) observed that Malawians are considered friendly and courteous, but not overly expressive. Malawians are also reserved. Politeness is valued over extreme public shows of emotion. Malawians are concerned about the way others think of them. Kindness, courtesy, and hospitality are valued, and the Malawians consider themselves friendly and trusting.

Cook (2009) further observed that public displays of affection between men and women are unusual. Husbands and wives do not hold hands, kiss, or hug in public. Unlike Western culture, it is perfectly acceptable for men in Malawi to hold hands or to touch each other in public—just as friends, nothing more. This sort of affection is also normal between women in public.

Following proper cultural practices, a typical Malawian greeting would be a right handshake, while placing the left hand under the right forearm; this displays sincerity and trust. Sometimes men bow slightly as they greet each other, and women usually curtsy slightly or sometimes kneel if they are greeting someone who is sitting down. Children often kneel, showing respect. Visitors wait for the host to initiate greetings and conversation. After the initial greeting, a more formal, in-depth greeting is exchanged. The host will ask for details about the guest's health, family, recent activities, etc. Unannounced visits are especially common in Malawi, and it is also customary for the guest to bring a small gift for the host (CultureGram, 2008).

In rural Malawi, large, extended families live together in compounds of several huts. Men are typically farmers, fishermen, or general laborers; women are in charge of the children, gardens, and food preparation (CultureGram, 2008). In Malawi, if a boy is

interested in a girl, he works through the girl's uncle to see if he can marry the girl. The uncle (usually the mother's oldest brother) acts like a marriage counselor and later as a mediator if there are conflicts in the family. Being a matrilineal society, the uncle to the boy has the highest level of respect and the greatest responsibility in the family, even more than the boy's father (Cook, 2009). According to custom, the couple settles in the girl's home village. When children are born, their parents often name them after emotions the parents experienced after the birth. Mothers teach their children to respect their elders, a practice reinforced by elders from all ethnic groups (CultureGram, 2008).

Malawi's staple food is maize, cooked into "nsima," a stiff porridge (Briggs, 2003). Interestingly enough, maize was not grown in Malawi until the Portuguese brought it with them at the end of the eighteenth century (World Info Zone, 2009). Near the lake, fish is an important source of dietary protein. Depending on the availability of food, Malawians might have two meals a day instead of three. Women prepare the nsima over fires, and in some places the women and girls eat separately from the men. Since most of the people in Malawi are Christians, one should expect to pray before everything: meals, journeys, meetings, etc. (Cook, 2009).

Cook (2009) asserted that for those who can afford it, tea is a popular drink usually taken during breakfast in Malawi. Drinking tea is probably a remaining mark of British rule many years ago, although tea is one of Malawi's main exports. Beautiful tea fields grace the lower slopes of Mount Mulanje. Because tea is a major export, it is readily available throughout the country.

According to CultureGram (2008), despite being poor, Malawians take special care of what material possessions they have. Bicycles are prized, and it is quite an achievement to own a car. However, the family is considered a person's greatest asset. Malawi's society is group oriented, and individuals are expected to sacrifice their personal interests for the benefit of family and community. Sharing, especially with those less fortunate, is a part of everyday life.

Although poverty shrouds their desire to present themselves in the finest way, Malawians strive to be clean, neat, and modestly dressed in public (CultureGram, 2008). Men wear pants, shirts, and suit jackets; women wear dresses, skirts, and blouses. During Banda's rule, there was a law restricting women from wearing pants or miniskirts. Today, there is no longer a national ruling against pants and miniskirts, but cultural expectations are for women to wear long skirts. Some of the urban areas are changing to more modern dress, but since most of Malawi is rural, most Malawian women still wear traditional dress. Along with their normal dresses, blouses, and skirts, Malawian women wrap a chitenje around their waists (to protect and preserve their skirts). A chitenje is a 7-foot-long, multi-purpose piece of African-print cotton fabric used for anything from a baby carrier, to hot pads or rags (CultureGram, 2008).

As with most countries, even less-developed countries, cell phones have gained incredible popularity throughout Malawi over the past few years. In 2007, there were around 175,000 telephone mainlines in use throughout the country (about 1 line per 100 people), and over 1 million cell phones (roughly 8 phones per 100 people) (The World Factbook, 2008). Cook (2009) observed that for Malawians, cell phones are a perfect way

to keep in touch with the highly valued family network. It is popular to “flash” a wealthier friend or relative by dialing the number and letting the phone ring a couple of times. The wealthier friend or relative is expected to promptly return the call. For those who are literate, texting is also a popular communication tool. Other communication tools include radios, TVs, and the Internet. Although Malawi has TV stations, few people own television sets. Television continues to gain popularity, but the country lacks a developed communications network, so growth is slow (The World Factbook, 2008).

Diachronic Aspects of Malawian Education System

Education development in Malawi has passed through several stages. Before the introduction of formal education in Malawi by the missionaries, education in the country, like in many other African countries was purely traditional or indigenous. It involved intellectual, physical, and attitudinal training to develop younger generation into acceptable adults in the society (Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002).

Formal education in Malawi was introduced by Western missionaries at the end of the 19th Century. The main aim of schooling was to spread the word of God. Missionaries wanted to evangelize and it was thought that if the Africans were taught to read and write the task of teaching them the new religion would be easier (Kadzamira & Kunje, 2002). Therefore, schools were started at mission sites in different parts of the country. The Anglican church of England set up schools on the eastern shore of Lake Malawi (then known as Lake Nyasa) in 1880. Many primary schools were established, along with training institutes for nurses, hospital attendants, and midwives. Roman Catholics created missions from 1889 on, when the White Fathers first established

missions. The Catholic Church discovered that schools attracted many new converts. Thus, Catholics built many schools in Malawi and won many converts in turn. By 1970, Catholics ran more than 1,000 schools, 6 teacher training colleges, several hospitals, and two leprosy clinics (Banda, 1982).

According to Banda (1982), the American based Phelps-Stokes Fund conducted a survey of education in Malawi in 1924. The outcome was recommendations for educational reform. These included greater efforts to educate females, the expansion of primary education, and improved teacher training. The pattern of education was 4-3-3, meaning that primary school students attended school for four years. If they succeeded, they attended advanced primary school for three more years. Upon successful completion of both of these levels they advanced to junior high for three additional years. The age ranges were from 5 years to 20, since many entered school late due to farm duties. In addition, although most students finished the entire sequence in 10 years, some students took much longer given home responsibilities, scarcity of funds to pay school fees, and other constraints.

By 1927, Malawi had 2,788 schools, which were staffed by 4,481 teachers, many of whom were poorly trained or even unqualified. That same year Malawi established its first Board of Education, district school committees, and later in 1930 Advisory committees were established to control educational expenditure. In 1938, educational ordinances were revised to enable the governor to decide the composition of the Advisory Committee, and influence the creation of new schools. The government was concerned about local African groups opening schools with no idea of how to pay for ongoing

maintenance, teachers' salaries, or other recurrent budget matters. Instruction was in the vernacular, as was Bible instruction, because this allowed western ideas to penetrate African society faster than was possible using English, which was foreign to many and difficult to understand. In this manner elementary arithmetic, reading, and writing spread among the African population (Banda, 1982).

After World War II, the Colonial government of Malawi determined that control over education and new rules for teaching service were important goals. By 1949, the British Colonial Office decided to reward Africans for loyal military service during World War II by offering two additional years of post-primary education. This program was designed to prepare Africans for work in the Civil Service. After 1950, the system followed a 5-3-4-2 pattern. In other words, Africans attended primary school, followed by senior primary school, then a four year secondary or high school that culminated in the Cambridge Higher School Certificate, and for a few advancements to a two year Advanced or "A" level specialized course that is comparable to Junior College. In 1963, this pattern changed to 7-5 pattern (Banda, 1982).

Curriculum Change and Development in Malawi

When Malawi became independent in 1964, it became imperative that the curriculum be reformed so that it would be relevant to the needs and challenges of an independent nation (Kabwila, 1995; Chirwa, Naidoo, & Chirwa, 2014). It became clear that the curricula inherited from the colonial government did not address the need and the challenges of the independent Malawi. The country needed agriculturalists, carpenters, engineers, social specialists, community workers, teachers, nurses and construction

workers. There was a significant discrepancy between the goals of the current curricula and the needs of the country. The country therefore launched its first Educational Plan in 1973, which was to provide guidelines for the development of the education curriculum for the independent Malawi. The plan had the following major objectives:

- a. The fulfilment of the specific needs of the labor market.
- b. The development of a school curriculum with relevance to the socio-economic and environmental needs of the country.
- c. The improvement of efficiency in the utilization of existing facilities; and
- d. The achievement of a more equitable distribution of educational facilities and resources (Kabwila, 1995).

Following the launching of its first Educational Plan in 1973, a primary curriculum review was then carried out in 1982, with the overall aim of improving the quality of education. In the 1982 curriculum, Agriculture became a common subject of instruction in both primary and secondary school. The number of subjects offered in both the primary and secondary school also increased compared to those in the colonial government's curricula (Chirwa et al., 2014).

The 1982 curriculum had to be reviewed beginning in 1987. A number of factors necessitated the review. According to Khomani (2003), one of the factors was that the 1982 curriculum was overloaded with subjects of study. There were excessive overlaps in the nature of content across subjects without any deliberate effort to integrate such content. By its design and balance, the curriculum was examination-oriented with the greatest stress on cognitive skills rather than on social or practical skills.

The introduction of the national curriculum and assessment reform in 2007 by the Ministry of Education was seen as the government's realization that change of external examination policy was an important determinant of real change in the education system and an important prerequisite for realizing the aims of education initiated after independence. This led to the Malawi government's Second Education Plan which covered the period 1985-1995 (Chirwa et al., 2014). According to Chirwa et al. (2014), the overall objective of this plan was to improve the quality of education so that it met the needs of the country. The responsibility to plan, develop and produce the revised curriculum was given to the Malawi Institute of Education. Specifically, their tasks were as follows:

- a. Design, develop, monitor, and evaluate the national education curriculum to ensure that it continued to respond to the present and future needs of the Malawi society.
- b. Assist in the training of teachers, and
- c. Provide professional help and services for teachers, i.e. arrange for the publication and production of teaching/learning materials (Malawi Institute of Education, 2008).

The Malawi Institute of Education (MIE) produced curriculum materials for the primary schools and primary teacher education for the revised curriculum in 1982. Following the introduction of the Second Education Plan, the Institute followed with plans to produce new curriculum materials as well as organize in-service education for teachers.

According to the Malawi Government (2000), the second Education Development Plan covered the period from 1985 to 1995. The plan intended to address four overall objectives:

- i. The equalization of educational opportunity,
- ii. The promotion of efficiency in the system,
- iii. The improvement of physical and human resources; and
- iv. The judicious use of limited resources.

The third Education Development Plan covered the period from 1995 to 2005. It was worked out and published in 1995 to address the challenges that the Education sector faced with the introduction of various reforms including the Free Primary Education. This PIF was revised between 1997 and 2000 to make it more comprehensive, more focused and analytical in terms of priorities and budgetary planning mechanisms (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2001).

According to the Malawi Government (2002), the revision took into account all reforms that had taken place at all levels of education. For example, at the primary level, Free Primary Education was introduced. At the secondary level, Distance Education Centers (DECs) were changed into Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSSs). At tertiary and higher education was the revision of the teacher training program to address the high demand and high attrition rates at Primary and Secondary levels, and the new Mzuzu University was established.

The Ministry of Education and the Malawi National Commission for UNESCO (2004) also pointed to the fact that according to the new constitution of the Republic of

Malawi, the state was supposed to actively promote the welfare and development of the people of Malawi by progressively adopting and implementing policies and legislation aimed at achieving various goals in the education sector. The goals included among others:

- i. To eliminate illiteracy in Malawi,
- ii. To make primary education compulsory and free to all citizens of Malawi,
- iii. To offer greater access to higher learning and continuing education; and
- iv. To promote national goals such as unity in the elimination of political, religious, racial, and ethnic intolerance.

According to Kadzamira and Rose (2001), the main thrust of the educational reform introduced since 1994, had been to expand access to primary education by reducing household direct costs of education, and to make it more relevant. The main objective of the secondary school reforms was to increase access and improve quality. Therefore, the major reforms that had been introduced since 1994 included the following:

- a. The introduction of fee-free primary education in 1994.
- b. Elimination of the requirements for school uniforms.
- c. Using vernacular language as the medium of instruction in standards 1-4.
- d. The introduction of school fees waivers for girls in secondary schools in 1995.
- e. The unification of the secondary school system through the merging of conventional secondary schools and Distance Education Centers (DEC) into one system.

Kadzamira and Rose (2001) also observed that previously, education policies were designed in such a way that the needs of the disadvantaged groups were not addressed. However, there had been a move in recent times to design educational policies to meet the needs of various sub-groups. While girls received attention in the formulation of policy, this was, to a large extent, a donor driven agenda. Special needs students, street children, out of school youth, orphans, and children from poorest households were, however, rarely directly addressed by the past and present policies.

The Introduction of Free Primary Education

Kadzamira and Rose (2001) noted that the new government that came to power in 1994 embarked on an ambitious program of free primary education (FPE). Free Primary Education was introduced in 1994. The FPE was both a response by the newly elected government to the popular demand for education, and was also perceived as one of the major instruments for a more egalitarian society, for expanding and modernizing the economy, and as an essential element in the development process (Chimombo, 1999). The Malawi Government (2000) believed that the introduction of FPE was partly a response to the Education for All (EFA) policy whose ratification and reaffirmation were made at the Jomtien-Thailand (1990), and Dakar-Senegal (2000) conferences.

The main objectives of Free Primary Education were to increase access eliminate inequalities in participation between groups, and sensitize the community to the importance of education. Under the FPE initiative, the government promised to undertake the following:

- a. Assume the financing of unassisted primary schools by merging them with government-assisted schools. Unassisted schools were usually junior schools established by the community, covering standard 1-4, which did not qualify for full government support previously. The unassisted schools were usually placed in very poor communities and the communities were supposed to pay the teachers and also supply all teaching and learning materials. The challenge of this policy was that many of these unassisted schools would close before the end of the academic year due to lack of money to pay teachers' salaries.
- b. Be responsible for the provision of classrooms, furniture, teacher houses, sanitation facilities, and boreholes.
- c. Abolish all forms of tuition fees.
- d. Introduce community schools.
- e. Encourage the participation of girls in primary education (Ministry of Education, 1998).

It must be appreciated that since FPE arose from a political agenda and was implemented to fulfill an electoral pledge, a systematic analysis of the education sector was not undertaken beforehand to assess the impact of the policy and develop strategies that would be financially sustainable (Kadzamira & Rose, 2001). Chimombo (1999) noted that FPE was not based on a proper understanding of the forces behind school participation, which are embedded in the socio-political and economic settings in which the school operates.

Kadzamira and Rose (2001) noted that the financial implications of implementing FPE were considerable and, although government and donor resources increased substantially in response to FPE, they were inadequate to ensure primary schooling of acceptable quality for all. For example, the Free Primary Education led to a dramatic increase in primary school attendance, causing overcrowding in many schools that also contributed to the decline of education standards. Despite these challenges, the government made efforts to fix them. For instance, in 1996, the International Development Association granted Malawi \$22 million to train 20,000 new teachers to handle all the new students who were crowding the schools. In 1997, the African Development Bank also earmarked money for the construction of new primary and secondary schools (State University, 2016). Kadzamira and Rose (2001) argued that in theory, the government was supposed to be responsible for all costs of primary education under FPE, including instructional materials, school construction etc., implying an entirely free system on the part of the parents. In practice, however, the government had been unable to meet its obligations and parents still had to meet a substantial portion of the costs of education.

According to Bernbaum et al. (1999), donors provided much needed financial support to sustain FPE through construction of classrooms and schools, provision of teaching and learning materials and training of teachers. However, at that time there were fears that if one or two donors to education decided to pull out, then primary education would collapse.

With the introduction of FPE, there were a number of other developments that took place. For instance, requirements for school uniforms were eliminated, and school fee waivers for girls in secondary schools were also introduced (Kadzamira & Rose, 2001). This increased enrollment of students (Chirwa et al., 2014). Nevertheless, there was congestion in the few classrooms that were built and there was a problem of teacher scarcity. As such, facilities and staffing did not meet the new demands of the system (Ng'ambi, 2011).

Wamba and Mgonezulu (2014) also noted that all fees were waived in all government schools, which meant that no child, especially from poor families would be denied access to primary education. Strangely, however, even after primary schools received \$500 and \$1,000 from the government under the Direct Support to Schools (DSS) to get teaching and learning materials, schools collected funds from parents for learning materials and other operational expenses, while the government was mainly responsible for the salaries of teachers. This was a direct contradiction of Free Primary Education policy (The World Bank, 2010).

The education policy formulation in Malawi does not have the tradition of consulting with stakeholders, including teachers, parents, communities, local leaders and non-governmental organizations (NGO). Kadzamira and Rose (2001) noted that since FPE was the result of a political agenda, there was little consultation with stakeholders on what form the FPE should take. The users of the policy such as the district education officers, schools, teachers, parents and pupils, have been passive recipients of pre-packaged solutions proposed to them by a distant agency (Chimombo, 1999).

In the study that Kadzamira and Rose (2001) conducted in Malawi, they opined that despite the introduction of Free Primary School and the abolition of school fees, schooling was not free and the cost of schooling continued to be the main reason for children not being in school. They argued that primary schooling for all could not be attained if other important needs were not addressed. Poverty at the household level which leads to lack of food, poor health, lack of clothes, and lack of money to buy school essentials, continues to be important causes of high dropout in the primary school system, even in the FPE era.

Kadzamira and Rose (2001) further asserted that while it was evident that the Free Primary Education (FPE) had increased enrollment in primary schools, the country still offers poor quality of education, particularly at the lower level to which the poor have most access. This means that the achievement of poverty alleviation goals through education is uncertain.

The Malawian Education Sector

The education sector is divided into six administrative education divisions with 34 education districts. English is the official language used for communication in business and commerce, and it is also used as the language of instruction in all levels of education except in Standards 1 to 4 of primary schooling. English is taught as a subject in all Standards (Ministry of Education and the Malawi National Commission for UNESCO, 2004). According to Chiwaula (2008), the education system consists of eight years of primary school, four years of secondary school, and four years of university education (8-

4-4). Currently, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) oversees all levels of education in Malawi.

The Primary Sub-Sector

The official entry age into primary school is six. However, very few children enter primary school at that age, and a significant number of primary school students are over that age. This is due to long distance travel and lack of appropriate clothing and food in the morning that would keep them going while at school. At the end of their primary education, students take the Primary School Leaving Certificate Examination (PSLE), which determines their eligibility for entry into secondary school (Holkamp, 2009).

The Secondary Sub-Sector

Secondary school education lasts four years. It consists of two cycles-junior (Forms one and two) and senior (Forms three and four) with national examinations after each cycle. Currently, the secondary schools can only absorb 30% of the eligible primary school leavers. University absorbs only about 4% of the eligible secondary school graduates (Holkamp, 2009).

Public school secondary students attend either Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSSs, previously MCDE) or Conventional Secondary Schools (CSSs). At the end of two years of secondary education, pupils take the national Junior Certificate of Secondary Education (JCE), which is followed by the Malawi School Certificate Examination (MSCE) two years later (The World Bank, 2010).

The Tertiary Sub-Sector

Tertiary education is provided by an array of educational institutions, including primary and secondary teacher training colleges, technical and vocational training schools, and university colleges. For university entrance and for the secondary teacher training college, an MSCE certificate is required. Primary, secondary, teacher, and higher education levels fall under the authority of the Ministry of Education Science and Technology (The World Bank, 2010).

Education Quality

Despite improvements being made in the education sector, the education in Malawi is of poor quality. The World Bank (2010) observed that Malawi was offering poor and even deteriorating education quality in primary schools. The number of children who reached a minimum level of mastery in English reading was cut in half in the period from 1998–2004, and in 2004 was barely 9%. The decline might have been partly explained by the 1994 Fee Free primary policy, which led to an increase of lower performing students in the system.

Chimombo, Kunje, Chimuzu, and Mchikoma (2005) discovered in a sample of 59 schools that the schools were under-staffed, under-resourced, and overcrowded. Curriculum materials, including textbooks and teaching manuals, were in short supply. As of 2008, as many as one quarter of interviewed teachers had not completed secondary school, leaving them short of the recommended academic qualifications. Women were severely underrepresented in the teaching force, with 68% of schools in the study reporting one quarter or fewer of their teachers as female in 2007; 21% of schools had no

female teachers at all. This left a vast proportion of girls without female role models. In light of these conditions, it is perhaps not surprising that schooling in Malawi is poor.

A Brief History of the Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB)

In 1969, the Malawi parliament enacted a law that created the Malawi Certificate Examination Board (MCE Board). This Board was charged with the responsibility of developing and administering the Malawi Certificate of Education (MCE) examination in conjunction with the Associated Examining Board (AEB) of the UK. The first such examination was administered in 1972. Prior to 1972, school leavers in Malawi were taking the Cambridge Overseas School Leaving Examination from the UK (Chakwera, Khembo & Sireci, 2004). Seven years later, the MCE Board became the Malawi Certificate Examinations and Testing Board (MCE and TB). The Malawi Certificate of Education and Testing Board continued to administer the MCE examinations with the AEB until 1989 when the handover was completed (Chakwera et al., 2004).

Following an evaluation of examinations in Malawi in 1984, the decision was made to have all public examinations should be developed and administered by one central authority. Consequently, in 1987, parliament approved legislation merging the examinations section of the Ministry of Education with the MCE and TB, thus forming the Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB), which currently operates the major educational testing programs in Malawi. In addition, MANEB took over the responsibility of developing and administering Teacher Certificate Examinations and Craft Examinations for technical schools (Chakwera et al., 2004). MANEB develops and administers three major national school examinations: Primary School Leaving

Certificate Examinations (PSLCE), Junior Certificate Examinations (JCE), and Malawi School Certificate Examinations (MSCE).

Major National School Examinations in Malawi

The Primary School Leaving Certificate Examinations (PSLCE)

The first exam, PSLCE, terminates the primary cycle. Its results are used for certification and selection into Form 1 of the secondary education. The results are reported in letter grades A-F, where A denotes excellent performance and F indicates failure. Five subjects are offered at this level. These are English, Mathematics, Primary Science, Chichewa (a local language), and Social Studies. For selection purposes, students are ranked within their districts. Each district is allocated a certain number of Form 1 places in national secondary schools. The district quota depends on the proportion of candidates in the district in relation to the national total. The remaining candidates are considered for places in District Secondary Schools and Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSSs). At each selection level, boys and girls are considered separately to ensure gender equity (i.e., within-group norming). A single merit list would result in boys getting a disproportionate number of secondary school places, since they generally perform better than girls (Chakwera et al., 2004). For many people, the certification aspect of the PSLCE is not as important as its selection function, because the certificate can no longer be used for employment purposes as is the case with MSCE. Therefore, the pupils are under pressure to perform well enough to be selected into secondary education.

The Junior Certificate Examinations (JCE)

The JCE was previously administered after two years of secondary education. Originally this examination was meant to assess skills and knowledge leading to gainful employment and further education in senior secondary school. Twenty-two subjects are offered for this examination. Candidates must pass at least six of them including English to qualify for a certificate and proceed to Form 3; 11th grade (Chakwera et al., 2004). However, as part of the ongoing Public Service Reforms, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology announced its decision to abolish the Junior Certificate of Education (JCE) examination in order to promote the practice of continuous assessment in secondary schools. In addition, this would enable the schools to thoroughly cover the curriculum as opposed to the current practice, which is examination oriented (Kapulula, 2015).

The Malawi School Certificate Examinations (MSCE)

The Malawi School Certificate Examinations (MSCE) is equivalent to a High School Diploma in the US and is administered at the end of secondary education. The examination results are used for certification (i.e., certifying successful completion of secondary education) and selection into the university and other tertiary institutions. A total of 21 subjects are offered at this level. Each subject is graded on a nine-point scale using the following standards: Grades 1-2 for distinction; 3-6 for credit; 7-8 for general pass; and 9 for fail (Chakwera et al., 2004).

To qualify for a certificate a candidate must pass any combination of six subjects including English, and one of the grades must at least be a credit pass. An MSCE

certificate can also be awarded if a candidate passes five subjects including English, three of which are at least credit passes. The grading process for the MSCE makes the following assumptions: The examinations are equivalent across years in terms of difficulty level, content covered, and skills examined. The test administration conditions are uniform from year to year; and the student cohorts taking the examination each year are randomly equivalent (Chakwera et al., 2004).

For candidates to be considered for selection into the university, they must have earned credit or distinction on at least six exams, one of which must be English. A pass with at least a credit grade in English ensures that the candidates have adequate communication skills to fully participate in college lectures. Currently, the University of Malawi admits only 0.3% of the secondary school leavers, which illustrates the stiff competition. In addition, the MSCE certificate has become the minimum qualification for gainful employment. Because of these two functions – selection and certification – there is a lot of pressure on the students to pass the examination, making it extremely high-stakes (Chakwera et al., 2004).

The stakes associated with the PSLCE and the MSCE in Malawi are much higher. Chakwera et al. (2004) observed that students who do not pass the PSLCE do not even make it into secondary school. Even for those who do pass, there are limited spaces in the national secondary schools and CDSSs. In 2003, for example, only about 5% of primary school students were placed into the coveted national secondary schools and only 20% more were placed into the lower quality Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSSs). Most of the other 75% of students would never have the opportunity to pass the JCE and

MSCE and be able to compete for the best jobs in Malawi. For many Malawians, passing the JCE and the MSCE makes the difference between a life of self-sufficiency and a life of poverty. Passing the MSCE makes numerous career options possible that cannot be attained through other routes. For example, the national government requires an MSCE certificate for civil service employment. They argued, therefore, that high-stakes testing has a more pronounced meaning in Malawi. The national educational tests are the sole criteria for academic certification and the stakes associated with the tests mean starvation or prosperity for the students.



Figure 2: Political Map of Malawi. Reprinted from Malawi, retrieved from <http://www.mapsofworld.com> Copyright 2015 by Maps of the World.

Summary

The chapter has looked at the theoretical frameworks underpinning this study, the origin of public examinations, and issues pertaining to examination malpractice such as causes, forms, and effects. The chapter also provided background information about Malawi, including aspects of the education system, and a brief history of the Malawi National Examinations Board together with the three major national examinations that are administered in Malawi. Next is Chapter 3, which will present a discussion of methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This section discusses the methods used in the study to collect data and specifically the research design employed, the target population, sample size and sampling procedure, data collection procedures and data analysis methods as well as the instruments used to collect data.

World-Views and Paradigms of Social Science Research

Researchers make different assumptions about the nature of the social world of education and about the nature of knowledge, and these assumptions influence the type of research individuals can conduct. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) noted that, for more than a century, the advocates of quantitative and qualitative research paradigms have emerged in ardent dispute. On one hand are quantitative purists. Quantitative purists articulate assumptions consistent with what is commonly called a positivist philosophy or positivism (Maxwell & Delaney, 2004). Quantitative purists believe that schools, classrooms, teachers, and students exist independent of the researcher and that they are available for study in an objective and unbiased manner (Arends, 2004). According to Bryman and Bell (2007), in quantitative research there is generalization; the researcher is usually able to say that his or her findings can be generalized beyond the confines of a particular context in which the research was conducted. Thus, if a study about examination malpractices is carried out via a questionnaire with a number of people who

answer the questions, we want to say that the results can apply to individuals other than those who responded in the study.

On the other hand are qualitative purists who subscribe to constructivism (Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Schwandt, 2000). Researchers who subscribe to this perspective believe that the social world does not exist independently but is instead constructed by the participants of the study as well as the researcher. Constructivists are more likely to conduct qualitative research, an approach that relies on holistic observations. These researchers report data in narrative rather than quantitative form, and conduct the whole research process in a more personalized and interpretive fashion (Arends, 2004).

Because of the differences between quantitative and qualitative methods, researchers tend to complement one method with another. They tend to use mixed methods. They argue that taking a non-purist or mixed position allows researchers to mix and match design components that offer the best chance of answering their specific research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). For this reason, a mixed methods approach was used in the present study.

Research Design

Approach

The study used mixed methods design, surveys to collect quantitative data and focus groups to collect qualitative data. The study is descriptive in nature and was carried out in Malawi's South East Education Division, one of six education divisions in Malawi.

Research Setting

Due to financial and time constraints, the study was carried out not in all six educational divisions, but in only one, the South East Education Division (SEED). SEED comprises five districts, Zomba City, Zomba Rural, Machinga, Balaka and Mangochi. The other divisions include: Central Eastern, Central Western, Northern, Shire Highlands, and Southern Western Education Divisions. While the Northern Education Division has eight districts, Central Western, and Southern Western Education Divisions have six districts each; Central Eastern, and Southern Eastern Educational Divisions have five districts each. Shire Highlands Education Division has four districts. The number of schools, and trained secondary school teachers in these educational divisions also differ. For example, Northern Education Division (NED) has 279 schools, and 1,199 teachers; Central Eastern Education Division (CEED) has 143 schools, and 767 teachers; Central Western Education Division (CWED) has 204 schools, and 1,193 teachers; Southern Eastern Education Division (SEED) has 140 schools, and 976 teachers; South Western Education Division (SWED) has 133 schools, and 933 teachers, and Shire Highlands Education Division (SHED) has 116 schools, and 589 trained secondary school teachers (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2014). For this reason, this study took the form of a case study whose findings could be generalized to the other five divisions.

Participants

Participants in this study were secondary school teachers and students. The research involved students and teachers from SEED. The researcher intended to involve 140 students and 60 teachers from the selected ten secondary schools in the division.

Only those students who were 18 years old and above were allowed to participate in the study. Participants included both male and female teachers and students. Students who participated in this study were those who were classified as seniors at the time of collecting data.

Sampling Strategy

The study used stratified random sampling to select the ten schools out of 110 public secondary schools. The list of the schools was sought from the Education Division Manager. First, it involved the division of the secondary schools into two homogenous subgroups, depending on their geographic location: (a) urban/city schools, and rural schools. Second, numerically equal random samples were drawn from each subgroup, which consisted of 10 schools in each subgroup. Third, samples from both subgroups were combined in a single sample to form the target population, which consisted of ten schools. From the ten selected schools, it was envisaged that each school would contribute 14 students and six teachers as participants in this study. However, as the study progressed some schools had more students who participated than originally planned. This was because in some schools not many students volunteered to participate. To reach the targeted number of participants, the questionnaires were then distributed to those schools whose students were more willing to participate. In total, 141 students and 59 teachers agreed to participate in the study.

Motivation to use Stratified Random Sampling

The researcher chose to use stratified random sampling for many reasons. One of the reasons was that the researcher wanted to investigate geographical factors because

geography is perceived as one of the factors that can help researchers examine differences within strata. Because the target population came from schools situated in different geographical areas, the researcher anticipated that the location of the schools (urban/city and rural zones) might affect the variables and bring in relevant information to answer the research questions. According to Pyrczak (2008), the stratified sampling technique helps to minimize the variability within each subgroup and maximize the differences between subgroups. The researcher also wanted to reach a balanced representation of participants. According to Cesar and Carvalho (2011), the stratified random sampling technique helps to reach this balanced representation of participants by spreading participation evenly over the population. As compared to simple random sampling, stratified random sampling reduces variability within subgroups and provides a highly representative sample, which gives more confidence that the investigator can reach reliable and valid results.

Recruitment of Participants

To recruit participants for this study, the researcher first asked permission from the Education Division Manager to allow him to go into the schools and administer the survey. Upon reaching the schools, the researcher first introduced himself to the school principals, explained his reason for the visit and showed them the letter from the Education Division Manager as proof of permission to conduct the study in the schools.

At the schools, the researcher asked for a room to be used to recruit participants for this study. The researcher called in individual students who would pass by the room that was reserved for recruitment to ask them about their age to make sure that only

qualified students who were 18 years old or above took part in the study. If qualified, the researcher explained the purpose of the study and inquired as their interest in participating in the study. If they accepted, the researcher provided a consent form to read and sign to show that they had voluntarily and willingly accepted to participate. Those who consented to participate completed the study's questionnaires. The researcher used the same process when recruiting teachers with the exception of requesting about their age since teachers are all older than 18 years of age.

Materials

Survey. Data collection for this study took the form of a Likert-type survey designed by the researcher. The survey was titled *Secondary Schools Examination Malpractices Questionnaire* and there was one for the teachers and another one for the students. The questionnaires were adapted from a combination of survey items previously used to investigate causes and forms of cheating in examinations by students from four different studies by various researchers (Adeyemi, 2010; Achio et al., 2012; Akaranga & Ongong, 2013; Petters & Okon, 2014), since one solid instrument could not be found. The items in the questionnaires were tested for content validity and reliability by means of a pilot study in one of the schools that would not be included in the sample. In addition, Cronbach's alpha was run on the collected data to make sure that it did not simply measure the unidimensionality of a set of items, but to also confirm whether or not a sample of items was actually unidimensional (Cortina, 1993).

The questionnaires consisted of three parts. Part 1 had two sections. Section A required respondents to indicate their level of agreement with the statements provided

related to possible causes of examination malpractices in public examinations in the schools. Section B required respondents to rank the importance of each cause of examination malpractice. The anonymous self-report survey was assessed by a twenty-four-item Likert scale aimed at examining causes of examination malpractices. Response options were presented in a five-point format for Section A: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neutral, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree, and for Part B, 1= not important at all to address cheating, 2= somewhat unimportant to address cheating, 3= neutral, 4= somewhat important to address cheating, and 5= most important to address cheating.

Examples of statements under Causes of Examination Malpractice include the following:

- a. General indiscipline among students in the schools.
- b. Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators.
- c. Insufficient preparation for the examinations among many students.
- d. Sexual favors.
- e. Desire among students to pass the examinations at all costs.

Similarly, Part 2 of the questionnaire sought information about the different methods of cheating and devices employed in examination malpractice in schools. Section A required respondents to indicate the level of seriousness they attach to the various methods of cheating. Section B required respondents to rank how common or uncommon they believe each method of examination malpractice is. The survey was organized around a sixteen-item Likert scale whose response options were presented in a five-point format ranging from 1 = definitely not serious, 2 = moderate serious, 3 =

neutral, 4 = somewhat serious, to 5 = definitely serious in Section A. Section B asked participants to indicate 1= not common at all, 2= rarely common behavior, 3= neutral, 4= common, and 5= very common. The following were examples of statements about specific methods of examination malpractice:

- a. Bringing prepared answers to the examination halls.
- b. School authorities colluding or conniving with invigilators to assist students to cheat.
- c. Answers being written on body parts.
- d. Copying answers directly from textbooks.
- e. Hiring other people to write the examinations or impersonation.

Part 3, sought demographic data, such as the location of the school, whether the school was located in an urban, semi-urban or rural setting, the respondents grade level (in case of students), the respondents' years of teaching service (in case of teachers), age, and gender.

Self-report questionnaires were deemed useful in this study because, according to Bryman and Bell (2007), they are quick to administer and, do not suffer from the problem of an interviewer asking questions in a different order or in different ways. Self-report questionnaires are also more convenient for the respondents because they can complete a questionnaire when they want and at the speed they want to go. Additionally, they noted that questionnaires are ideal for sensitive issues like examination malpractice, which requires confidentiality and anonymity for respondents.

Focus Group

In addition to questionnaires, the study collected data via focus groups: two for the students and another two for the teachers. Two schools were represented, one urban school and one rural school from a pool of 10 selected schools. For each school, teacher and student focus group discussions were done separately. The researcher envisaged having ten members in each of the two student focus groups; however, due to unforeseen circumstances, only six students participated in each of the focus groups. Two teachers' focus groups had five members each. Participants in all four focus groups were students and teachers who earlier on had completed the questionnaires. The researcher recorded the discussions and took notes.

Below are examples of questions that were asked during focus group discussions both for the teachers and students:

- Is cheating during examinations a problem?
- Why do students cheat?
- What ways do they use when cheating?
- How can cheating be eradicated at:
 - a. The school level?
 - b. The national level?

Data Analysis

The analysis of the data was done at three levels. First, quantitative data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Second, qualitative

data was analyzed by coding themes and variables. Third, the analysis involved the synthesis and triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data.

Quantitative Data

Quantitative data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0 to conduct descriptive analyses of the data, including frequencies, percentages, standard deviations, means, and to run Independent t-test. In addition to using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), quantitative data was also analyzed using the Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) to determine the severity of the causes and methods of cheating and identify which ones needed urgent attention. Second, qualitative data was analyzed to determine major themes. Finally, a synthesis and triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data was performed.

Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA)

According to Phadermrod, Crowder, and Wills (2016), Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) is a technique for analyzing customer satisfaction towards an organization's product or service as proposed by Martilla and James (1977). Since customer satisfaction is a function of customer perceptions, it involves the quality of the organization's product or service and customer expectations. Therefore, IPA measures customer satisfaction surveys based on two components of product or service attributes: the importance of a product or service to a customer and the performance of the organization in providing that product or service (Martilla & James, 1977).

The use of Importance-Performance Analysis involves five steps:

- a. Developing a workable list of attributes.

- b. Developing a survey instrument.
- c. Conducting a survey using the attributable list developed in step one. A Likert scale is used to rate each attribute twice, first in terms of importance and then in terms of performance.
- d. Analyzing data using statistics to estimate the importance and performance of each of the attributes.
- e. Constructing a two dimensional “action grid” displaying importance on the vertical axis and performance on the horizontal axis. The “action grid” is illustrated in Figure 3 (Alberty & Mihalik, 1989).

The intersection of these two components creates a two-dimensional matrix where the importance is shown by the x-axis and the performance is shown by the y-axis. Depending on cell location, the attributes related to an organization’s product or service are considered as major or minor strengths and weaknesses (Martilla & James, 1977; Silva & Fernandes, 2012). The traditional matrix has four quadrants explained in the following sections.

Quadrant A (Upper Left Quadrant)

Attributes falling into this quadrant are perceived to be important. They are also perceived as being performed poorly. The indication is that effort needs to be put forth to improve performance on attributes falling into this section. This quadrant is labeled *Concentrate Here* (Alberty & Mihalik, 1989). In my grid, for causes of examination malpractice, the upper left quadrant represents *common but not important causes to address cheating* (y-axis) against *importance to address cheating* (x-axis). For methods

of cheating, this represents *serious but not frequent methods of cheating* (y-axis) against *frequency of cheating* (x-axis).

Quadrant B (Upper Right Quadrant)

Attributes falling into this quadrant are rated both important and performed proficiently. The interpretation is that a good job is being done. This quadrant is labeled *Keep Up the Good Work* (Alberty & Mihalik, 1989). In my grid, for causes of examination malpractice, the upper right quadrant represents *most important causes to address cheating* (y-axis) against *importance to address cheating* (x-axis). For methods of cheating, this represents *most serious and most frequent methods of cheating* (y-axis) against *frequency of cheating* (x-axis).

Quadrant C (Lower Left Quadrant)

Attributes in this quadrant are those rated low in both importance and performance. This indicates that effort should not be put forth to improve the performance rating since the attributes are seen as unimportant. This quadrant is labeled *Low Priority* (Alberty & Mihalik, 1989). In my grid, for causes of examination malpractice, the lower left quadrant represents *not common and not important causes to address cheating* (y-axis) against *importance to address cheating* (x-axis). For methods of cheating, this represents *not frequent or as serious methods of cheating* (y-axis) against *frequency of cheating* (x-axis).

Quadrant D (Lower Right Quadrant)

Attributes falling into this quadrant are rated as being low in importance, but high in performance. Since these attributes are seen as being low in importance the

interpretation is that too much effort may be being expended. This quadrant is labeled *Possible Overkill* (Alberty & Mihalik, 1989). The quadrants are illustrated in Figure 3 below. In my grid, for causes of examination malpractice, the lower right quadrant represents *not common but important causes to address cheating* (y-axis) against *importance to address cheating* (x-axis). For methods of cheating, this represents *frequent but not serious as other methods of cheating* (y-axis) against *frequency of cheating* (x-axis).



*Figure 3: The original IPA framework. Reprinted from “The Use of Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) in Evaluating Japan's E-government Services,” by M. Seng Wong, N. Hideki, and P. George, 2011, *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research*, 6(2), 17-30. Copyright 2011 by Universidad de Talca – Chile.*

IPA provides a useful and easily understandable guide for identifying the most crucial product or service attributes in terms of their need for managerial action, it is a means to develop successful marketing programs to achieve advantage over competitors (Abalo, Varela, & Manzano, 2007). For these reasons, the same evaluation was used to

determine which causes and methods of examination malpractice needed to be addressed urgently. IPA, therefore, provided an attractive snapshot of the causes and methods of examination malpractice that will need to be addressed immediately.

Qualitative Data Analyses

Analysis of qualitative data was done using the constant comparative method which was used by the researcher to develop concepts from the data by coding and analyzing at the same time (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998). The analysis of the transcriptions was done in three stages. First, open coding was done, which involved the researcher reading the transcriptions line by line (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). At this stage, the researcher read the transcripts line by line to name and categorize discrete elements in the data, labeling important words and phrases in the transcribed data.

The second stage is called axial coding. During this stage, the researcher organizes the concepts into categories (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). To do this, the researcher wanted to see what kinds of things the participants mentioned many times. In other words, the researcher identified themes that appeared across the discussions. The researcher also looked for possible relationships among the categories in the data. According to Johnson and Christensen (2012), the goal here is to show how the phenomenon operates. Therefore, for this study, the goal was to show how the phenomenon of examination malpractice operates. The researcher was able, therefore, to find out how the phenomenon was manifested and what brought about the phenomenon.

Third, selective coding was done. According to Johnson and Christensen (2012), this is the stage of data analysis in which the researcher puts the finishing touches on the

analysis. During this stage, the researcher looked for the storyline of the data. In other words, the researcher looked for the main ideas by reflecting on the data and the results that had been produced during open and axial coding.

The researcher also did member checking to verify the contents of the transcriptions to ensure that they accurately captured what was said during the discussions. To do this, the researcher invited two students and two teachers to read the transcriptions. Lastly, the researcher triangulated both the quantitative and qualitative results to see the connections.

Confidentiality and Privacy

It should be noted that ethical concerns will emerge as one plans a research study, seeks access to organizations and to individuals, and collects analyzes and reports the data. In the context of research, Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) defined ethics as the appropriateness of one's behavior in relation to the rights of those who will become the subject of one's research, or those who are affected by it. In educational research and other social science research, it is necessary to consider the ethics of the project to ensure that the interests and the well-being of the research participants are protected and that no one is harmed as a result of research being done (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). Lankshear and Knobel (2004) noted that harm can range from people experiencing affronts to their dignity and being hurt by conclusions that are drawn about them all the way through to having their reputations or credibility undermined publicly. Ethnographers could harm the individuals or groups they study when research participants experience anxiety,

stress, guilt and damage to self-esteem during data collection and interpretations made from the data they provide.

Further expanding on these concerns, Patton (2002) noted that in interviews, informants may feel embarrassed about the opinions they hold because they do not hold opinions the interviewer expects them to have. To avoid the probable fear of embarrassing the participants in this study, the researcher made sure that participants took part in the study on their own volition without force of any kind. They also had the right to withdraw from the study at any time. Participants were also reassured that they would be able to answer most of the questions that the study was addressing without their input judged as inadequate. In addition, the fact that respondents were not known by their names meant that their contribution to the study would not betray their identities. The rationale behind providing clear instructions and assuring confidentiality of information was based on the fact that this significantly reduces the likelihood of conducting biased analysis (Sekaran, 2003).

According to Valerie and Ritter (2007), while confidentiality refers to information and/or data about an individual, and it means non-disclosure or divulgence of identifiable private information, privacy relates to individual participants themselves, a person's desire to control others' access to themselves and the extent to which they want their personality to be shared be it physically, intellectually, or behaviorally. Therefore, confidentiality and anonymity was ensured throughout the execution of this study as participants were not required to disclose personal information on the questionnaire. Provisions were made to have participants' concerns relating to the study addressed and

misconceptions corrected. Participants were informed that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any given time if they wished to do so.

Furthermore, the ethical assessment of project procedures took into account the personal and revealing nature of the study, which required that voluntary and informed consent, using the consent form designed for this study needed to be obtained from the participants. Prior to administering the questionnaires, the aims and objectives of the study were clearly explained first to the Education Division Manager to be able to understand the study and grant the permission to go into schools to conduct the research, and then to the participants. Written informed consent was obtained from each of the students and teachers who volunteered to participate in the study.

In addition to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval and participants' informed consent to take part in the research, the researcher ensured that the participants understood that their confidentiality, anonymity, and privacy would be guaranteed. As the research used only a written questionnaire with close-ended questions, there was no qualitative information that would bring in participants' quotes and pseudonyms. Therefore, information that could identify them was kept confidential. The data analysis from the questionnaires was exclusively numerical and mathematical.

The information and data from the participants was exclusively used for the research purpose they were intended for. There was no evaluative aspect of the study. Neither did the researcher share the data from the respondents with any institution whatsoever for any reason apart from the University of Northern Iowa for academic

purposes. The questionnaires and other related materials used in this study will be destroyed and deleted after the publication of the research results, as suggested by Fernandez, Kadish, and Weiler (2003). To maximize the security of the documents, I ensured that they were stored in a locked location. For computerized data, I ensured that I use a password to protect the data and to avoid any tampering by any other person.

Another ethical consideration in the study was the issue of reciprocity. The goodwill and generosity of research participants can be reciprocated with favors and commitments on the part of the researcher. This approach has been recommended because it demonstrates the researcher honoring the contributions of the participants rather than taking it for granted and actively seeking to give something back in return for what has been requested (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004). However, Patton (2002) argued that the issue of whether or not to compensate research participants in cash or kind as a means of reciprocity is controversial because compensation can affect the level and quality of data. In this study, the researcher did not give monetary compensation as a way of getting favors.

Reliability and Validity of the Research Design

It must be appreciated that reliability and validity are two factors a researcher needs to worry about when conducting research. Patton (2002) stated that validity and reliability are two factors any qualitative researcher should be concerned about while designing a study, analyzing results, and judging the quality of the study. These are the factors that determine the trustworthiness, meaningfulness, and appropriateness of any results obtained in a study. For this reason, even though it is not easy to fully control both

factors, researchers are advised to be aware of them and to try as much as possible to minimize the errors and biases that might impact the results. In the next section, the researcher will briefly describe each concept and its possible related components. The researcher will also explain how it was planned to mitigate the bias and error that could affect the study.

Reliability

Although the term reliability is a concept used for testing or evaluating quantitative research, the idea is most often used in all kinds of research. Drost, (2011) argued that in order to understand the functioning of a test, it is important that the test that is used consistently discriminates individuals at one time or over a course of time. Drost, therefore, defined reliability as the extent to which measurements are repeatable – when different persons perform the measurements, on different occasions, under different conditions, with supposedly alternative instruments that measure the same thing. Bollen (1989) defined reliability simply as consistency of measurement. Nunnally (1978) described reliability as a stability of measurement over a variety of conditions in which basically the same results should be obtained. Reliability is a concept used to evaluate quality in quantitative study by helping to explain how the qualitative study fulfills its purpose of generating understanding (Stenbacka, 2001).

According to Brace (2008), there are two types of reliability, namely external and internal reliability. The external reliability is about repeatability of the results by using the same measure. Brace argued that by using the same instrument the study should give the same results. Various strategies are used to check external reliability, such as the test-

retest method whereby the study is administered to the same population at two different times; and inter-rater reliability, i.e. having another independent researcher using the same research measure do the research and then compare the closeness or discrepancy of results in both cases. For this study, the internal reliability was tested by using the Cronbach's coefficient alpha to compute the values for each item to measure the variables included in the research questions. Cronbach's alpha is an average of all the possible split-half reliability estimates of an instrument (Gregory, 1996; Henson, 2001). It is a reliability coefficient that measures inter-item reliability or the degree of internal consistency or homogeneity between variables measuring one construct or concept, i.e. the degree to which different items measuring the same variable attain consistent results (Henson, 2001).

Validity

According to Drost (2011), validity is concerned with the meaningfulness of research components so that when researchers measure behaviors, they are measuring what they intended to measure. It refers to the extent to which an instrument accurately measures the construct it is set out to investigate. Internal validity examines whether the questionnaire items will really give results matching the outcomes the researcher expects to get from the study (Learning Resources Center, 2002). To ensure validity for this study, the researcher decided first to pilot the questionnaires to eliminate any potential ambiguities in the questions.

Controlling Research Biases

Selection and Sampling Biases

According to Pannucci and Wilkins (2011), bias is defined as any tendency which prevents unprejudiced consideration of a question. They argued that in research, bias occurs when systematic error (s) is introduced into sampling or testing by selecting or encouraging one outcome or answer over others. They noted that bias can occur at any phase of research, including study design or data collection, as well as in the process of data analysis and publication.

Pannucci and Wilkins (2011) further observed that unlike random error, which results from sampling variability and which decreases as sample size increases, bias is independent of both sample size and statistical significance. Bias can cause estimates of association to be either larger or smaller than the true association. In extreme cases, bias can cause a perceived association which is directly opposite of the true association.

Sica (2006) asserted that bias is a form of systematic error that can affect scientific investigations and distort the measurement process and that a biased study loses validity in relation to the degree of the bias. However, it is difficult or even impossible to completely eliminate bias.

According to Alreck and Settle (1995), selection and sampling bias occur when participants included in the study do not have all characteristics of the entire population being studied. For example, there is under-coverage bias when some members of the population are inadequately represented in the sample. Selection bias may occur during identification of the study population. When a study population is identified, selection

bias occurs when the criteria used to recruit and enroll participants into separate study cohorts are inherently different (Pannucci & Wilkins, 2011). For this study, this type of error was eliminated by using proportionate stratified random sampling, a probability sampling technique that offers anyone from the target population the opportunity to be included in the sample.

It should be noted that sample size bias (also known as margin error) impacts research findings when the sample is too small to represent the target population. Aldridge and Levine (2001) contended that there is an inverse correlation between the sample size and the margin error because the larger the sample, the smaller the margin error, which, in turn, produces more accurate results. For this reason and for this study, the bias was controlled by using a representative sample at a higher confidence level. The researcher planned to use a sample of 140 secondary school students and 60 teachers.

Measurement Biases

According to Muhayimana (2015), the measurement bias derives from an instrument error which shows the gap between the scores obtained and the information expected by the researcher. He observed that the response bias is inherent to survey research because the instrument is self-administered and participants may provide inaccurate responses because they are reporting their personal beliefs, attitudes, or perceptions (self-report). The response bias can occur in terms of lack of response (nonresponse bias) or intentional or unintentional distortion of the response itself by the respondent.

Tellis and Chandrasekaran (2010) pointed out that a nonresponse can mean a participant either refused to fill out and return surveys or skipped items on the survey. To deal with this problem, the issues were addressed in questionnaire design and administration, whereby the researcher would ensure participants' confidentiality and privacy. The researcher ensured that research results were handled in such a way that the respondents would not be harmed in any way.

At the questionnaire distribution stage, the researcher included statements in the questionnaires that ensured participants' confidentiality and privacy. The researcher made diplomatic requests to the participants so that they could give independent and honest responses and return fully-completed questionnaires.

Summary

Chapter 3 placed the present study in the context of various world-views and paradigms of Social Science research. In addition, it described the research design used in this study, while considering ethical issues and the reliability and validity of the research design. The next chapter will report the results obtained from the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study whose purpose was to investigate perceived causes and forms of examination malpractice in the Malawian education system in secondary schools found in the South-East Education Division (SEED). The presentation of the findings align with the objectives of the research which were:

1. To establish the causes that contribute to examination malpractice in public examinations in secondary schools in Malawi.
2. To examine the methods of examination malpractice in the secondary schools in Malawi which students identify as the most serious.

Quantitative Analyses

The present study used two types of analyses, namely the Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) and t-test. Respondents in this research were drawn from ten selected schools in the South-East Education Division. Two schools (one from urban setting and another from rural setting) were selected from the five districts that make up the South-East Education division (see Table 1). The districts included Zomba City, Zomba Rural, Machinga, Mangochi and Balaka. Of the 200 respondents who participated in the research. 141 were students and 59 were teachers. The results of the 200 participants were analyzed quantitatively using SPSS Version 16.0 (see Table 2).

Demographics

The average age of the students who completed the survey was 20.2 years of age (SD = 3.04). The teachers' average age was 39.6 (SD = 6.56). There were also survey participants who engaged in focus group discussions. Two schools were selected whose teachers and students participated in the discussions, namely Sadzi and Naming'azi Community Day Secondary Schools. Each focus group of teachers-only comprised of five members while those of students-only comprised of six participants. The results of these respondents were analyzed qualitatively. The quantitative data will be presented first, followed by the qualitative, focus group results.

Table 1

Participating Schools and Time of Survey Administration

| Location | Date of Administration | Frequency |
|---|------------------------|------------|
| Likangala Secondary School | 29/5/2017 | 19 (9.5%) |
| Liwonde Day Secondary School | 30/5/2017 | 19 (9.5%) |
| <i>Sadzi Community Day Secondary School*</i> | 31/5/2017 | 22 (10.5%) |
| Domasi Demonstration Secondary School | 1/6/2017 | 22 (11.0%) |
| Balaka Secondary School | 2/6/2017 | 20 (10.0%) |
| <i>Naming'azi Community Day Secondary School*</i> | 5/6/2017 | 20 (10.0%) |
| Namandanje Community Day Secondary School | 6/6/2017 | 22 (11.0%) |
| Mangochi Secondary School | 7/6/2017 | 19 (9.5%) |
| M'manga Community Day Secondary School | 8/6/2017 | 20 (10.0%) |
| Mpondasi Community Day Secondary School | 9/6/2017 | 18 (9.0%) |
| | Total | 200 |

*Participating Focus Group Schools

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample Population

As displayed in Table 2, the sample population included 59 (29.5%) teachers and 141 (70.5%) students. Of 200 participants 56.0 % were male and 44.0% were female. Of 59 teachers who participated into this study, 10 (46.9%) were head teachers and 49 (83.1%) were ordinary teachers.

Table 2

Gender and Status of Respondents

| Demographics | Frequency |
|-------------------------------|-------------|
| Gender | |
| Male | 112 (56.0%) |
| Female | 88 (44.0%) |
| Teacher-student Status | |
| Teachers | 59 (29.5%) |
| Students | 141(70.5%) |
| Teacher Respondents | |
| Head teachers | 10 (46.9%) |
| Teachers | 49 (83.1%) |

Of 141 students, 99 (49.5%) of the participants came from urban schools and 101 (50.5%) participants came from the rural schools. Of 141 students, 66 (46.9%) students were in form three or grade eleven and 75 (53.1%) were in form four or grade twelve at the time of conducting this study (See Table 3).

Table 3

School Area and Grade Level of Students

| Demographics | Frequency |
|---------------------------------|-------------|
| School Area | |
| City/Urban | 99 (49.5%) |
| Rural | 101 (50.5%) |
| Class of Students (grade level) | |
| Form 3 | 66 (46.9%) |
| Form 4 | 75 (53.1%) |

Teachers' and Students' Perceptions about the Rate of Cheating in Examinations

Of 191 respondents 72 (36.0%) indicated that the rate of cheating in Malawi is between 6-10%; 39 (19.5%) participants said that the trend of cheating lies between 21 percent and above; 32 (16.0%) said the trend of cheating is between 1-5 percent; 25 (12.5%) said the trend lies between 11-15 percent and the least number of participants 23 (11.5%) indicated that the trend lies between 16-20 percent.

Table 4

Teachers' and Students' Perceptions about the Rate of Cheating

| Trend of Cheating | Frequency |
|--------------------------|------------------|
| 6-10 percent | 72 (36.0%) |
| 21 percent and above | 39 (19.5%) |
| 1-5 percent | 32 (16.0%) |
| 11-15 percent | 25 (12.5%) |
| 16-20 percent | 23 (11.5%) |

Importance-Performance Analysis

The IPA method has proven to be a generally applicable tool that is relatively easy to administer and interpret. Because of this, IPA is extensively used by researchers and managers in various fields to promote the development of effective marketing programs and to make strategic decisions (Kitcharoen, 2004; Abalo et al., 2007). The axis points discussed fall under the following headings: Teacher-working conditions analysis, environment and corruption analysis, methods of student cheating analysis and student cheating/teacher behavior analysis.

There were 24 statements under the perceived causes of examination malpractices and 16 statements under the perceived forms or methods of examination cheating. The participants were asked to rank how important the causes were in addressing cheating as well as to rate how serious and common the forms or methods of cheating in examinations were. Causes for examination malpractice were analyzed into three different categories depending on who or what contributes to the cause: students, teachers' working conditions and the testing environment or corrupt behavior. Methods of cheating were also analyzed into two different groups depending on who contributes to cheating. Analysis was based on students and teachers behavior.

Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) Results

Causes of Examination Malpractice

Student Cheating Analysis

There were eight perceived causes under this category. The IPA analysis indicated that three causes fell under the most important causes to address cheating category (See Figure 4). These statements were:

- Insufficient preparation for the examinations among many students.
- Desire among students to pass the examinations at all costs.
- Laziness.

One cause fell under the category of common but not important to address cheating and another under not common but important to address cheating categories respectively. These were:

- Students wishing to conform to peer pressure
- Lack of good study habits.

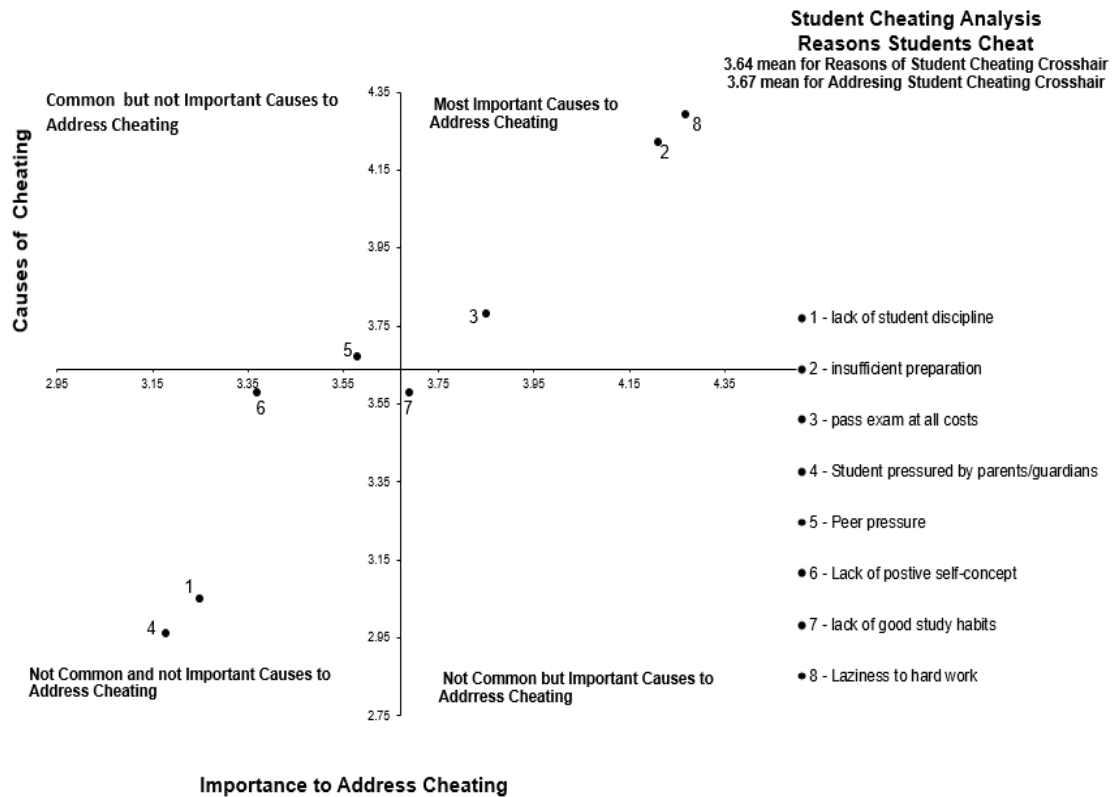


Figure 4: Student Cheating Analysis on Important Causes to Address Examination Cheating

Teacher-working Conditions Analysis

There were ten perceived causes in this category. The IPA showed that four causes fell under the category of most important to address cheating (See Figure 5).

These were

- Insufficient preparation for examinations among many teachers.
- Uncompleted syllabus
- Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators

- Lack of appropriate punishment measures for students involved in examination malpractice.

Four of the causes fell under the category of not common and not important to address cheating:

- Competition between schools.
- Poor teachers' salaries.
- Financial rewards to teachers for high performing students
- Spoon-feeding mentality.

One cause fell under the category of not common but important to address cheating- incompetent teachers.

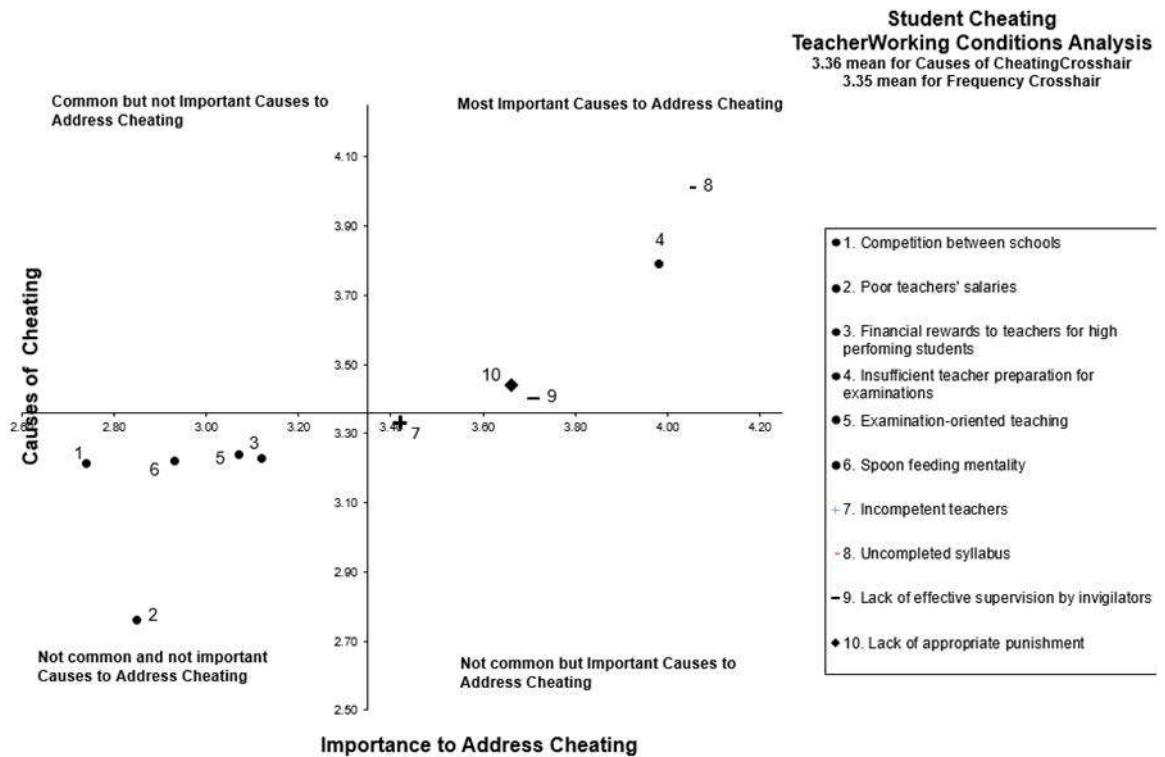


Figure 5: Teacher-working Conditions Analysis on Important Causes to Address Examination Cheating

Testing Environment and Corrupt Behavior

There were six perceived causes under this set (See Figure 6). Only one cause fell under the category of most important to address cheating. It was corruption by assisting others to cheat.

Three causes fell under the category of common but not important to address cheating:

- Inadequate learning facilities.

- Crowded examination halls.
- Leakages of question papers by examination officials/school authorities.

Two causes fell under the category of not common and not important to address cheating. The causes were:

- Remotely located examination centers so that MANEB officials do not reach those schools.
- Sexual favors.

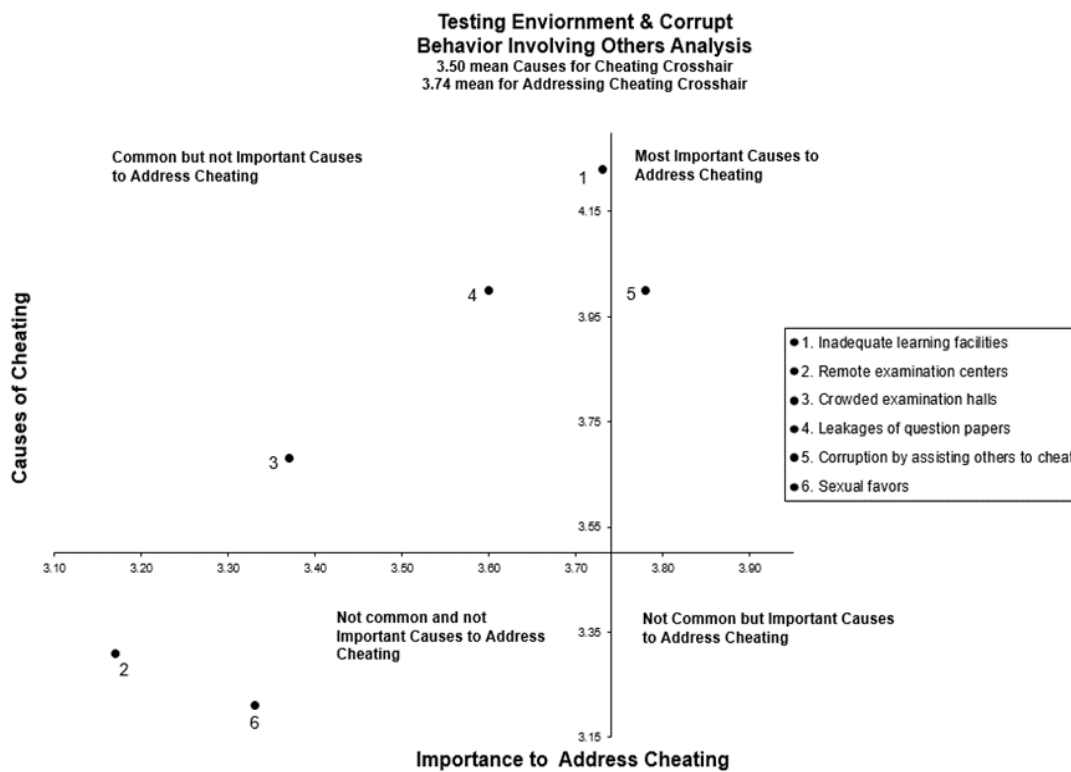


Figure 6: Testing Environment and Corrupt Behavior Analysis on Important Causes to Address Examination Cheating

Methods of Cheating

Methods of Student Cheating Analysis

There were ten methods of cheating under this category (See Figure 7). Four of the ten methods fell under the category of common and serious methods of cheating.

These were:

- Bringing prepared answers to the examination halls.
- Copying other student's work during the actual writing process.
- Writing on body parts.
- Using notebooks hidden in the restrooms.

The other six methods fell under the category of not common or considered as serious as other methods:

- Copying answers from modules or textbooks.
- Hiring other people to write the examinations/impersonation.
- Writing in special centers noted to be of examination malpractice.
- Using cellphones or calculators.
- Exchanging question papers with answers written on them.
- Replacing old answer scripts with new one after examinations.

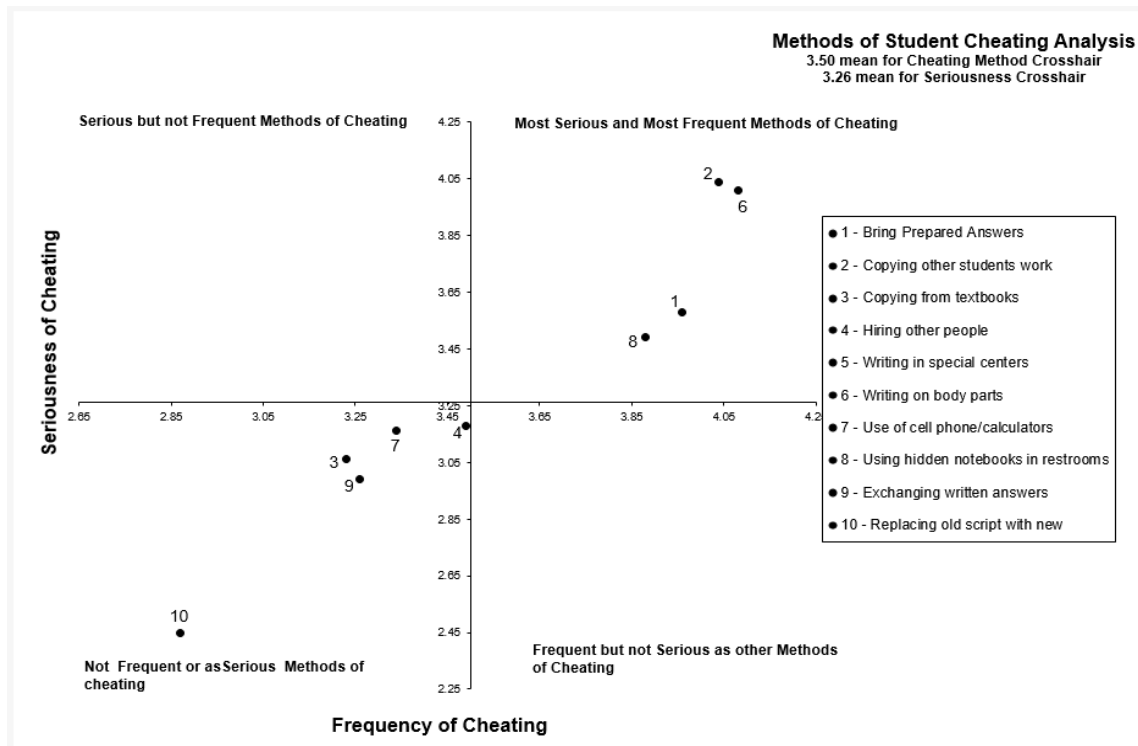


Figure 7: Student Cheating Analysis on Common Methods of Examination Cheating

Teacher Behavior Analysis.

There were six methods of cheating in this set (See Figure 8). Two of the six methods fell under the category of most serious and most frequent:

- School authorities colluding/conniving with examination official and invigilators to assist students.
- Leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials.

Four of the methods fell under the category of not frequent or as serious as other methods of cheating. These were:

- Invigilators conniving with students to cheat in examination halls.

- Teachers sending prepared answers to students during examinations.
- Invigilators giving students extra time to write examinations.
- Intentionally wrongly seated.

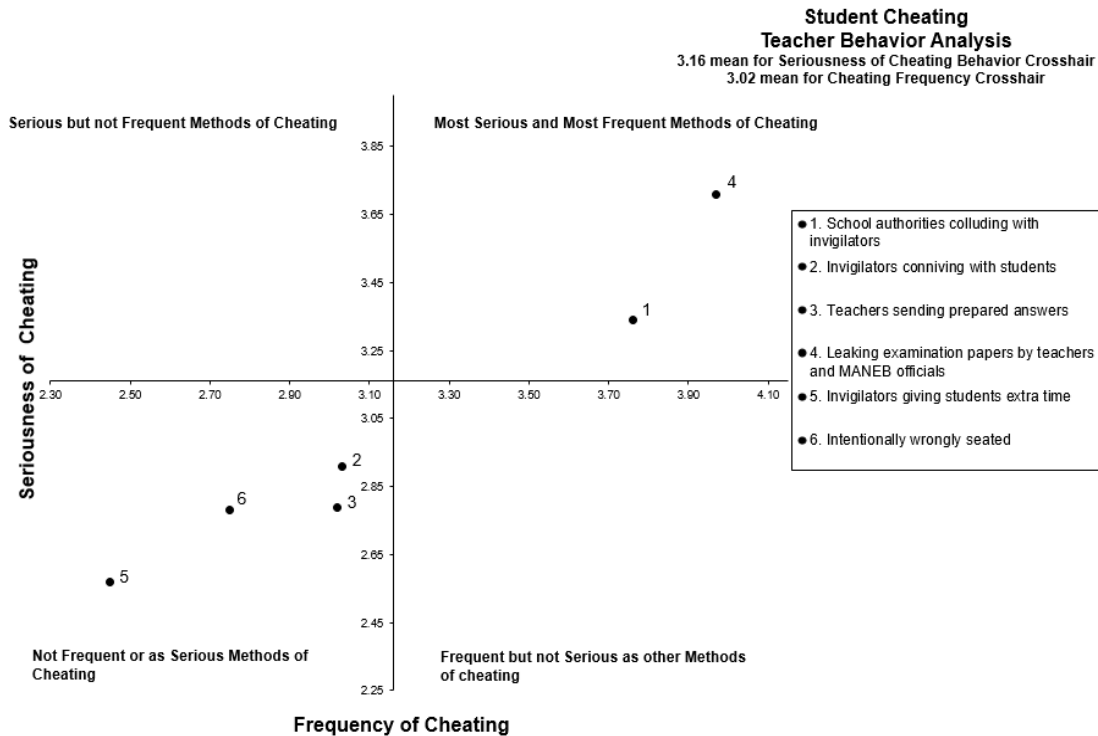


Figure 8: Teacher Behavior Analysis on Common Methods of Examination Cheating

Statistical Analysis

In addition to IPA, Independent t-test analysis between teachers and students was also run to ascertain their perceptions about cheating.

Teachers' and Students' Perceptions on Causes of Examination Malpractice

There were 24 statements under perceived causes of examination malpractice.

The statements were grouped into four categories depending on the type of perpetrators for those causes, i.e. causes perpetrated by students, by the environment, by the teachers and invigilators and through bad habits or behavior.

Causes Perpetrated by Students.

There were eight statements under this category (See Table 5). Results showed that in seven statements, there were significant differences between the teachers and the students in the way they viewed the causes. The results for this category were as follows: Lack of discipline among students in the schools ($t(198) = -8.684, p < .05$); insufficient student preparation for the examinations ($t(197) = -2.753, p < .05$); desire among students to pass examinations at all cost ($t(196) = -5.097, p < .05$); students pressured by parents and guardians ($t(197) = -3.362, p < .05$); student swishing to conform to peer pressure ($t(197) = -3.400, p < .05$); lack of positive self-concept ($t(194) = -2.719, p < .05$); lack of good study habits ($t(196) = -3.815, p < .05$) and laziness to work hard ($t(196) = -1.716, < p .05$).

Table 5

Causes of Examination Malpractice Perpetrated by Students

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|---|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 1. Lack of discipline among students in the schools | | | | | |
| Students | 2.67 | 1.37 | 198 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.94 | .68 | | | |
| 2. Insufficient student preparation for examinations | | | | | |
| Students | 4.09 | 1.14 | 197 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.55 | 1.01 | | | |
| 3. Desire among students to pass examinations at all cost | | | | | |
| Students | 3.48 | 1.33 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.37 | 1.02 | | | |
| 4. Students pressured by parents and guardians | | | | | |
| Students | 2.73 | 1.35 | 197 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.34 | 1.06 | | | |
| 5. Students conforming to peer pressure | | | | | |
| Students | 3.48 | 1.43 | 197 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.10 | 1.02 | | | |
| 6. Lack of positive self-concept | | | | | |
| Students | 3.44 | 1.22 | 194 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.86 | .86 | | | |

(table continues)

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|------------------------------|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 7. Lack of good study habits | | | | | |
| Students | 3.41 | 1.32 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.05 | .94 | | | |
| 8. Laziness to work hard | | | | | |
| Students | 4.20 | 1.19 | 196 | .08 | Reject |
| Teachers | 4.50 | 1.04 | | | |

Causes Perpetrated by the Environment

There were three statements under this category (See Table 6). Two of the three statements showed that there was significant difference between the teachers and the students. The statements included: Inadequate learning facilities ($t(197) = -2.634, p < .05$) and remotely-located examination centers so that MANEB officials do not reach those schools ($t(196) = -3.293, p < .05$). However, no significant difference between the teachers and the students was shown in one of the statements: crowded examination halls ($t(197) = -.618, p > .05$).

Table 6

Causes of Examination Malpractice Perpetrated by the Environment

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 9. Inadequate learning facilities | | | | | |
| Students | 3.58 | 1.45 | 197 | .02 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.05 | 1.19 | | | |
| 10. Remotely-located examination centers so that MANEB* officials do not reach those schools | | | | | |
| Students | 2.99 | 1.32 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.58 | 1.07 | | | |
| 11. Crowded examination halls | | | | | |
| Students | 3.32 | 1.46 | 197 | .53 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.44 | 1.17 | | | |

- MANEB= Malawi National Examinations Board

Causes Perpetrated by Teachers and Invigilators

There were ten statements under this category (See Table 7). Of the ten statements, seven statements showed that there was significant difference between the

teachers and the students. The statements were as follows: Competition between schools ($t(196) = -2.521, p < .05$); poor teachers' salaries ($t(196) = -5.202, p < .05$); insufficient preparation for examinations among many teachers ($t(194) = -3.363, p < .05$); examination-oriented teaching ($t(194) = -2.243, p < .05$); incompetent teachers ($t(194) = -3.503, p < .05$); uncompleted syllabus ($t(195) = -3.054, p < .05$) and lack of appropriate punishment measures for students involved in examination malpractices ($t(197) = -2.095, p < .05$). Three statements showed that there was no significant difference between the teachers and the students. These statements included: Financial rewards to teachers for high performing students ($t(197) = -1.315, p > .05$); spoon feeding mentality ($t(195) = -1.772, p > .05$) and lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators ($t(197) = -1.816, p > .05$).

Table 7

Causes of Examination Malpractice Perpetrated by Teachers and Invigilators

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 12. Competition between schools | | | | | |
| Students | 3.06 | 1.39 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.51 | 1.03 | | | |
| 13. Poor teachers' salaries | | | | | |
| Students | 2.46 | 1.31 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.50 | 1.26 | | | |
| 14. Financial rewards to teachers for high performing students | | | | | |
| Students | 3.15 | 1.32 | 197 | .19 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.41 | 1.22 | | | |
| 15. Insufficient preparation for the examinations by teachers | | | | | |
| Students | 3.57 | 1.26 | 194 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.17 | 1.06 | | | |
| 16. Examination-oriented teaching | | | | | |
| Students | 3.13 | 1.21 | 194 | .02 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.50 | .97 | | | |
| 17. Spoon feeding mentality | | | | | |
| Students | 3.11 | 1.22 | 195 | .07 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.41 | 1.00 | | | |
| 18. Incompetent teachers | | | | | |
| Students | 3.12 | 1.33 | 194 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.73 | .99 | | | |

(table continues)

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 19. Uncompleted syllabus and lessons | | | | | |
| Students | 3.82 | 1.27 | 195 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.36 | 1.07 | | | |
| 20. Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators | | | | | |
| Students | 3.28 | 1.45 | 197 | .07 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.63 | 1.16 | | | |
| 21. Lack of appropriate punishment for students involved in examination malpractices | | | | | |
| Students | 3.30 | 1.44 | 197 | .03 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.77 | 1.43 | | | |

Causes Perpetrated by Bad Habits or Behavior

There were three statements under this category (See Table 8). While one statement showed that there was significant difference between the teachers and the students: Leakages of question papers by examination officials or school authorities ($t(198) = -2.897, p < .05$), two statements showed no significant difference. The statements were as follows: corruption by assisting others to cheat ($t(198) = 1.039, p > .05$) and sexual favors for cheating assistance ($t(198) = .923, p > .05$).

Table 8

Causes of Examination Malpractice due to Bad Habits or Behavior

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 22. Leakages of question papers by examination officials /school authorities | | | | | |
| Students | 3.42 | 1.44 | 198 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.01 | 1.26 | | | |
| 23. Corruption by assisting others to cheat | | | | | |
| Students | 3.82 | 1.09 | 198 | .30 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.65 | 1.08 | | | |
| 24. Sexual favors for cheating assistance | | | | | |
| Students | 3.37 | 1.30 | 198 | .35 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.20 | 1.08 | | | |

Important Causes to Address Cheating

The causes were divided into four categories depending on the causative agent. Thus, there were statements which were presumed to be caused by the students, facility or testing environment, teachers and invigilators and those causes which were as a result

of bad habits or behavior. On a continuum of 5 = most important cause to address cheating to 1 = not important at all to address cheating, participants were asked to rank how important each statement was in terms of addressing the malpractice.

Causes Perpetrated by Students

There were eight statements under this category (See Table 9). While six of the statements showed that there was significant difference between the teachers and the students, two statements showed no significant difference. The two statements were as follows: Students pressured by parents and guardians ($t(197) = -1.831, p > .05$) and lack of good study habits ($t(196) = -1.326, p > .05$).

Table 9

Students' and Teachers Perceptions about Important Causes to Address Cheating

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|---|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 1. Lack of discipline among students in the schools | | | | | |
| Students | 2.95 | 1.47 | 198 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.89 | 1.03 | | | |
| 2. Insufficient student preparation for examinations | | | | | |
| Students | 3.92 | 1.22 | 197 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.86 | .43 | | | |
| 3. Desire among students to pass examinations at all cost | | | | | |
| Students | 3.55 | 1.39 | 195 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.55 | .84 | | | |
| 4. Students pressured by parents and guardians | | | | | |
| Students | 3.07 | 1.46 | 197 | .06 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.43 | 1.12 | | | |
| 5. Students conforming to peer pressure | | | | | |
| Students | 3.33 | 1.45 | 198 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.10 | 1.13 | | | |
| 6. Lack of positive self-concept | | | | | |
| Students | 3.15 | 1.24 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.81 | 1.17 | | | |

(table continues)

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|------------------------------|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 7. Lack of good study habits | | | | | |
| Students | 3.60 | 1.42 | | | |
| Teachers | 3.86 | 1.17 | 196 | .18 | Reject |
| 8. Laziness to work hard | | | | | |
| Students | 4.03 | 1.41 | | | |
| Teachers | 4.79 | .58 | 198 | .01 | Accept |

Causes Perpetrated by Facility or Testing Environment

There were three statements under this category (See Table 10). Results showed that in all statements, there was no significant difference between the teachers and the students, for example, inadequate learning facilities ($t(197) = -1.618, p > .05$); remotely-located centers so that MANEB officials do not reach those distant schools ($t(196) = -.780, p > .05$) and crowded examination halls ($t(195) = -.085, p > .05$).

Table 10

Students' and Teacher's Perceptions about Important Causes to Address Cheating

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|---|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 9. Inadequate learning facilities | | | | | |
| Students | 4.14 | 1.29 | 197 | .10 | Reject |
| Teachers | 4.43 | 1.07 | | | |
| 10. Remotely-located examination centers so that MANEB officials do not reach those schools | | | | | |
| Students | 3.24 | 1.37 | 196 | .43 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.41 | 1.41 | | | |
| 11. Crowded examination halls | | | | | |
| Students | 3.65 | 1.37 | 195 | .92 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.67 | 1.23 | | | |

Causes Perpetrated by Teachers and Invigilators

There were ten statements under this category (See Table 11). Five statements showed that there was significant difference between the teachers and the students. The statements were as follows: poor teachers' salaries ($t(197) = -2.392, p < .05$); insufficient preparation for examinations by teachers ($t(195) = -4.601, p < .05$); incompetent teachers

($t(194) = -2.385, p < .05$); uncompleted syllabus and lessons ($t(190) = -3.680, p < .05$) and lack of appropriate punishment for students involved in examination malpractices ($t(197) = -3.169, p < .05$). The other five other statements showed that there was no significant difference between the teachers and the students. The statements were as follows: Competition between schools ($t(198) = -.906, p > .05$); financial rewards to teachers for high performing students ($t(193) = -.473, p > .05$); examination-oriented teaching ($t(196) = .203, p > .05$); spoon feeding mentality ($t(196) = -.468, p > .05$) and lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators ($t(195) = -1.774, p > .05$).

Table 11

Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Important Causes to Address Cheating

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 12. Competition between schools | | | | | |
| Students | 2.78 | 1.55 | 198 | .36 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.96 | 1.18 | | | |
| 13. Poor teachers' salaries | | | | | |
| Students | 2.73 | 1.58 | 197 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.29 | 1.45 | | | |
| 14. Financial rewards to teachers for high performing students | | | | | |
| Students | 3.07 | 1.34 | 193 | .63 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.17 | 1.33 | | | |
| 15. Insufficient preparation for the examinations by teachers | | | | | |
| Students | 3.74 | 1.35 | 195 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.46 | .82 | | | |
| 16. Examination-oriented teaching | | | | | |
| Students | 3.14 | 1.39 | 196 | .84 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.10 | 1.18 | | | |
| 17. Spoon feeding mentality | | | | | |
| Students | 2.88 | 1.34 | 196 | .64 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.98 | 1.28 | | | |
| 18. Incompetent teachers | | | | | |
| Students | 3.25 | 1.38 | 194 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.70 | 1.08 | | | |

(table continues)

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 19. Uncompleted syllabus and lessons | | | | | |
| Students | 3.85 | 1.36 | 190 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.46 | .90 | | | |
| 20. Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators | | | | | |
| Students | 3.60 | 1.30 | 195 | .07 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.94 | 1.18 | | | |
| 21. Lack of appropriate punishment for students involved in examination malpractices | | | | | |
| Students | 3.43 | 1.59 | 197 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.12 | 1.29 | | | |

Causes Perpetrated by Bad Habits or Behavior

There were three statements under this category (See Table 12). Results indicated that two statements showed significant differences between the teachers and the students. The statements were as follows: Leakages of question papers by examination officials and school authorities ($t(196) = -5.303, p < .05$); and sexual favors for cheating assistance ($t(196) = 2.130, p < .05$). Corruption by assisting others to cheat ($t(196) = .058, p > .05$) showed no significant difference.

Table 12

Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Important Causes to Address Cheating

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 22. Leakages of question papers by examination officials /school authorities | | | | | |
| Students | 3.69 | 1.47 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.60 | .89 | | | |
| 23. Corruption by assisting others to cheat | | | | | |
| Students | 3.99 | 1.20 | 196 | .95 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.98 | 1.08 | | | |
| 24. Sexual favors for cheating assistance | | | | | |
| Students | 3.35 | 1.50 | 196 | .03 | Accept |
| Teachers | 2.87 | 1.37 | | | |

Teachers' and Students' Perceptions on Serious Methods of Cheating

There were 16 statements under perceived methods of examination malpractice. The statements were grouped into two categories, i.e. those which were deemed to be caused by students and teachers. On a continuum of 5 = definitely serious forms of

examination malpractice to 1 = definitely not serious forms of examination malpractice, participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each statement.

Methods of Cheating Caused by Students

There were ten statements methods of cheating which were deemed to be caused by students (See Table 13). Of the ten statements, three showed that there was significant difference between the teachers and the students. The statements were as follows:

Bringing prepared answers to examination halls ($t(194) = -4.204, p < .05$); copying another student's work during the actual writing process ($t(195) = -2.792, p < .05$) and hiring other people to write the examinations or impersonation ($t(196) = -3.664, p < .05$).

The other seven statements showed that there was significant difference between the teachers and the students.

Table 13

Methods of Cheating Caused by Students

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|---|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 1. Bringing prepared answers to examination halls | | | | | |
| Students | 3.76 | 1.42 | | | |
| Teachers | 4.50 | .96 | 194 | .01 | Accept |
| 2. Copying another student's work during the actual Writing process | | | | | |
| Students | 3.88 | 1.29 | | | |
| Teachers | 4.37 | 1.05 | 195 | .01 | Accept |
| 3. Copying answers directly from modules or textbooks | | | | | |
| Students | 3.19 | 1.46 | | | |
| Teachers | 3.26 | 1.34 | 195 | .74 | Reject |
| 4. Hiring other people to write the examinations/Impersonation | | | | | |
| Students | 3.25 | 1.53 | | | |
| Teachers | 4.05 | 1.34 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| 5. Writing examinations in special centers noted for examination malpractices | | | | | |
| Students | 3.03 | 1.40 | | | |
| Teachers | 2.82 | 1.56 | 194 | .38 | Reject |
| 6. Writing answers on body parts | | | | | |
| Students | 4.09 | 1.22 | | | |
| Teachers | 3.94 | 1.20 | 196 | .44 | Reject |
| 7. Using mobile phones and calculators | | | | | |
| Students | 3.28 | 1.48 | | | |
| Teachers | 3.32 | 1.19 | 196 | .83 | Reject |

(table continues)

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 8. Using notebooks hidden in the toilets | | | | | |
| Students | 3.90 | 1.27 | 193 | .39 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.74 | 1.19 | | | |
| 9. Exchanging question papers with answers written on them | | | | | |
| Students | 3.37 | 1.44 | 196 | .05 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.93 | 1.48 | | | |
| 10. Replacing old answer scripts with a new one after examinations | | | | | |
| Students | 2.90 | 1.32 | 196 | .65 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.79 | 1.57 | | | |

Methods of Cheating Caused by Teachers

There were six statements under this category (See Table 14). Of the six statements, only two showed that there was significant difference between the teachers and the students. The statements were as follows: School authorities colluding or conniving with examination officials and invigilators to assist students ($t(197) = -2.493$, $p < .05$) and leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials ($t(195) = -5.773$, $p < .05$). The other four statements showed that there were differences between the teachers and the students.

Table 14

Methods of Cheating Caused by Teachers

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 11. School authorities colluding/ conniving with examination officials and invigilators to assist students | | | | | |
| Students | 3.60 | 1.46 | 197 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.12 | 1.27 | | | |
| 12. Invigilators conniving with students to cheat in examination halls | | | | | |
| Students | 3.14 | 1.53 | 197 | .09 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.77 | 1.38 | | | |
| 13. Teachers sending prepared answers to students during examinations | | | | | |
| Students | 3.10 | 1.50 | 196 | .50 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.93 | 1.64 | | | |
| 14. Leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials | | | | | |
| Students | 3.67 | 1.34 | 195 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.62 | .89 | | | |
| 15. Invigilators giving students extra time to write examinations | | | | | |
| Students | 2.46 | 1.37 | 196 | .87 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.50 | 1.50 | | | |
| 16. Intentionally wrongly-seated | | | | | |
| Students | 2.78 | 1.27 | 196 | .79 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.72 | 1.55 | | | |

Teachers' and Students' Perceptions on Common Methods of Cheating

There were 16 statements of forms of cheating. On a continuum of 5 = very common to 1 = not common at all, participants were asked to rank how common each statement was. The statements were also grouped into two categories either caused by the students or the teachers.

Methods of Cheating Caused by Students

There were ten statements under this category (See Table 15). Five of the statements showed that there was significant differences between the teachers and the students, and the other five showed that there were difference between the teachers and the students. Statements that showed no significant differences were as follows: Bringing prepared answers to examination halls ($t(191) = -4.530, p < .05$); copying another student's work during the actual writing process ($t(193) = -2.234, p < .05$); hiring other people to write the examinations or impersonation ($t(189) = -2.048, p < .05$); writing examinations in special centers note for examination malpractices ($t(193) = 2.117, p < .05$) and replacing old answer scripts with new one after examinations ($t(192) = 3.084, p < .05$).

Table 15

Common Methods of Cheating Caused by Students

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|---|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 1. Bringing prepared answers to examination halls | | | | | |
| Students | 3.27 | 1.62 | 191 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.26 | 1.27 | | | |
| 2. Copying another student's work during the actual writing process | | | | | |
| Students | 3.92 | 1.17 | 193 | .02 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.31 | 1.10 | | | |
| 3. Copying answers directly from modules or textbooks | | | | | |
| Students | 3.08 | 1.34 | 194 | .66 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.00 | 1.22 | | | |
| 4. Hiring other people to write the examinations/Impersonation | | | | | |
| Students | 3.00 | 1.49 | 189 | .04 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.49 | 1.52 | | | |
| 5. Writing examinations in special centers noted for examination malpractices | | | | | |
| Students | 2.73 | 1.29 | 193 | .03 | Accept |
| Teachers | 2.31 | 1.22 | | | |
| 6. Writing answers on body parts | | | | | |
| Students | 4.07 | 1.15 | 194 | .42 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.92 | 1.17 | | | |
| 7. Using mobile phones and calculators | | | | | |
| Students | 3.17 | 1.41 | 194 | .22 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.91 | 1.34 | | | |

(table continues)

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 8. Using notebooks hidden in the toilets | | | | | |
| Students | 3.52 | 1.35 | 193 | .98 | Reject |
| Teachers | 3.52 | 1.11 | | | |
| 9. Exchanging question papers with answers written on them | | | | | |
| Students | 3.12 | 1.45 | 192 | .12 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.77 | 1.43 | | | |
| 10. Replacing old answer scripts with a new one after examinations | | | | | |
| Students | 2.70 | 1.37 | 192 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 2.12 | 1.10 | | | |

Methods of Cheating Caused by Teachers

There were six statements under this category (See Table 16). Five of the statements showed that there was significant differences between the teachers and the students, and only one statement showed that there was a difference between the teachers and the students. Statements that showed significant differences were as follows: school authorities colluding or conniving with examination officials and invigilators to assist students to pass ($t(195) = 3.445, p < .05$); invigilators conniving with students to cheat in examinations halls ($t(194) = 3.447, p < .05$); teachers sending prepared answers to students during examinations ($t(196) = 2.550, p < .05$); leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials ($t(195) = -2.911, p < .05$), and intentionally wrongly seated ($t(194) = 1.989, p < .05$). However, the results showed that there was a significant difference between the teachers and the students in invigilators giving students extra time to write examinations ($t(195) = 1.292, p > .05$).

Table 16

Common Methods of Cheating Caused by Teachers

| Statement | M | SD | df | p-value | Remark |
|--|------|------|-----|---------|--------|
| 11. School authorities colluding/ conniving with examination officials and invigilators to assist students | | | | | |
| Students | 3.17 | 1.58 | 195 | .04 | Accept |
| Teachers | 3.67 | 1.50 | | | |
| 12. Invigilators conniving with students to cheat in examination halls | | | | | |
| Students | 3.11 | 1.24 | 194 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 2.48 | 1.14 | | | |
| 13. Teachers sending prepared answers to students during examinations | | | | | |
| Students | 2.94 | 1.43 | 196 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 2.39 | 1.32 | | | |
| 14. Leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials | | | | | |
| Students | 3.50 | 1.45 | 195 | .01 | Accept |
| Teachers | 4.12 | 1.31 | | | |
| 15. Invigilators giving students extra time to write examinations | | | | | |
| Students | 2.65 | 1.42 | 195 | .19 | Reject |
| Teachers | 2.39 | 1.21 | | | |
| 16. Intentionally wrongly-seated | | | | | |
| Students | 2.91 | 1.41 | 194 | .04 | Accept |
| Teachers | 2.50 | 1. | | | |

Qualitative Analyses

The research questions and the information obtained from the reviewed literature were used to guide the designing of the questions for the focus group discussions used to collect data as presented in this chapter. The qualitative data were analyzed thematically by coding and grouping emerging themes into categories using the constant comparative analysis technique by comparing incidents applicable to each category, integrating categories and their properties, delimiting the theory, and writing the theory. According to Strauss and Corbin (2008) coding involves three levels of analyses: (a) open coding, (b) axial coding, and (c) selective coding, to gather a complete picture of the information obtained during the data collection process.

There were four focus groups: two for the students and another two for the teachers. Two schools, one from urban and one from rural, were selected from a pool of 10 selected schools. For each school, teachers' and students' focus group discussions were done separately. The researcher envisaged to have ten members in each of the two students' focus groups; however, due to unforeseen circumstances, only six students participated in each of the focus groups. Five individuals participated in each of the two teachers' focus groups. Participants in all the four focus groups were students and teachers who earlier on had completed the questionnaires. The researcher tape-recorded the discussions in addition to taking notes.

The following questions guided the focus group discussions both for the teachers and the students. However, in addition to these questions, other impromptu follow-up questions were asked when the researcher wanted further explanation.

- Is cheating during examinations a problem?
- If so, why do students cheat?
- What methods do students use when cheating?
- How can cheating be eradicated at school level and at national level?

Causes of Cheating

Transcribing of the four focus groups discussions was done by two different individuals. In total, there were four transcriptions: two for teachers (urban and rural) and another two for the students (urban and rural). The researcher then looked at how all the four groups responded to each of the questions and noted down the similarities and differences, and synthesized the students' and teachers' transcriptions. The results showed 15 causes between the students and the teachers (See Table 17). There were also five causes which were considered serious between the students and the teachers (See Table 18)

From the responses, four major themes of the causes of examination malpractice emerged. These were: personal factors, social factors, psychological factors, and environmental factors.

Personal Factors

Personal factors are those deemed to be perpetuated on individual's volition. The following causes fell under this category: unpreparedness by the students, habit to cheat, poor study habits, lack of confidence by the students and laziness by students. Both the teachers and the students reported that many students are not prepared for examinations

due to laziness as well as to not taking their studies seriously. The respondents reported that many students spend their time in doing activities that do not profit their education such as playing casual soccer or watching movies instead of concentrating on their studies. It was further reported that even though students may prepare very well for the examinations, they are sometimes engulfed by fear of failure and forgetfulness. Therefore, to remind themselves of what they have read, they sometimes engage in cheating by going into the examination halls with unauthorized materials.

Social Factors

Social factors are those perpetuated by the society upon the students. These include peer pressure from fellow students, or parents/guardians that cause the students to experience enormous stress and anxiety in trying to meet the various demands of the subjects. It was reported that pressure from the peers was much greater than from the parents and guardians. The respondents, especially the students, felt that they are lured into cheating when they see that their peers who cheat are never caught but they are able to pass. When this happens, they also feel that next time they sit for examinations, they will cheat just like their peers. The students also reported that they are lured into cheating when they discover that their peers who are weaker than them are getting better grades than them. However, they indicated that peer influence with reference to cheating leads to indiscipline.

Both the teachers and students indicated that they are times when parents promise their children or wards presents if they pass the examinations with good grades. To

impress upon their parents and guardians and in order to get the presents promised to them, sometimes students engaged in cheating.

Psychological Factors

Fear of failing the examinations seemed to be one of the main of the psychological factors that make students cheat. In other words, the unpleasant impact after failing the examinations, and the significance which the students attach on the examinations, especially the Malawi School Certificate of Education (MSCE), make them think of cheating. Both the teachers and the students indicated that passing the Malawi School National Examinations (MSCE) with good grades means having a bright future in terms of getting admissions to universities and colleges which many students aspire. Because of the high stakes of examinations and the stiff competition for limited places in the universities, many students, especially those who think are weaker, end up using dubious means of making sure that they pass at all costs. Students who feel are weak but they still want to make it to the universities and colleges, they end up cheating.

Environmental Factors

Environmental factors are those unfavorable factors whose fertile ground breeds examination malpractice. The following were the causes: uncompleted syllabus due to teachers' absenteeism, understaffing of teachers in schools; demeaning attitudes by some teachers to students, teachers' incompetency to prepare students for examinations, sexual favors, overcrowding of students in examination halls, lack of proper security especially

at the examining board which leads to leakage of examinations and, lack of stiff punishment to the offenders.

Inadequate coverage of syllabus. The respondents bemoaned the tendency by some teachers who do not adequately cover the syllabus. It was noted that some teachers frequently absent themselves from classes which makes them unable to cover the syllabus well before the examinations. When students know that their teachers have not adequately cover the syllabus, they end up devising ways of cheating in order to pass the examinations. However, the teachers felt that most of the teachers who are unable to cover the syllabus do so either because they are not committed to their work or lack the knowledge of the subject matter. The inability to adequately cover the syllabus was also attributed to the fact that many teachers are made to teach subjects which they are not qualified to teach. For example, in some instances, teachers who was trained to teach social subjects are made to teach languages or science subjects for which they have no knowledge about the teaching of these subjects. This was attributed to the fact that many schools are understaffed with teachers. It was noted that understaffing is more prevalent in Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSSs) than in conventional secondary schools. It was also learned that understaffing leads to teachers having more work-load which makes them tired and at the end of the day being unable to adequately cover the syllabus.

Sexual favors. The respondents, more especially the students, reported that some students engage in cheating due to sexual favors. However, it was learned that seduction is not only done by the male supervisor but the female student who wants to cheat also

seduces the male supervisor. It was further reported that this is done privately between the male supervisor and the female student since the supervisor does not want to be caught messing around with the female student. While the male students in the focus groups seemed to be ignorant about this, their female counterparts indicated that many female students end up selling their bodies because they want to be assisted by the examination supervisors.

Lack of security of the examinations. Both the teachers and the students bemoaned the lack of security of the examinations by the examining board, MANEB, which leads to examination leakages. They noted that almost every year there are leakages of examination questions in one subject or the other. While they could not tell why this happens, some of the respondents, especially the teachers, indicated that workers at the examination board leak the examinations deliberately to sabotage the whole process to make their bosses ineffective.

Negative attitudes by teachers. Students bemoaned the negative attitudes some teachers have towards students. The students reported that there are some teachers who always prophesy doom to students that they cannot pass the examinations no matter how hard they may work because they are naturally unintelligent. To pass the examinations and to prove the teachers wrong, such students end up cheating.

Overcrowding of students in examination halls. This was another cause of examination malpractice. The respondents, especially the teachers, noted that inadequate learning facilities such as classrooms led to overcrowding in examination halls. Since

students sit close to each other, they are able to copy answers from each other or send answers to each other. This is more done so coupled with poor invigilation by the teachers.

Lack of punitive measures to offenders. The participants also blamed the government for the punishment which is given to those who are caught cheating. The participants, especially the teachers, felt that the current fines and penalties are not deterrent enough to stop students and examination officials from cheating in examinations. Currently any student who is caught cheating and is convicted is supposed to pay a fine of K50, 000.00 (about \$74.52). Teachers and any other examination official who is caught cheating is convicted is supposed to pay a fine of K300, 000.00 (about \$447.00). The teachers argued for stiffer penalties.

Table 17

Students' and Teachers' Responses about Causes of Examination Malpractice

| Students' Perceptions | Teachers' Perceptions |
|---|--|
| 1. Unpreparedness by students | Unpreparedness by students |
| 2. Teachers' inability to cover the syllabus | Teachers' inability to cover the syllabus |
| 3. Peer pressure | Peer pressure |
| 4. Fear of failure the examinations | Fear of failure by the examinations |
| 5. Lack of confidence by students | Lack of confidence by students |
| 6. Laziness by students | Laziness by students |
| 7. Understaffing of teachers | Teachers' incompetence |
| 8. Overcrowding of students | Overcrowding of students |
| 9. Sexual favors | Sexual favors |
| 10. Pressure from parents | Pressure from parents |
| 11. Significance of the examinations | Significance of the examinations |
| 12. Poor study habits | Poor study habits |
| 13. Inadequate security by the examining board | Inadequate security by the examining board |
| 14. Lack of appropriate punishment to offenders | Lack of stiff punishment to offenders |
| 15. Habit | Demeaning attitude by teachers to students |

Table 18

Serious Causes of Examination Malpractice

| Students' Perceptions | Teachers' Perceptions |
|---|---|
| 1. Unpreparedness by students | Lack of preparation by students |
| 2. Teaches not being able to cover the syllabus | Teachers not being able to cover the syllabus |
| 3. Desire to pass examinations at all costs | Peer pressure |
| 4. Habit | Laziness by students to work hard |
| 5. Inadequate security | Lack of punitive measures to offenders |

Methods of Cheating

The two synthesized students' and teachers' transcriptions showed eleven methods of cheating which students use during examinations (See Table 19), and five

most common methods of cheating (See Table 20). From the list of eleven methods of cheating, four major themes about the methods of cheating were drawn. These were as follows: individual-cheating methods, collaborative-cheating methods, and technological-assisted cheating methods.

Individual-cheating Methods

Individual-cheating methods involve a student devising ways of cheating by himself or herself. The following methods of cheating fall under this category: students copying from friends by way of peeping another student's paper, bringing of unauthorized materials e.g. crib notes, students writing on body parts, hiding note-books in restrooms, and graffiti (e.g. writing on desks).

Bringing of unauthorized materials. It was noted that the main and most common methods of cheating fell under individual-cheating category. The respondents indicated that bringing of unauthorized materials such as crib notes was the most common method used in cheating. In Malawi, a crib note is known as "Likasa." They indicated that most of those students who use crib notes write the answers on the topics which they feel are usually examined. The crib notes are then stuck in places where it is difficult for the supervisor to see. In case of female students, they may hide them in their bras, socks, and hems. In case of male students, they may hide the crib notes in their underwear or socks as well.

Writing on body parts. This was another common method of cheating. The respondents indicated that answers can be written on the palms but girls even write on

their thighs because they wear skirts so it is easy for them to see the answers. The participants indicated that girls prefer this method because it makes difficult for the male supervisors to check, knowing that doing so would mean infringing upon the privacy of the females students. However, this method is difficult for boys since they wear trousers, and can make the supervisors become suspicious when the male student pulls up the trousers.

Hiding materials in the restrooms. Respondents also indicated that some students hide materials such as textbooks in the restrooms. They indicated that when the examinations are in progress, students take turns to go to the restrooms pretending to answer the call of nature while in true sense they want to check answers to the questions that have come during the examinations. Sometimes, this is done by referring to the crib notes when they see that they cannot do it while they are in the examination halls. The teachers indicated that sometimes when they check the restrooms, they find small pieces of papers with answers on them.

Students copying from friends. This method can either fall under individual-cheating method or collaborative-cheating methods. The participants, especially the teachers noted that copying from friends was rampant during examinations. There are various ways in which this is done. The teachers indicated that when friends are seated next to each other, they first attempt questions which they are able to answer. When they come to questions which each students cannot answer, they exchange the answer sheets. Collaboratively, they agree to help each other. Sometimes, and individually, a student can

decide to copy answers from other students without the other students knowing. Such a student stretches his or her neck in order to copy what other students are writing. They call this method “giraffing” since a giraffe has a long neck. This is more common in a room where the students are overcrowding because there is not enough space between the desks, which makes it easy for students who have a problem to just look and copy answers from a neighbor’s paper.

Graffiti. The teachers indicated that some students use graffiti to cheat. They reported that students who use this method to cheat usually write answers on their desks. This is most common with mathematical formulas.

Collaborative-cheating Methods

These include using body parts (sign language), school authorities conniving with supervisors, taking advantage of wrong seating plan, students copying from friends by way of deliberate exchange of answer sheets, teachers reading out answers to students, poor invigilation/supervision, and impersonation.

Using body parts (sign language). The participants, especially the students, indicated that one way by which they use to cheat in examinations is by using body parts to represent answers. This usually is possible with multiple choice questions because it is easy for them to communicate the answers. For example, the students said that an eye stands for A. So if a student touches the eye, the other student knows that the answer is A. When asked how the other student may know the question number, the students demonstrated that if it is question number five, for example, the student who knows the

answer raises up the five fingers, then quickly touches the appropriate part of the body. Then the other student sees and gets the answer. If it is question 22, for example, the student who knows the answer still raises up the ten fingers in succession (to signal that it is 20), and then raises up the two fingers (to signal that it is 22), and then touches the part of the body. They said that this is done so quickly that the supervisor who is seated very far may not know what is happening. However, the teachers seemed to be ignorant of this method. This explains the reason why it is difficult to curb the malpractice since the students always devise methods of cheating which the supervisors may not even know. Different parts of the body represent different letters of the alphabet. For example:

- An eye represents A.
- A nose represents B.
- An ear represents C.
- A chin represents D.

Poor invigilation/supervision. This was another method of cheating. The teachers said that students take advantage of poor invigilation to cheat either by way of copying answers from friends, or referring to the crib notes. The teachers felt that poor invigilation is a result of MANEB deploying very few teachers to do the supervision. The teachers indicated that in most instances, in the quest of saving money, MANEB assigns one teacher per examination room which accommodates 50 students. The teachers felt that doing this defeats the whole purpose of supervision since the teacher cannot be in all places in the room at the same time. The teachers noted that when a teacher is at the back

of the room, those students in front engage in cheating. Likewise when the teacher is at the front, students at the back start cheating.

Impersonation. This is where an individual who is not registered as a candidate takes the place of the student who is registered to write the examinations. The teachers indicated that sometimes students pretend to have lost their identity cards which have face on it so that MANEB can issue an identity card without face on it. Usually, such students report about the loss of their identity cards few days before the examinations start. Because MANEB cannot process an identity card with the student's face on it in that very short time, the candidate is allowed to sit for examinations even without an identity card having a face on it. When this happens, the legitimate candidate gets someone to sit for the examinations in place of him or her. However, it was noted that this is very rare. At the time of conducting these focus group discussions, three female students had been caught cheating by way of impersonation during the Primary School Leaving Certificate Examinations (PSLCE).

Technology-assisted Cheating Methods

These include the use of scientific calculators in subjects that do not require the use of calculators, e.g. languages, and cell phones. It was noted that while many students do not bring with them cell phones into the examination halls, many of them bring scientific calculators which have a memory to keep information. It was reported that use of scientific calculators works better with multiple choice questions. The teachers reported that since scientific calculators are able to store information, one student may

enter the answers into the calculator and send it to friends. The teachers pointed that one would wonder why students would be asking for the same calculator even when the examination paper does not warrant for a calculator.

Table 19

Methods of Examination Malpractice

| Students' Perceptions | Teachers' Perceptions |
|---|--|
| 1. Leakage of examination questions | Leakage of examination questions |
| 2. Students copying from friends | Bringing of unauthorized materials e.g. crib notes |
| 3. Bringing of unauthorized materials | School authorities conniving with supervisors |
| 4. Poor invigilation/supervision | Using scientific calculators |
| 5. Hiding note-books in restrooms | Copying answers from friends |
| 6. Students writing on body parts | Students writing on body parts |
| 7. Taking advantage of wrong seating plan | Wrong seating plan |
| 8. Pretense to answer the call of nature | Impersonation |
| 9. Using body parts (sign language) | Hiding note-books in restrooms |
| 10. Graffiti (on desks) | Graffiti |
| 11. Impersonation | Poor invigilation/supervision |

Table 20

Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Most Common Methods of Cheating

| Students' Perceptions | Teachers' Perceptions |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 1. Hiding note-books in restrooms | Hiding note-books in restrooms |
| 2. Bringing of unauthorized materials | Bringing of unauthorized materials e.g. crib notes |
| 3. Leakage of examination questions | Leakage of examination questions |
| 4. Using body parts (sign language) | Poor invigilation/supervision |
| 5. Students writing on body parts | Copying answers from friends |

Measures to Curb Examination Malpractice at School and National Level

There were five suggestions for national level (See Table 21) and seven suggestions for school level (See Table 22) which the students and teachers thought would help fight against cheating. Measures to curb cheating were grouped into three themes. These themes were: proper administration of examinations, proper teaching, and communication or civic education.

Proper Administration of Examinations

Under this category were measures such as the tightening up of examination security by the examining board (MANEB) to avoid leakage of examinations, MANEB to deploy adequate supervisors and invigilators to examination centers; and the government to ensure that offenders are given stiff punishment.

The participants felt that for proper administration of examinations, one way to deal with cheating, is by tightening up the examination security. The participants indicated that security must be tightened up right from MANEB where examinations are printed and packaged. The participants indicated that there is very little of insecurity when examinations are dispatched to schools. The participants also felt that MANEB should always liaise with the District Education Managers (DEMs) to hire teachers of high integrity to supervise the examinations. It was felt that the conduct of some teachers who are hired to supervise examinations leave a lot to be desired. The participants called upon the teachers to thoroughly check the students before they enter the examination rooms to deter the students from smuggling unauthorized materials. Teachers were also

called upon to make sure that they are always present in the examination room, as being outside the examination room would give chance to the students to cheat. It was also pointed out that MANEB must hire adequate supervisors to be able to man the examination rooms since experience had shown that having one supervisor per room does not help the students to stop cheating.

Proper Teaching and Learning

The participants felt that proper teaching would help stop students from cheating. To do this, the participants felt that teachers must ensure that they adequately cover the syllabus; teachers must be knowledgeable about the subject matter of the subjects they teach, and teachers must teach students good study habits. The students indicated that many students do not know best techniques of studying. As such, they study haphazardly.

Participants also agreed that students must prepare adequately for the examinations; must be confident that they can handle examinations without resorting to cheating, and that they must develop high self-esteem. The participants also noted that the government must deploy enough teachers to schools to effectively handle the work load and the subjects.

Communication/Civic Education

The participants agreed that the government and MANEB must intensify civic education to students, teachers, and the society at large about the evils of cheating. However, the teachers further noted that the citizens must show patriotism to their

country by safe guarding the integrity of the country's examinations, as cheating may render the certificates useless and not being internationally recognized as is the case with other African countries.

Table 21

Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Measures to curb Examination Cheating at National Level

| Students' Perceptions | Teachers' Perceptions |
|--|---|
| 1. The examining board must tighten security | The examining board must tighten security |
| 2. MANEB should employ credible supervisors | MANEB must intensify civic education programs |
| 3. MANEB must intensify civic education | MANEB to deploy adequate supervisors to centers |
| 4. Government to deploy adequate teachers to schools | Citizens must be patriotic to their country |
| 5. Ensure stiff punishment to offenders | Ensure stiff punishment to offenders |

Table 22

Students' and Teachers' Perceptions about Measures to curb Examination Cheating at School Level

| Students' Perceptions | Teachers' Perceptions |
|--|--|
| 1. Teachers to be vigilant against cheating | Teachers to ensure complete coverage of the syllabus |
| 2. Intensive supervision during examinations | Teachers to teach students good study skills |
| 3. Students to prepare well for examinations | Students to prepare well for examinations |
| 4. Students must develop self-esteem | Civic education to the teachers and students |
| 5. Tearing off student's answer sheet | Proper supervision during examinations |
| 6. Cheating student must be suspended | Teachers must avoid leakage of exam papers |
| 7. Teachers must cover syllabus adequately | Teachers to be knowledgeable about subject matter |

Quantitative and Qualitative Methodological Triangulation

Despite the worldwide controversial debate amongst researchers on the quantitative-qualitative dichotomy, the popularity of qualitative research has increased in

the higher education field. Emanating from research there seems room for both these two research approaches. Equally important is the fact that one is not inferior to the other. So by not relying on a single research approach and methodology, the validity and credibility of the research findings are improved (Denzin, 1978; Patton, 2002). The fact that phenomena such as in social sciences are enmeshed (when a human being is the unit of analysis) makes it impossible to quantify feelings or perceptions. It is also inappropriate to quantify the finer nuances or the deep-seated problems of the human being. The deduction can, therefore, be made that an integrated multi-method research approach increases the understanding of human nature and social reality in their full complexity.

Triangulation involves the conscious combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies as a powerful solution to strengthen a research design where the logic is based on the fact that a single method can never adequately solve the problem of rival causal factors (Denzin, 1978; Patton, 2002). Methodological triangulation entails combining both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods (Banister, Burman, Parker, Taylor, & Tindal, 1994). This is based on the rationale that a single data collection method is insufficient to provide adequate and accurate research results. It is vital to remember that the above-mentioned method is also a form of comparative analysis where the interpretation of the results is complicated when the convergence of data leads to inconsistencies and contradictions. For this reason, the study used mixed methods design. Therefore, in this study data triangulation entailed the comparison of quantitative data received from the surveys and qualitative data received from focus group discussions with teachers and students.

A Review of the Triangulation Results

According to Miles and Huberman (1994), data management is an integral part of data analysis. Managing such a database is viewed as a challenge, due to the need to comprehend the data and to locate a description to illustrate a concept (Morse & Field, 1996). In this study the researcher decided to handle data management by displaying of the triangulation process results in a matrix. This provided a summary of what the results were (See Table 23). A review of the triangulation results of this study is illustrated in two tables. In these two tables the horizontal rows represent the broad issues of examination malpractice. Column 1 consists of the two issues of examination malpractice, i.e. causes and methods of cheating. The summary of the quantitative data triangulation results is found in Column 2. Column 3 reflects the data of the qualitative data triangulation results.

Table 23

Summary of Quantitative and Qualitative Data Triangulation Results

| Examination Malpractice | Quantitative Data Results (Method 1) | Qualitative Data Results (Method 2) |
|---|---|--|
| Causes of Cheating | *Insufficient student preparation for exams | Unpreparedness by students |
| | *Desire to pass exams at all costs | Desire to pass exams at all cost |
| | *Laziness by students to work hard | Laziness by students |
| | *Teachers' inability to cover syllabus | Unfinished syllabus |
| | Poor invigilation during exams | Inadequate security |
| | Insufficient teacher preparation | Peer pressure |
| | *Lack of stiff punishment | Lack of stiff punishment |
| Corruption by assisting others to cheat | | |
| Methods of Cheating | *Bringing prepared answers | Bringing prepared answers |
| | *Copying from friends | Copying from friends |
| | *Using note-books hidden in restrooms | Note-books hidden in restrooms |
| | School authorities colluding with supervisors | Using body parts (Sign language) |
| | *Leakages of examination papers | Leakages of examination papers |
| | | Poor invigilation by supervisors |
| | *Writing on body parts | Writing on body parts |

*Cross-cutting issues

Summary

Chapter 4 elaborated on the research findings that mainly concentrated on descriptive and inferential statistics. The descriptive statistics focused on the characteristics of the sample population. Further to this, results of the qualitative data were reported. A Summary of the quantitative and qualitative data triangulation results

was also reported. The next chapter discusses the results and their implications on examination malpractice and the proposed recommendations.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceived causes and methods of examination malpractice among secondary school students in the South East Education Division (SEED). This chapter summarizes the research problem, quantitative and qualitative research procedures, and the study's findings. It also discusses the major implications and recommendations of the research results.

Summary of Problems and Procedures

Examinations administered by the Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB) assess the extent to which the cognitive capacities of candidates have been developed. Consequently, written examinations are the most dominant form of assessment, typically designed in free response and/or multiple-choice question formats. Unfortunately, examinations in Malawi are affected by a number of problems. One of the major concerns regarding security of examinations is leakage. In some centers examination envelopes have been intentionally opened before the specified time, and contents exposed for the benefit of candidates. In extreme cases, the prematurely exposed examination papers have been duplicated and sold to the candidates. Such a practice led to the cancellation of all examinations in 2000, which necessitated that another set of examination papers be developed and distributed. In an attempt to deal with this problem, MANEB, among other measures, established examination distribution centers for storage of examination materials which are guarded by police officers.

Another area of concern is cheating. Cheating takes place in many forms including impersonation, referring to books, copying from each other, and teachers dictating answers to the class. To curb cheating during examinations, MANEB carries out spot checks during examinations, but these are done to a limited extent due to shortage of personnel, vehicles, and finances. MANEB also provides civic education to the general public about the dangers of the malpractice, since in some cases cheating involves the general public. Sometimes MANEB applies sanctions such as nullification of results, deregistration of examination centers, withholding of results, and prosecuting the culprits if examination regulations have been infringed. However, despite all these efforts, students in secondary schools continue to cheat during examinations. Almost every year, MANEB reports about cheating cases. Such reports raise questions, not only to the teachers and MANEB officials alone but to the whole society. More specifically, what makes the students cheat? How do they cheat?

Because all of these questions seemed relevant to the success of finding lasting solutions to examination malpractice in Malawi, this study aimed at investigating the perceived causes and methods of examination malpractice among secondary school students in the South East Education Division. The study attempted to answer two specific questions:

1. What are the perceived causes of examination malpractice in public examinations in secondary schools in Malawi?
2. What are the perceived methods of examination malpractice in secondary schools that Malawian students identify?

Demographics of Study Participants

The study involved teachers and students from 10 public secondary schools. Ten out of 110 public secondary schools were selected based on the stratified random sampling technique. The sample population included 200 participants, among whom 59 (29.5%) were teachers and 141 (70.5%) were students. Of 200 participants, 112 (56.0%) were male and 88 (44.0%) were female. Of 59 teachers, ten (46.9%) were head teachers and 49 (83.1%) were ordinary teachers. Of 200 participants, 99 (49.5%) were from urban schools and 101 (50.5%) were from rural schools. Of 141 students, 66 (46.9%) were in form three (grade 11) and 75 (53.1%) were in from four (grade 12). All the students were 18 years or older. All participants were Malawians by nationality and full-time students and teachers at the time when this study was conducted.

Summary of the Findings

Based on the *Importance Performance Analysis*, the following 8 causes for examination cheating emerged as *most important to address* by students and teachers:

- a. Insufficient student preparation for examinations.
- b. Desire among students to pass examinations at all costs.
- c. Laziness (reluctance to work hard).
- d. Insufficient preparation for examinations by teachers.
- e. Uncompleted syllabus and lessons.
- f. Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators.

- g. Lack of appropriate punishment measures for students involved in examination malpractice.
- h. Corruption by assisting others to cheat.

The following six *methods of cheating* emerged as *most serious and most common*:

- a. Bringing prepared answers to examination halls.
- b. Copying another student's work during the actual writing process.
- c. Writing answers on body parts.
- d. Using note-books hidden in the restrooms.
- e. School authorities colluding/conniving with examination officials and invigilators to assist students.
- f. Leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceived causes and methods that contribute to examination malpractice among secondary school students in the South East Education Division. The occurrence of examination malpractice at any level of an education system poses the greatest threat to the validity and reliability of the examination system. The study indicates that there is a general trend in the Malawian schools towards cheating. It brings great destruction to the religious, social, economic, and political lives of the nation. Olatunbosun (2009) supported the idea that the impact of examination malpractice in the society is destructive because it affects the whole society, the individual, the school, and the government. Therefore, it is imperative to eradicate the

problem of examination malpractice. Otherwise the whole education system could collapse.

Corruption coupled by poor teaching and learning negatively affects the education system by contributing to cheating cases. While some initial theoretical research suggests benefits to corruption, empirical studies tend to show otherwise: corruption and growth are negatively correlated. Bardhan (1997) observed that corruption is perceived to be pervasive and endemic and that it is unlikely to have good net effects, particularly in developing countries. Heynemann (2004) defined corruption in education as the abuse of authority for personal as well as material gain. Heynemann considered education corruption in light of its detrimental effects on a country's economic success. Heynemann argued that an untrustworthy school system adversely impacts a country's social cohesion. He defined the characteristics of an education system free of corruption to mean:

- Equal access to educational opportunity.
- Fair distribution of educational materials and curricula.
- Fair and transparent criteria for selection of students.
- Fair acquisition of educational goods and services.
- Professional standards of conduct by administrators and teachers in both public and private institutions.

Therefore, an educational system that lacks any of these characteristics suffers from corruption. In the case of Malawi, most Malawians view corruption as being a major constraint to development. In Malawi, a Governance and Corruption Diagnostic survey

(2006) found that most public agencies were rated low in terms of honesty and integrity. Political parties and Members of Parliament (MPs) were seen as being the institutions or personalities with the least integrity or more dishonest. The survey results indicated that 9 out of 10 citizens believe that corruption is a serious problem, and 70% of the citizens believe that corruption has gotten much worse over the last ten years.

While there is consensus among policymakers and informed members of the public that corruption involves the use of public office for private motives or gains, there is a lack of agreement on its causes. Hussein (2005) noted that a range of propositions are advanced, including greed, immorality and unethical conduct by leaders and centralized power. Therefore, it can be argued that conditions that promote its growth and advancement include unethical individual behavior, structural and administrative deficiencies in the management of public affairs, high inflation and low salaries in the public services, lack of supervision, uncontrolled and unaccountable centers of power, long and cumbersome procedures, and meagre pensions.

All sectors of the Malawi economy suffer from widespread corruption. For example, a high-level corruption case involving the diversion of public funds broke out in late 2013. US\$250 million of public revenues were siphoned by public officials into private bank accounts. The case, which became known as “Cashgate,” triggered foreign donors to withhold US\$150 million in aid to Malawi (GAN Integrity, 2017). Corruption has also affected educational institutions, with problems ranging from teachers asking for

bribes in return for passing grades to school officials asking for extraordinary payments to allow students to write examinations.

Because of wide-spread corruption, there is poor service delivery even in educational institutions. According to the World Bank (2006) survey, low salaries, lack of incentive mechanisms for public officials, and lack of corruption-reporting systems were found to be the top three reasons for public sector corruption in Malawi. The study also found that the imbalance between basic needs and the material resources available to public officials, especially in the lower ranks, is an important driver of corruption (Hussein, 2005). These officers tend to indulge in corrupt practices in exchange for the basic necessities of life, which they cannot otherwise manage from their meagre salaries. This explains why there is low morale among teachers in Malawi, which contributes to poor teaching and learning. Because of poor teaching, the students end up cheating during examinations.

Hussein (2005) asserted that since corruption involves use of public resources that could have been utilized for social welfare services, it robs a country of its capital for investment, which is necessary for economic development. Furthermore, corruption victimizes the poor, since it perpetuates poverty in developing countries. Therefore, corruption erodes democracy and principles of good governance. In the context of Malawi, corruption is regarded as the disease that is devouring the flesh of the nation and needs to be prevented or eliminated. If corruption is not checked, it grips the whole of society and eats into every fabric, and it becomes a way of life.

Causes of Cheating

Though the students participating in this study did not openly admit to having cheated, their recollection of past cheating behavior indicated variations in cheating patterns. Teachers, however, recollected their past cheating behavior as they reported having been assisted by their teachers during their primary school days. One teacher revealed that his former teachers actually dictated answers when he and other students were writing Primary School Leaving Certificate Examinations. This explains that the cheating tendencies are not new. The only difference is that in the past, cheating cases were not reported.

In addition, the teachers indicated that cheating was common among tertiary students as one teacher reminded the group about the “Mzuzu Corner.” According to this teacher, Mzuzu Corner referred to the syndicate where lectures from the northern part of the country would leak examinations to students who also came from the northern part. Like the students, the teachers were also in agreement that cheating is unfair to students who study hard for the examinations, and believed that students’ academic dishonesty would affect their behavior in future employment.

The findings of the study reveal that there are a number of causes or factors that contribute to examination malpractice. All the respondents agreed with the fact that all the 24 causes that were listed in the questionnaire did indeed contribute to examination malpractice among secondary school students in Malawi, though some were of a lesser degree of seriousness. Laziness was one of the factors that contribute to examination

malpractice. Laziness is more pronounced among students in public schools due to generally uncondusive learning environment owing to, among many other factors, over-enrollment, inadequate teaching and learning facilities, lack of discipline, and lack of motivation by teachers due to poor incentives. Both students and teachers, however, indicated that students are to blame for their laziness. It transpired that most of the students, especially those who commute from home to school, have little time for studies. Either they do not want to study or they are occupied by household chores. It was observed that some students spend their time doing things that do not profit their education such as watching videos. In some cases, parents do not take interest in checking into their children's education. The fact is that many students do not take their studies seriously, and when the time comes for them to sit for examinations, they tend to think of cheating. This finding corroborated the findings of Petters and Okon (2014), who found that the student-related factors such as reluctance to work hard, lack of positive self-concept, and lack of effective study habits came second to societal preference for paper qualifications as motives for cheating.

Another cause of examination malpractice is insufficient student and teacher preparation for examinations. Insufficient student preparation for examinations has been attributed to several factors. This could be a result of either teachers' or students' absenteeism from classes. When students absentee themselves from classes, it affects their learning, which in turn leads to cheating. For example, when students miss lessons, especially practical lessons, they may not be able to answer questions in examinations since the questions asked require students to apply theory to practice. In Malawi, some

students miss classes for no good reason at all. Sometimes, they come to school but decide not to attend classes for no reason at all. They leave home readily, but when they come to school, they are always seen walking around the school doing nothing. When teachers try to caution them, they pick quarrels with the teachers, and threaten to deal with them. These are the students who are always causing problems in schools. The findings support the results of Chianson and Otor (2013) who observed that unpreparedness of students for examinations is one of the causes of examination malpractice. They noted that students who fail to prepare well for their examinations generally develop examination fever or tension. Because of this, they are unable to retain concepts learned and they experience difficulty in retrieving the information during examinations. The findings also support the results of Suleman et al. (2015) who found that in a school where there is lack of teaching staff, students are not prepared adequately for examinations. They observed that most of the students have no time for their studies. They spend their time in attending parties and joining peers who are involved in activities that do not profit their education. This is true with Malawian students, who sometimes spend much of their time watching movies and playing soccer. The findings also support the results of Adeyemi (2010). Adeyemi concluded that students were not well prepared and groomed for examinations; nevertheless, they wanted to pass the examinations by all means.

These findings are also corroborated by the results of Saraj (2006), who established that inadequate preparation for examinations was a major cause of examination malpractice among students in Pakistan. The study found that secondary

school students in Masaba District were not adequately prepared for examinations.

Students were found to spend more time doing non-academic tasks such as tilling land and doing domestic chores than studying. The study also established that many students did not take their studies seriously as quite a number of them absented themselves from school. This state of affairs led to greater temptations to cheat in examinations.

Inadequate student preparation for examinations has also been attributed to teachers who continuously miss their classes, which in turn leads to teachers' inability to cover the syllabus in full. In some cases, teachers just give the students notes to copy without going through them to make sure that students understand the concepts. This means that those students who are not taught at all or are poorly taught are prone to examination malpractice. These students are at a disadvantage when compared to their friends who have been well taught. To them, they think that the only way to be on par with their friends who have been well prepared for examinations, and to pass the examinations, is to cheat.

The behavior of some teachers leaves a lot to be desired. They can decide to miss classes at will and without remorse. Teachers argue that the salary they are paid is not commensurate with the amount of work they do. Others miss classes to run their own businesses that would give them money to add on to their salary. Others decide to miss classes even if they are present at the school. In addition, they like to pick quarrels with their principals when they are reprimanded. Generally speaking, there is lack of discipline among some teachers as well as students. The findings support the results of Kpangban, Akaka, and Umudhe (2008) who found that a lot of the students complained that many of

their teachers did not come to teach them regularly. Some, who came, taught them so badly that a greater percentage of the class could not internalize anything. Similarly, the findings of this study support the results of Akaranga and Ongong (2013) who found that 295 student-respondents accused their lecturers for making students prone to examinations irregularity by not covering the syllabus as indicated in the course outline.

The other reason why students seem to be ill-prepared for examinations is that some teachers are not well grounded in school-based assessment to enable them to tailor their class-based examinations to the national examinations. The current impression about teaching in Malawi is that teachers tend to focus on examinations. It has been observed that when MANEB changes examination format, school-based assessment adopts MANEB examination format. However, the teachers who participated in the study indicated that not many teachers are well-grounded in school-based assessment to reflect questions that may come during MANEB examinations. Therefore, to successfully carry out school-based assessment, teachers need to have some competence in a number of areas. First, teachers should be skilled in developing assessment methods appropriate for instructional decisions. They should know and follow appropriate principles for developing and using assessment methods in their teaching. Second, teachers should be skilled in administering, scoring, and interpreting the results of the tests that they produce (Nitko, 1996).

Another cause that contributes to examination malpractice is the desire among students to pass examinations at all costs. In Malawi, students are awarded an MSCE certificate at the end of four years, and after passing six subjects with at least a credit in

one of the subjects including English. For this reason, examinations in Malawi have very high stakes. Both teachers and the students indicated that because of this, high-stakes examinations are considered by students as well as parents to be a determinant of opportunities in life. Students who score high in public examinations are able to secure places for further education. Promotion and entry into university decisions are made on the basis of test scores from these examinations. Having an MSCE certificate also gives the students a better chance of being employed. For this reason, the teachers and students indicated that the students are tempted to cheat in order to get admission into the universities and colleges, or get employment. The findings of this study support the results of Petters and Okon (2014) study, which ranked societal preference for paper qualifications as the leading cause of examination malpractice. They argued that the desire by students to pass examinations indicates that students in most schools do not aim to acquire skills but obtain certificates which they can use to get employment, which consequently leads to underachievement in the labor market.

The findings also support the results of Jega (2006) who indicated that societal factors such as the desire for certificate or paper qualification were responsible for examination malpractice. Jega argued that most students believe that the possession of a certificate by any means is a necessity since certificates serve as a gate-way to a successful future life. Jega asserted that because much emphasis is placed on paper qualifications, it has led to impersonation or certificate forgery. Omemu (2015) also contended that Nigeria's education system is largely certificate and good grades-oriented. Omemu argued that parents, school management, and others tend to push harder on

students to get the certificates and good grades by any means necessary. As a result, they place a lot of value and emphasis on certificates instead of knowledge, skills, and competence, which in the end leads to many school leavers having certificates without knowledge and skills to go with them.

However, it is not only students who desire to pass the examinations at all costs. Teachers, too, derive a lot of satisfaction when their students perform well in the examinations. This is because the examinations also measure the success across the schools. The national examination results are often regarded as a reflection of how well the content that the examination assessed was taught. In view of this fact, the national examinations have also reflected teacher-competence with respect to the content in which instruction was offered. Some of the teachers who participated in the focus groups said:

Some schools cheat because they want to make a name in their district. The teachers who cheat want to prove to the communities that they know how best to teach. When this happens, parents transfer their children from other schools to these schools where students seem to do well in national examinations.

It is, therefore, not surprising that the quality of teaching and the worth of the school is judged by the teacher's output in terms of students that pass examination on the subject matter the teacher taught. Consequently, the stakes of national examinations affect teachers as much as they affect their students. The fear of examination consequences have been responsible for increased teacher-desperation and anxiety, which sometimes culminate in teacher-collaborated cheating. Examinations, therefore, have become a driving force for both the students and the teachers not just to work hard in class but also to find dubious ways of making sure that the students pass at all costs, especially when

the teachers feel that the students are not well-prepared for the examinations. Therefore, as long as the teachers feel inadequate and become anxious about the consequences of the upcoming examinations, they will, by all means, seek ways to improve students' achievement scores.

These results are also supported by the findings of Adeyemi (2010) whose study revealed that school pressure for good results is another important factor contributing to examination malpractice. Adeyemi argued that teachers in such schools use all possible means and sources to improve their results and position in the society as an important indicator for parents to choose a school for their children.

Another cause that contributes to examination malpractice is lack of appropriate punishment measures for offenders. Although the examining Board has stepped up security of examinations by instituting security measures at the Board premises during test development; in the field during delivery and administration of examinations; and by conducting spot-checks to monitor proper conduct of examinations in the centers, this does not stop students from cheating. MANEB accepts that there are elements of cheating that occur in the examination halls. It is upon this premise that the teachers and students feel that the present fines are not punitive enough to deter people from indulging in examination malpractice. For example, section 7(a) of the MANEB Act states that any person who, being involved in the enrolment and registration of candidates for national examinations, fails to comply with, or contravenes, any regulations in relation to the conduct of national examinations, shall be guilty of an offence and liable to a fine of K300, 000 and imprisonment for ten years. Also MANEB (Amendment) Act, 2003,

Section 14 (4b) states that any candidate who possesses or uses, in an examination room where national examinations are being conducted, any reference material or any other unauthorized equipment or instrument shall be guilty of an offence and liable to a fine of K50, 000 and imprisonment for two years (Malawi National Examinations Board Act, 2003).

Cheating takes a bit of time to plan, and usually those who cheat are the ones who know the consequences of cheating and have the resources to bail themselves out if convicted, or their relatives are able to come to their rescue. This is the reason why the present fines and penalties were thought not to be deterrent to would-be offenders. In addition to other measures that are currently being used to help curb examination malpractice, such as educating the people about the evils of cheating, the government should revise the penalties for those involved in examination malpractice, if Malawi is to win the fight against cheating. The results support the findings of Adeyemi (2010) who established that non-implementation of the examination malpractices Act by the government was one of the causes of examination malpractice in secondary schools in Nigeria. He further explained that in the past, no culprit was punished and hence many students continued to get involved in examination malpractice.

The findings also show that corruption to assist others to cheat is one of the causes that contribute to examination malpractice. Although corruption is a broad term, in this context it means the use of money or other material gifts used to illegally acquire examination materials or have prior knowledge of examinations questions. Corruption can also extend to paying supervisors and invigilators when school authorities connive

with such supervisors to help students cheat. According to Centre for Social Concern (2011), corruption in Malawi had affected educational institutions, with problems ranging from teachers asking for bribes in return for passing grades, to school officials asking for extraordinary payments to allow students to write exams. Concerns about examination leakage had dissipated in the wake of a 2007 examination scandal when examinations became available for purchase on the black market. In 2013, the then executive director admitted that examination malpractice had become a form of corruption affecting the national education system (Sharra, 2015). Because of poor service delivery almost in every sector of economy, people are tempted to engage in corruption in order to get best services. The results support the findings by Gbenda (2008) who found that some examiners intentionally made mistakes in adding up the marks earned by some candidates, and in some institutions of higher learning students went to lecturers after examinations with gifts for the purpose of altering their scores. Kayode (2006) also found that during collation of results, some examiners collected bribes from prospective candidates to alter their exams. He added that some of the malpractice was carried out by computer operators who were in charge of typing the results.

The results also support the findings of Ada (2006) who found that as a form of corruption, miracle centers and schools were established in Nigeria where all forms of examination malpractice were perpetuated. In those miracle centers and schools, special fees were charged for the purpose of aiding and abetting examination malpractice. Principals were collecting un-receipted money, which they used to share with their collaborating agents. In extreme cases, and according to Gbenda (2008), the proprietors

of the miracle centers would bribe West African Examinations Council (WAEC) staff for excellent scores for their candidates.

Methods of Cheating

There is remarkable consistency in the literature as to what behaviors count as cheating, especially on examinations. For example, McCabe and Bowers (1994) and McCabe and Trevino (1996a) define the parameters of cheating on tests or examinations as:

1. Copying from another test or exam.
2. Helping someone on a test.
3. Using a crib note.
4. Copying from someone without their knowledge.

The results of the study indicate that various methods of cheating are practiced during examinations. One of the methods used to cheat during examinations is when students bring prepared answers to examination halls. This is the most common method of cheating which the students identified. It relates to the introduction of unauthorized materials into the examination halls such as crib notes, or in some cases note-books. The materials are frequently smuggled in pants, shoes, hems, and in bras. This happens mostly if the supervisors are not vigilant enough when searching the candidates before entering the examination halls. Again, this goes back to the issue of teachers' commitment and integrity in discharging their duties. Some supervisors are just interested in receiving the money without paying attention to the demands of their job. They do not care what the outcomes will be like. What matters most to them is money, nothing else.

Such teachers are the ones who put the teaching profession in jeopardy. The result supports the findings of Nyamwange et al. (2013) who found that smuggling foreign materials into examination rooms was the most commonly used method to cheat in examinations in Kenya. Their results showed that form three students (13.6%) were found to cheat more by smuggling foreign materials to examination rooms than form twos (12.1%). The results also indicated that boys (17.6%) cheated more by smuggling items into examination rooms compared to girls (15.8%). This finding was also corroborated by Adeyemi (2010); Oko and Adie (2016); and Petters and Okon (2014).

Sometimes, the opportunity to cheat presents itself spontaneously (Ferrell & Daniel, 1995); for some, however, cheating is meticulously planned, rationally calculated, and painstakingly premeditated. It is erroneous to believe, however, that all students cheat with sophistication, their “ingenuity” being used to outwit unsuspecting teachers. Bluntly put, some tactics do not take much creativity at all, and only require minimal vigilance from supervisors to deter-and catch-students from cheating. Shon (2006) argued that some cheating methods are just uncouth and unimaginative, whereby students sit in the back of the room and blatantly whisper answers back and forth to one another. However, there are times when students use methods to cheat in collaboration with peers. One such method of cheating is copying another student’s work during the actual writing process. This practice is exacerbated by overcrowding in the examination halls. Some of the students who participated in the focus groups said:

This usually happens to students who sit next to each other. When we are told to write down our examination numbers on the answer sheets, the students who have

agreed to cheat do not write their numbers. Each one of them answers the questions they know. Then they exchange the answer sheets so that the other friend completes the questions which the other students felt difficult. At the end, they exchange again. This is the time they write their examination numbers on the answer sheets. However, they make sure that their hand-writing is similar.

Houston (1977) opined that the role of large classes, auditoriums, and format of examinations has been demonstrated to be linked to student cheating. Shon (2006) also argued that environmental factors such as class size, setting, and the slope of the room facilitate cheating. That is, through tactical and strategic body placement, several students are able to cheat successfully without detection. In Malawi, some of the learning conditions are deplorable. Because of inadequate learning facilities, such as classrooms, students in some cases learn under trees. This is more prevalent in Community Day Secondary Schools than conventional secondary schools, where schools are largely managed by the communities. Unlike other types of secondary schools such as convention secondary schools, Community Day Secondary Schools are heavily under-resourced. In some cases, teachers in these secondary schools are underqualified. The findings support the data collection instruments used by prior researchers which demonstrate a firm grasp of the way students cheat in examinations. The methods include: crib notes, peeking at someone else's answer sheet, writing the answers on the bottom of one's shoes, on top of desks, and hands (Baird, 1980; Franklyn-Stokes & Newstead, 1995).

Poor supervision also creates loopholes for students to copy from each other. When the room is overcrowded, this renders supervision during the examinations

ineffective. Sometimes poor invigilation is by deliberate design when supervisors are corrupted, or it is through sheer incompetence. Sometimes, poor supervision stems from apathy due to career and financial frustrations. Ineffective supervision is also compounded even more when there are very few supervisors in the examination room. This is the case with Malawi where one supervisor is assigned to oversee 50 candidates in a room, the reason being that MANEB does not have enough money to hire many supervisors to reduce the candidate/supervisor ratio. This finding also supports the results of Munachonga (2014), who found that all the respondents in her study regarded copying as very significant.

Collaborative cheaters deploy themselves in strategic ways in relation to “smart” confederates. If the “smart” person is not an accomplice, then the one whose work is surreptitiously copied is not a passive cheater but a victim of theft (Bunn, Caudill, & Gropper, 1992). Thus, copying can be a one-man affair in which a student may copy somebody’s work without the other student knowing. In class-based examinations, the student-cheater chooses as a victim the person who is intelligent, and situates herself or himself to the immediate left or right and rear. In the process of writing, the student-cheater stretches the neck in order to copy what the other candidate is writing. This method has also been nicknamed “Giraffing,” taking after the animal giraffe which has a long neck. This runs contradictory to what teachers and supervisors normally assume about the nature of cheating and practice in the examination room since the tendency by most teachers or supervisors is to use direct surveillance to the corner and in the back of

the room where the “bad” students dwell and congregate, while leaving “good” students alone; but in truth, cheaters are not far from the good students. The results support the findings of Maheka (2015) who found that giraffing was one of the ways students used to copy from friends. One student said:

Giraffing does happen during examinations. That is why we all want to write from the school hall because there they don't leave enough space between the desks and so if you have a problem you can just look at your neighbor's paper and copy. It is only difficult to copy when you sit in front because there invigilators easily see, but at the back, you have four people to copy from.

Another method of cheating which was identified during this study is writing answers on body parts. All the respondents agreed that the method is simply a more advanced way of smuggling answers into the examination halls. This method of cheating is more frequently used by female students than male students. Female students may write answers on their thighs to elude thorough body checks by the invigilators. Sometimes, the students wear long skirts that come down to their ankles with a slit on both sides so that the answers become accessible. When they sit down to start writing the examinations, naturally, the skirt comes up a little, then they cross their legs, which makes them able to see all the answers they have written on their thighs. When the proctor passes by the desk, they uncross their legs to hide evidence of their illicit actions.

The obvious benefit of this method is that it utilizes a body part that is unlikely to generate suspicion; that is, teachers do not normally expect students to write things in sexually suggestive places; but more significantly, by writing the answers near a precarious place, it insulates the cheating student from trenchant surveillance and detection. The aim is to inhibit the confrontation by male invigilators who witness a

female student sliding up her skirt to sneak a peek at her upper thighs for answers. Should the invigilator be courageous enough to accuse such a student of cheating, the cheating student has at her disposal a trump card of her own. That is, the student is able to counter the invigilator's accusation with an accusation of her own: "Why are you looking at my legs in the first place?" Thus, by countering an accusation with another accusation, the student is able to realign the footing of the encounter in a way that now puts the male invigilator on the defensive. That is, the male invigilator must now deal with the student's accusation that suggests the pungency of sexual harassment. In this ploy, gender is a valuable resource that is employed as an innovative tactic for the sake of passing examinations, a tactic that is uniquely available primarily to female students.

Thus far, students who adopt illegitimate methods have shown that they take meticulous care to import and disguise their plans while feigning normalcy. Moreover, they prepare their notes, mentally rehearse their plans, and execute them with a vigilant proctor or invigilator already configured into the plan. This is one means of creative smuggling, which, according to Smith (2000), refers to the innovative and illicit means that students use to import unauthorized notes to the examination site, with the intention of defrauding an education institution out of academic credit for personal gain. The results support the findings of Jacob and Lar (2001) who found that body writing, in which students especially females write on hidden parts of their bodies, was one of the methods students use to cheat during examinations.

Another common method of cheating, which the teachers were not aware of during this study, is when students use signs to communicate answers. According to Eco

(1976), a sign encompasses everything that can substitute for another, or something that stands for something else. Consequently, the sign system is *inter alia* communicative; and similar to any communicative system, the relationship between the signifier (e.g., word, object) and the signified (e.g., meaning) is arbitrary; that relationship is established through usage and convention, sometimes by collusion.

Using signs is another method of cheating that is successfully carried out on multiple choice examinations. Usually this method works better between students who have colluded to cheat, when they sit facing each other. They normally cheat through silent communication. They would give each other a certain letter meaning. The students said:

Touching an eye would be A; touching a nose would represent B; touching an ear would represent C; and touching a chin would represent D. When either of them do not know the answer to one of the questions, they knock the number of the question out slightly on the desk and wait for the other student to touch the part of the body to signify the correct answer. Sometimes, to show the question number, the student who wants the assistance will raise fingers corresponding to the question number. For example, if the question number is 12, the student who wants the assistance raises the ten fingers at once and then two fingers in succession. That way, the other student would know the question number and touch the necessary body part.

Students would do this without catching the attention of the invigilator. This results support the findings of Ingram and Parks (2002) who found that the use of coded or sign language is often used by some candidates to cheat in examinations. For example, one may drop a ruler or a pen deliberately to draw the attention of a fellow candidate in order to facilitate their communication and accelerate the planned method of cheating. The results also support the findings of Shon (2006) who found that students would give

objects to represent a letter meaning. For example, A would be a pencil; B would be a pen; C would be a calculator; and D would be the actual test.

Using non-verbal communication methods of cheating is accomplished by using objects that have no inherent meaning to assign a letter value. This semiotic cheating is facilitated by the seating arrangement. Since students face one another, ordinary and harmless behaviors such as touching one's eye, nose, ear, and chin are mutually ratified to stand for corresponding answers. Should the teacher or invigilator suspect something and confront the students about repeated touching or scratching, this tactic gives the students a readily available explanation: a really bad itch.

Educational Implications of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate perceived causes and methods of examination malpractice in the Malawian education system. The results of the study exposed some educational areas where attention needs to be paid. It is not an exaggeration to say that examination malpractice is prevalent in Malawian schools. This bad habit is created by the students' desire to pass the examinations so as to get places either in secondary schools, in case of students from primary schools, or admission into the university, in case of secondary school students.

The study also exposed various causes and methods of cheating which students use. For example, some of the causes were laziness, insufficient student preparation for examinations, uncompleted syllabus and lessons, desire among students to pass the examinations at all costs, and leakages of question papers by examination officials or school authorities. Some of the cheating methods were bringing prepared answers to

examination halls, copying another student's work, writing on body parts and using notebooks hidden in the restrooms. Educationally, this implies that the achievement of educational goals will continue to be an illusion if cheating is not wiped out from the system. It is important to stress, therefore, that the fight against examination malpractice is not a one-man show. No single individual or stakeholder can effectively fight against this problem. To ensure total eradication of the problem from the education system and the country as a whole, there is a need for a concerted effort among all the stakeholders. The government, security agents, MANEB, examination officials, head teachers, teachers, and the society at large must join hands to fight against the malpractice.

The Government

One of the ways of dealing with the problem is to introduce effective and comprehensive legislation that provides for stringent penalties against the use of unfair means in examinations. The government should ensure that anybody caught in the act of examination malpractice be adequately punished irrespective of his status or position in the society. However, to do this the government must first ensure that there is a total fight against corruption. The government must demonstrate by action its firm commitment to fight and prevent corruption by ensuring that there is total independence in the way corruption cases are prosecuted by the Anti-Corruption Bureau. There should be no selective justice.

The government must also adequately fund the educational system by employing more qualified teachers, providing well-resourced schools, including teaching and learning materials. Like any other ministry, education should be a priority. It is apparent

that the fall in the standard of education is largely due to inadequate funding, which results in inadequate classrooms, teaching and learning materials, and motivated teachers. The Malawi Nation Education Sector Plan of 2008-2017, acknowledges the fact that the Malawian education system is facing a lot of challenges, one of which is to provide education of acceptable quality. For example, the secondary education sub-sector faces the following challenges:

- Inadequate supply of qualified teachers, especially in Community Day Secondary Schools.
- Inadequate basic infrastructure and teaching and learning materials.
- Low funding to the secondary sub-sector, especially CDSS receiving less resources than government and grant secondary schools.
- Partial implementation of the curriculum, which in turn negatively affects public examination administration and results (Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, 2008).

The problem is further compounded by the relatively poor terms and conditions of employment for all teachers, which have resulted in a poorly-motivated teaching force. The consequences of this situation are that the quality of education provided by the system has substantially deteriorated. It is important also to understand that teachers build the nation. They play an important role in capacity building, and they educate and train the students that form the workforce or labor of any nation. However, it is quite unfortunate that the negative attitude of the government, parents, students, and the society at large towards the teaching profession and the teachers dampens the hard-working spirit

of the teachers. This has negative effects on teachers' job performance. Despite the government realizing the importance of introducing appropriate incentives to teachers, very little is done to boost the morale of the teachers. Therefore, to reverse the situation, and to boost the morale of teachers, the government should start recognizing the important roles and contributions teachers make to the nation. For example, the government should bring the teaching profession on par with other professions in terms of promotion and recognition. It is also important that the government should ensure prompt payment of teachers' salaries and leave grants, and that teachers' promotions should be processed with minimum delay and effected when they are due. The government should also honor teachers' salary arrears without delay.

It is further worrisome to note that even though there are many teachers in the secondary schools with Bachelors and Masters Degrees, the government does not recognize the degrees in terms of salary adjustment, remuneration, or leadership positions. The effect of this is that the teachers are always on the look-out for better and promising opportunities in other organizations or private industry, while those who are unable to get out of the school system, continue to teach but with little enthusiasm and dedication. It is important to stress that if the government is to boost the morale of the teachers, it must look into the welfare of the teachers first. Unless this is done, teachers shall perform their duties with little dedication, strikes shall be the order of the day, and there will be no improvement in students' performance.

Teachers

Teachers are principal factors in the school system. They play important roles in ensuring that teaching and learning objectives are achieved. Without them, teaching cannot take place and students are not able to learn. In curbing examination malpractice in the Malawian schools, the roles of the teachers cannot be overemphasized. Teachers have the duty of ensuring that they adequately cover the syllabus and properly prepare the students for examinations. It is detrimental to the students if the teachers fail to adequately cover the syllabus, because the students will not be able to answer questions on topics not covered. As a result, this will be the beginning of student's chances to fail. That is why for not wanting to fail, the students engage in examination malpractice.

Cheating, whether opportunistic or deliberate, can be prevented when the rationale for this behavior is understood by the teachers. Both teachers and students are subject to the moral and ethical standards that form the basis for interaction in today's society. Honesty is required both by the teacher and students. In case of students' dishonesty, teachers should devise a consequence that helps the students learn that cheating is counterproductive. For this reason, teachers should provide guidance to the students. Teachers should make the students understand that there are appropriate ways to complete the work required in the course, and that students have the capacity to perform well if they work hard. This approach may also show the students that the effort involved in doing honest work is about the same as that for doing dishonest work.

Another active moral principle in the teaching/learning scene is when there is respect between the teacher and the students. Wade and Stinson (1993) observed that an

effective teacher assumes that all students are full-fledged members of the learning community, and that all of them are capable of learning. Thus, an effective teacher has high expectations of self-discipline. Teachers are responsible for providing the optimum environmental, social, and moral conditions for effective learning to take place. Teachers must stimulate positive motivation, must be thoroughly prepared for lessons, provide appropriate delivery of the subject matter, and provide opportunity for learning. They should use high quality instructional materials, deliver clear instruction, and provide for appropriate formative (corrective) and summative (final) evaluation of students' performance. Thus, it is important that teachers should work to the best of their ability and attend classes regularly. They should not attend classes just for the sake of fulfilling their attendance at the school.

Teachers should also go an extra mile to re-teach topics that proved hard to the students, and even help the weak students who may need extra help. Onuka and Durowoju (2013) asserted that teachers should appreciate that there are some students who are academically weak not because they do not have the potential but because they are faced with personal or family problems that affect their education. Thus, those who enter a class without a few of the needed academic skills or who are naive about the expected social graces, may need special help from the teacher beyond that of the majority of students. Wade and Stinson (1993) argued that respect for persons and fairness also means protection of vulnerable students in a learning situation. However, for this special help to effectively make sense to the students, it must be provided in a caring

manner. For thoughtful teachers, there is special joy in seeing growth in these students.

Teachers should have passion for their job.

Fairness in instruction is another moral principle which teachers need to model in instruction. Wade and Stinson (1993) observed that respect for the individual as a person is demonstrated when a teacher is careful to treat students equally in regard to individual attention, encouragement in the sometimes painful process of growing, and evaluation in meeting course goals and objectives. For this reason, teachers should establish positive teacher-relationships with the students, as fairness leads to trust. Because trust is reciprocal, teachers must take the lead for creating an ethical climate in the classroom. Galford and Drapeau (2002) opined that when trust is given and it is clearly visible that the person being trusted is acting in a trustworthy way, confidence in that person is assuredly increased. An effective teacher is a mentor, or trusted guide through an interesting, and occasionally hazardous journey. An effective mentor joins hands with the novice as they together walk through experiences that are new to one but familiar to the other. Teachers ought to show empathy, warmth, openness, and build trust in the students.

Teachers also have a special responsibility to establish and maintain a positive learning environment. This responsibility is taught by role modeling. Teachers can bring about positive behavior in students by the way they manage their classes. Thus, teachers and students have mutual responsibility: teachers must come to class prepared to teach, and the students should come prepared to learn. This is because there are times when students come to school just to cause problems in class. Teachers too should be seen to be

more of facilitators than authorities. That way, they will gain respect and inspire successful learning.

Teachers are the main focus of change and the anchor in the teaching-learning process. Omemu (2015) opined that teachers are like parents to children while they are in schools. For this reason, teachers ought to engage the students in a dynamic learning that is active and interactive on sound moral and academic foundation. Teachers ought to know that they are there in schools to produce students who are relevant, efficient, and productive, and who can excel in life positively. The teachers said:

It is very unfortunate that some teachers do not take their work seriously. No wonder, some may have joined the teaching profession because they had nowhere to go. However, teachers ought to know that quality teachers are those who have a positive effect on student learning and development through a combination of content mastery, command of a broad set of pedagogic skills, and communications/interpersonal skills. They are life-long learners in their subject areas, teach with commitment, and establish an environment conducive to learning.

Therefore, teachers need to remember that when they abandon their responsibilities and fail to properly cover the syllabus as required, they push the students to engage in examination malpractice.

School Principals

Leadership has very important impacts on the quality of the school organization and on student' outcomes. This is applicable to the meaning of leadership since leadership is all about organizational advancement. Particularly, it is all about organizing the organization (school) to achieve shared goals. Fullan (2001a) noted:

The person in the office of principal needed to be “an educational leader

who promoted the success of all students by advocating, nurturing, and sustaining a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth (p. 50).

School leadership, therefore, is an essential part of school effectiveness that helps students to reach their future success. Just like teachers, school principals have a role to play in fighting against examination malpractice.

Research reveals that effective schools that succeed are invariably led by a principal who is recognized as an instructional leader. Instructional leadership focuses on leadership functions directly related to teaching and learning (Murphy, 1988). In a broader view, instructional leadership also refers to all other functions that contribute to student learning, including managerial behaviors (Donmoyer & Wagstaff, 1990). To be truly instructional leaders and resource providers, the principals must organize personal, building, district, and community resources to achieve the vision and goals of the school. Effective principals view resource provision in terms of maximizing instructional effectiveness and student achievement. They view resource provision as much more than money or supplies, but as encouragement of human resources that help the faculty and students achieve success. Thus, the principals must demonstrate effective use of time and resources by planning, organizing, scheduling, and prioritizing work that is supposed to be done.

They should also delegate work as appropriate, assigning staff members according to their strengths. They should also demonstrate the ability to motivate staff members by stating clear expectations to the staff, providing clear feedback, and

convincing staff members that they are important instructional resource people in the school. Therefore, not only should the principals provide the required resources but also recognize that teachers thrive on being appreciated and acknowledged for good performance.

School principals in Malawi must learn to be instructional leaders by being actively engaged in the improvement of classroom circumstances that enhance learning. Through ongoing dialogue with the staff, the principals should encourage the use of a variety of instructional materials and teaching strategies. Thus, as instructional leaders, principals must demonstrate the ability to evaluate and reinforce appropriate and effective instructional strategies by knowing and sharing the latest research findings on teaching and learning with the staff and by expressing knowledge of effective strategies for students in different age groups. They should also supervise the staff using strategies that focus on improvement of instruction. Therefore, since teachers rely on principals to be sources of information related to effective instructional practices and current trends in education, principals should be tuned in to all of the pertinent issues and current events related to curriculum, effective assessment, and pedagogical strategies.

As communicators, principals articulate the vision of their schools. Their day-to-day behavior communicates that they have a firm understanding of the purpose of schooling and can translate that meaning into programs and activities within the school. Thus the principals should use communication as the basis for developing sound relationships with staff through behavior that is consistent, objective, and fair. Effective

principals use goals to provide a focus for communication, conveying support of the enthusiasm for goal-related work and for conveying school needs to district administrators. To achieve this, the school principals must demonstrate the ability to evaluate and deal effectively with others by engaging in two-way communication accurately, sensitively, and reliably.

Principals must also apply skills and strategies of conflict management that satisfy the interest of both parties in a practical and acceptable manner by seeing others' points of view and clearly articulating them in conflict situations; by displaying the ability to help others arrive at mutually acceptable solutions; and by managing conflict effectively. Principals must also demonstrate the skill in working as a team-member by assessing strengths and weaknesses of team members and by demonstrating the ability to integrate group and personal goals. Since interpersonal skills are crucial to the success of every principal, they should be able to communicate their beliefs pertaining to education, including the conviction that every student is capable of learning. It is these skills that inspire trust, spark motivation and empower teachers and students.

As a visible presence, the principals should be able to interact with staff and students in classrooms and hallways, attend departmental meetings, and be able to strike up spontaneous conversations with teachers. The principal's presence is felt throughout the school as the keeper of the vision. Thus, the visible principal constantly displays behavior that reinforces school values. The principal knows on a first-hand basis what is going on daily in the school. Therefore, as a visible presence, principals ought to be

visible to the staff, students, and parents at the school. This can be done by dropping into classrooms informally without disrupting the instruction process and actively participating in staff development activities. They should also work cooperatively with the staff and the community to develop clear goals that relate to the school's mission. This cannot be achieved unless the principals are able to express a clear vision for the school and organize people and resources to accomplish building and district goals. Therefore, the principals should be a positive, vibrant, and visible presence in the school.

Thus, school principals in Malawi should emphasize four sets of activities with implications for instruction: (a) developing the school mission and goals; (b) coordinating, monitoring, and evaluating curriculum, instruction, and assessment; (c) promoting a climate for learning; and (d) creating a supportive work environment (Murphy, 1988). In addition to being instructional leaders, the school principals should embrace transformational leadership which focuses on problem finding, problem solving, and collaboration with stakeholders with the goal of improving organizational performance (Hallinger, 1992).

Students

Teachers should help to reduce anxiety and liberate students from pressure of making mistakes. According to Harada (2011), this can be done by inculcating students the intrinsic motivation mindset. Dweck (2006) demonstrated this principle by describing two contrasting types of mindsets: a fixed mindset based on the belief that people's qualities are carved in stone, which results in a need for people to constantly prove

themselves, and a growth mindset based on the belief that people's basic qualities can be cultivated through their own efforts, which suggests that through application and experience, everyone can change. While students with the fixed mindset care how they are judged, those with the growth mindset focus on their own learning (Harada, 2011). In the case of fixed mindset, students avoid opportunities to learn if they know they might make mistakes (Muller & Dweck, 1998). When they actually make mistakes, or reveal deficiencies, they hide rather than correct the mistakes (Nussbaum & Dweck, 2007). They are afraid of making an effort to change and perceive such effort as a sign that they are inadequate. If they actually had ability, their thinking goes such effort would not be necessary. Once they face setbacks, students with fixed mindset decrease their efforts and consider cheating (Blackwell, Trzesniewski & Dweck, 2007).

In contrast, students with the growth mindset care about learning (Dweck, 2008), and correct mistakes (Blackwell et al. 2007). To such students, effort is viewed as a positive thing and if they face failure, they will intensify their efforts and look for new learning strategies. Dweck states from her extensive research that when such students meet challenges, they outperform their peers with fixed mindsets (Dweck, 2008). She concludes that, in the long run, a growth mindset fosters growth. Therefore, teachers need to inculcate in the minds of the students intrinsic motivation. That way, students will feel independent and be ready to face examinations without resorting to cheating.

Students need to be responsible for their work; cheating makes the students lose their responsibility for their own work. Students who copy other people's work feel that they do not need to do anything to pass their exams. All they need is to just turn in the

paper to their teachers and get the passing grade. Losing one's responsibility can create a lot of problems for an individual. Unless responsibility is taken for something done wrong, there will be no correction for now and in the future, and the mistakes will last forever. For this reason, students need to improve their study habits. Onuka and Durowoju (2013) argued that instead of wasting their time engaging in things that will not profit their education, such as watching movies, making unnecessary visits to friends, and browsing on the Facebook, they should devote their time to serious study. It is important for students to realize that a successful life requires hard work, determination, and sense of honesty, while dishonesty and laziness in examinations and other aspects of life lead to failure, shame, and disgrace.

Furthermore, by cheating, students lose the skill of creativity. Students who cheat do not put any effort into their work, which leads them to gradually lose their creativity level every time they copy other people's work or have someone do their work. This is because the more the students do their own work, the more they gain in their ability to think creativity. The ability to think creativity will play an important role in the world in the future. Otherwise if not, then the country will continue to produce graduates who lack the knowledge, skills, and the technical know-how to explore and develop all the resources of the country. For this reason, students ought to be motivated to develop the habit of serious studying and having confidence that they can face examinations without resorting to cheating. When it comes to success, students must find success in doing their best, in learning and improving. When it comes to failure, students must find setbacks

motivating, informative, and a wake-up call. They must also take charge of the processes that bring success and maintain it (Dweck, 2006).

Recommendations for the Study

The recommendations for this study draw on the findings and they elaborate on the strategies and appropriate actions that related authorities and stakeholders may want to consider in order to curb cheating. The suggestions formulated underscore the importance of teachers' participation in the design and implementation of the change initiative aimed at curbing cheating, as well as a broader and dynamic framework to use in designing and implementing successful national, divisional, district, and school-based change to curb cheating.

Bolman and Deal's Four-Frame Organizational Theory

The complex problem of student cheating should not be approached in a piecemeal fashion. Bolman and Deal (1997) reminded us that there is a tendency to examine issues and organizations through one predominant mental model or lens. The habitual lens we use allows us to focus and to respond routinely to issues according to readily available scripts or schemas. Unfortunately, relying on one lens also restricts our ability to see the whole picture and to consider the complexity of the issue. Thus, Bolman and Deal (1997) suggested that viewing organizations and issues through a Four-Frame Model helps us to move beyond narrow and mechanical thinking to a more expressive, artistic conception that encourages flexibility, creativity, and interpretation. Applying the Four-Frame model to the student cheating problem, we can begin to define the territory between organizational culture and best practices.

Bolman and Deal (1997) stated that the Structure Frame reflects a belief in rationality and a faith that the right formal arrangements minimize problems and increase quality and performance. The Structural Frame dominates the landscape of best practices in managing the student cheating problem. Many educational organizations have added academic integrity committees and policies, adjudication procedures and administrative support, typically through student affairs professionals (Whitley & Keith-Spiegel, 2001). Rudolph and Timm (1998) noted that while organizational structure can create an institutional framework for promoting academic integrity, an over reliance on structural aspects, however, neglects other influences on organizational change.

Second, the Human Resources Frame focuses on the relationships between organizations and people and the need for the development of new behaviors and practices (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Using this frame, students, teachers, and administrators can become committed to academic integrity and motivated to reduce student cheating. Some of the best practices have included implementing a values-oriented curriculum, and offering direct academic integrity education to both new students and cheating offenders (Whitley & Keith-Spiegel, 2001), and training faculty in the management and prevention of student cheating (Rudolph & Timm, 1998; Whitley & Keith-Spiegel, 2001). However, without attention to the contextual environment, such approaches will not be able to sustain organizational change.

Utilizing the third frame, Political Frame, Bolman and Deal's (1997) theory again reminds us that organizations are political. The existence of different interests and perspectives causes conflict and competition for power, attention, and resources. In the

case of student cheating, the unpredictability of student behavior and the conflicts between goals can cause high levels of ambiguity and uncertainty. Thus, it is critical from this perspective that coalitions are strategically formed to bring together members from across the interest groups. Student cheating research has demonstrated the importance of joint administrator, teacher, and student roles in planning and implementing an academic integrity system (Hadden & Davies, 2002).

The Symbolic Frame, according to Bolman and Deal (1997), sees organizations as cultures, propelled more by rituals, ceremonies, stories, heroes, and myths than by rules, policies and managerial authority. Examining the problem through this lens focuses leadership on problems of commitment, motivation, ambiguity, uncertainty, and conflict. Creating academic integrity symbols to manage student cheating has been a widely used approach in educational institutions. Such symbols include academic integrity talk in university publications (Rudolph & Timm, 1998), a learner-oriented curriculum (Whitley & Keith-Spiegel, 2001), and, most emphasized, an honor or modified honor code (McCabe & Trevino, 1996b; Whitley & Keith-Spiegel, 2001). A code or principle to which community members can tether themselves can be extremely important, because it gives people something to relate to outside of themselves (Huntington, 1968). However, although an honor code is a clear statement about student cheating, most researchers agree that it is not sufficient in and of itself (Whitley & Keith-Spiegel, 2001).

The problem of student cheating is naturally viewed in diverse ways given the lenses habitually used by various stakeholders. Gallant and Drinan (2006) argued that if this diversity is left unmediated, multiple realities are created, potentially leading to

system fragmentation and stagnation. By viewing the student cheating problem through all four frames, a strategic response that considers and honors the multiple dialogical realities can be generated. It is key for leaders to consider to what extent motivation, technical constraints, uncertainty, scarcity, and conflict (Bolman & Deal, 1997) are impacting the student cheating problem in their particular organization, and then to apply the four-frame model in order to generate a comprehensive, holistic approach.

Teachers' Involvement in the Planning and Implementation of the Change Initiative

Taking a closer and critical look at how change initiatives are carried out in Malawi, it reveals that teachers are not involved at all in the design or planning phases. This is true even when MANEB tries to come up with suggestions that would help to curb cheating. Even during the implementation phase, some district office officials are involved, leaving out the teachers. It is no wonder that the strategies formulated do not work as expected because the change initiative design, planning, and implementation disregarded the pivotal role of teachers and school principals.

For any change initiative to be successful, it must not be a one-man show. Instead, it must involve all relevant stakeholders who are directly involved with the change initiative. Indeed, teacher agency in the drive to stop cheating should never be undervalued. Unfortunately, the strategies that MANEB and the government have taken to curb cheating did not take into account teachers' contributions. Such exclusive and top-down practices are counterproductive because most of the time they lead to negative results, resistance to change, decreased motivation, and passive participation in implementation by those expected to implement the change initiative. In contrast,

inclusive and bottom-up practices that can help to find solutions to curb cheating are likely to yield positive results because teachers bring in their expertise and join their efforts in ensuring that cheating is dealt with. Teachers' contributions to the change initiative should be seen as of paramount importance, as Bascia, Carr-Harris, Fine-Meyer, and Zurzolo (2014) pointed out that "while it is common wisdom that educational policy arises from out of broad district, state/provincial, national or even international priorities, it is instructive to recognize why and how teachers have significantly influenced educational change" (p. 229).

Muhayimana (2015) argued that the collaborative framework in the planning and development process of the change initiative brings in a clear and comprehensive picture of needs, and based on the expertise of each and every one of the contributors, teachers cooperatively discuss possible hindrances and propose strategies, and means to overcome problems in order to achieve intended goals.

Creating a Supportive Environment for Change Initiatives to Curb Cheating

Any change process induces stress, doubt, concerns, negative attitudes, and uncertainties (Brecher, 2014). In such frustrating and disappointing situations, the role of leadership is more than needed to create and sustain a supportive environment that helps employees navigate the change initiative. Hall and Hord (2011) indicated that a context favorable to the change process is one of the necessary conditions for a successful process. They said:

A supportive context decreases the isolation of staff; provides for the continuing increase of its capabilities, nurtures positive relationships among all the staff, students, and parents/community members; and urges the increasing quest for

increased effectiveness so that students benefit from characteristics of a supportive context of change (p. 151).

Therefore, initiating, effecting, and institutionalizing change in a school does not just happen. Success for all students and school improvement are continuous challenges that each school and district works towards achieving. Fullan (2001a) argued that it is only by raising our consciousness and insights about the totality of educational change that we can do something about it. Therefore, understanding the dynamics and implications of change becomes a powerful means for the successful implementation of an educational innovation. School principals, just like teachers, educational managers at national, divisional, and district levels must be on the forefront initiating change with regard to combating students' cheating tendencies. For this reason, it is important that they know some of the dynamics necessary for implementing a successful change initiative.

Building collaboration cultures. In bringing this change, the principals and the education managers need to build collaborative cultures and be ready to welcome both collaboration and competition. They should ensure that everyone has a voice. This is because when people have a voice, they are able to contribute. Fullan (2001b) opined that the cultural change principal's efforts to motivate and energize disaffected teachers and forge relationships among otherwise disconnected teachers can have a profound effect on the overall climate of the organization. When people understand how their contributions fit into their organization's strategy, it gives them purpose. Since people want to feel a sense of belonging, the principals and controlling officers should ensure that

collaboration takes center stage because it helps create an environment in which people want to belong. To ensure collaboration, they should ensure that they establish trust amongst the people where everyone can openly express concerns, fears, and differences of opinion without fear of rejection, aggression, or retaliation. This is because when people feel disrespected and see their contributions going unrecognized and unvalued, they disengage and look elsewhere for opportunities to contribute. Both the school principals, teachers, and the controlling officers must share and build ideas, constructively criticize, and provide feedback as well as the vision and purpose.

Communication. Principals and controlling officers need to know that one of the factors that prohibits successful change implementation is when there is no proper communication between the change agents and the people. Fullan (2001a) noted that when things start to shift, people become unsure of what their duties are, how to relate to others, and who is in charge of what. When that happens, predictability and rationality give way to confusion and loss of control. Brecher (2014) observed that, in a change process where school leaders do not have enough time to meet with teachers, there is a strong likelihood of rumor, resistance, anger, confusion, and misinformation.

Some people will support the change, but for those on the fence or against it, you'll have to minimize their resistance, and that means communicating, reducing anxiety, selling and providing support. Communicate to educate and listen. Help people to see the logic behind the change initiative, which results in a greater buy-in and reduces misconceptions (p. 22).

To address this, a successful change implementation can take place if there is effective communication that informs various stakeholders of the reasons for the change, the

benefits of the change, as well as the details of the change. Specifically, the school principals and controlling officers are advised to provide abundant information to people about proposed changes and innovation, inform people about the rationale for change, hold meetings to address people's questions and concerns, and give those who feel the impact of the change opportunities to discuss how change might affect them. Positive feedback and reinforcement powerfully encourage people's participation and involvement. Thus, people can only support change if they have all the information about the proposed change.

Motivating. To successfully implement the proposed change initiative, the school principals and controlling officers are supposed to motivate the teachers. Motivation is the influence or drive that causes people to behave in a specific manner and has been described as consisting of energy, direction, and sustainability (Kroth, 2007). School principals and the controlling officers should ensure that they keep the teachers motivated. Carlisle and Murphy (1996) contended that motivating others requires skilled managers who can organize and provide a motivating environment: communicate effectively, address employees' questions, generate creative ideas, prioritize ideas, direct personnel practices, plan employees' actions, commit employees to action, and provide follow-up to overcome motivational problems. Therefore, the principals and the controlling officers must create a work environment that elicits teachers' motivation if the fight against cheating is to be won.

Involving others and promoting teamwork. This is another area which the school principals and the controlling officers in the Ministry of Education and at Education Division levels need to remember to ensure a successful implementation of the proposed change initiative. Glew, O’Leary-Kelly, Griffin, and Van Fleet (1995) opined that employee involvement increases workers’ input into decisions that affect their well-being and organizational performance. Kotter and Schlesinger (1979) posited that those allowed to participate meaningfully in change are more committed to its success because their relevant contributions are integrated into the change plan. It is advisable, therefore, that when deciding to embark on the change initiative, those leading the change should ensure that teachers and students who are the direct stakeholders be involved.

Related to involving others is the need to promote teamwork. This is because the synergistic benefits of teamwork enable members working cooperatively with one another to achieve more than by working independently (Trent, 2004). Studies have shown that social networks have important effects on team performance and viability. Balkundi and Harrison (2006) observed that teams with a dense configuration of connections within their social network tend to attain their goals more frequently and remain intact as a group for a longer period of time.

Implementation of the Change Initiative

Planning

Before the change initiative is rolled into action, there is need for planning. At planning stage, the change agents may consider critical issues as raised and agreed upon

at the needs analysis level. The planning process specifically implies methods and approaches to be used and the specific, manageable, attainable, and time-bound (SMART) objectives to be attained in a specific and defined time span. The planning activity should involve all educational stakeholders, including the Ministry of Education and MANEB officials; external experts in the educational leadership; local and international partners and funding agencies; District and Divisional Education officers; school principals; teacher union leaders; and parent and teachers associations' representatives. The planning committee needs to clearly define goals, objectives, and purpose of the change initiative. For a successful implementation of the proposed change initiative, educational leaders can decide to use Kotter's eight-step change model. The eight steps include: establishing a sense of urgency, creating a guiding coalition, developing a change vision, communicating a change vision for a buy-in, empowering broad-based action, generating short-term wins, never letting up, and incorporating changes in the culture (See Figure 9). According to Kotter and Schlesinger (1979), leaders must lead their organizations through the eight-stage model to create successful and permanent change. Skipping a step, making a critical mistake within a step, or jumping ahead prematurely can have a crippling effect on the success of the change initiative.

Actual Implementation

The implementation phase deals with making decisions that are aimed at translating the governments and MANEB's intentions into actions that will contribute to

solving identified problems and determining the policy's impact and effectiveness (Peters, 2013). During this stage, teachers in schools will ensure that messages about evils of cheating are disseminated to students and class-based tests are properly administered to ensure that no students cheats. The aim is to train the students to be self-reliant and prepared when taking examinations.

Evaluation

The evaluation stage is the last step of the change initiative process that involves different categories of actors depending on the type of evaluation. The purpose of evaluation is to render judgments about the value of whatever is being evaluated, in this case, the cheating tendencies (Worthen, Sanders, & Fitzpatrick, 1997). Evaluation should start at school level to assess how many cheating cases have been recorded, which later can be done at district or divisional levels. Finally, evaluation should be done when students have finished writing their national examinations. The aim is to see how many cases of cheating will have been recorded at the end of the national examinations, and to assess whether or not the strategies that were initially put in place during the planning phase have borne fruits.

Kotter's 8 Step Change Management Model



Figure 9: Change Process Model. Adapted from “Kotter’s 8 Step Change Management Model.” Copyright 2017 by Kotter International.

Recommendations for Further Research

Given the findings of this study, the following recommendations are considered for further research:

1. This study focused exclusively on teachers’ and students’ perceptions about causes and methods of examination malpractice. Further studies should be expanded to include education managers from the district, division, and national headquarters, as well as officials from MANEB.

2. This study involved teachers and students from public secondary schools only. It is recommended that future studies should include teachers and students from private secondary schools.
3. This study's scope was limited to one administrative education division (South East Education Division) which made its findings not generalizable to the rest of the country. There is need for a national study to determine nationwide teachers' and students' perceptions regarding causes, methods, and measures to eradicate students' cheating practices during examinations.

Conclusion

The success of an education system depends upon the effectiveness of its examination system as it is a fundamental component of teaching and learning process. The fundamental role of examination in educational process can be valued in light of the fact that good examinations are a source of motivation for students since they assist students in realizing their strengths and weaknesses. They also provide opportunities for the teachers to use new teaching methodologies in order to improve the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, examinations serve as a source for the assessment of students' achievement levels and assist the teachers to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching and learning methods for future improvement. However, in Malawi, examinations are affected by misconduct or wrong-doing both by the teachers and students.

The findings indicated that, while there are some common methods of cheating which students use, there are some methods which teachers do not know. This means that

students are continuously devising new methods of cheating to ensure that they pass the examinations at all costs. It is high time that teachers, as well as other stakeholders come together to fight against examination malpractice.

Clearly, the causes for today's student cheating in secondary schools are complex and stem from many sources. Thus, it is of great importance that educational authorities adopt a holistic institutional approach for addressing student cheating. Education must be a significant component of any effort to create a culture of academic honesty. It is crucial that students, faculty, and administrators discuss academic honesty expectations, policies, and procedures so that a culture of integrity, learning, and teaching can be fostered in the education institutions. Thus, Bolman and Deal's (1997) approach to change can inform newer, bolder, and more coherent strategies that can help to curb cheating. For this reason, educational leaders seeking to create new strategies for change must first acknowledge systemic cheating as a reality that is corrosive to the underlying values of education. Student cheating is not simply about morally underdeveloped students but an organizational and societal system that is affected by and that supports dishonest behavior. Acknowledging student cheating as corruption rather than as simple misbehavior will generate strategies that are less about managing cheating and more about institutionalizing academic integrity. This willingness to direct attention to the negative and address student cheating within the current system is the essential precondition to strategic planning.

However, it would be wrong to point fingers at the students alone. While the blame can squarely be put on students who actually cheat, the government, the education

managers at the national, divisional, and district levels, as well as teachers are also to blame. The government is to blame for not creating a conducive and favorable teaching and learning environment for teachers and students by its failure to provide the necessary materials in schools and raise teachers' morale. Education managers are to blame for their negligence in trying to reinforce the teaching ethics, which has resulted in teachers behaving irresponsibly, by among other things, reporting late for classes or not teaching the students at all. Teachers, including the school principals, are to blame for their lack of dedication to duties on the pretext of lack of incentives from the government. Some teachers of late have become so rebellious that they do not take advice from their principals, leaving their principals powerless to act.

It can be argued that in a school where the environment is not conducive for teaching and learning, students' academic performance falls below expectation, and in a bid to achieve success by all means, students engage in cheating. Examinations, along with other features of quality education such as appropriate curriculum, teacher capacity, and effective school leadership, is central to successful learning. Unless the government, through the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, brings sanity back into the teaching profession, students shall always find excuses for cheating, and the fight against examination malpractice shall be a nightmare. Education stakeholders and institutional partners must think and act collaboratively so that all the crucial features of quality education will be successfully addressed.

REFERENCES

- Abalo, J., Varela, J., & Manzano, V. (2007). Importance values for importance–performance analysis: A formula for spreading out values derived from preference rankings. *Journal of Business Research*, 60, 115–121.
- Achio, S., Ameko, E., Kutsanedzie, F., Alhassan, S., & Ganaa, F. (2012). Concerns on issues of examination malpractices: A case study of Accra Polytechnic. *Natural and Applied Sciences*, 3(2), 145-154.
- Ada, N. A. (2006). *The challenges of curbing examination malpractices in Nigeria's education system*. Paper presented at the 4th Faculty of Education National Conference, Makurdi, Nigeria.
- Adams, O. U., & Esther, O. D. (2013). Stakeholders' role in curbing examination malpractice in Nigeria. *International Journal of Economy, Management and Social Sciences*, 2(6), 342-348.
- Adelakum, A. A., & Lawal, D. A. (2008). *Examination malpractice: A major challenge to public examinations in Nigeria. (The WAEC experience)*. Paper presented at 26th AEAA Annual conference, Accra, Ghana.
- Adeyemi, T. O. (2010). Examination malpractices among secondary school students in Ondo State, Nigeria: Perceived causes and possible solutions. *Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies*, 2(3), 48-55.
- Adeyemi, M. B., & Adeyinka, A. A. (2002). Some key issues in African traditional education. *McGill Journal of Education*, 37(2), 245-255.
- Airaksinen, T. (1987). Berkeley and the justification of beliefs. *Philosophy and Phenomenology Research*, 48(2), 235-256.
- Akaranga, S. I., & Ongong, J. J. (2013). The phenomenon of examination malpractice: An example of Nairobi and Kenyatta Universities. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 4(18), 87-96.

- Akinseye, F. A. (2005). An assessment of examination malpractice, sexual harassment perversion and exploitation in the three higher institutions of learning in Ondo State. *NASHER Journal*, 3(1), 29-38.
- Alberty, S., & Mihalik, B. J. (1989). The use of importance-performance analysis as an evaluative technique in adult education. *Evaluative Review*, 13(1), 33-34.
- Aldridge, A., & Levine, K. (2001). *Surveying the social world. Principles and practice in survey research*. Philadelphia, PA: Open University Press.
- Alreck, P. L., & Settle, R. B. (1995). *The survey research handbook*. 2nd ed. New York, NY: Irwin Professional Publishing.
- Anderman, E., & Midgley, C. (2000). Most high school students cheat. *New York live Science Review*, 5-7.
- Anzene, S. (2014). Trends in examination malpractice in Nigerian educational system and its effects on the socio-economic and political development of Nigeria. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2(3), 1-8.
- Arends, R. (2004). *Learning to teach*. Boston, MA: McGraw Hill.
- Asante-Kyei, K., & Nduro, K. (2014). Inclining factors towards examination malpractice among students in Takoradi Polytechnic, Ghana. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(22), 1-9.
- Aullo, P. A. (2004). *An investigation into the factors contributing to examination irregularities in Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) in Nairobi Province*. Nairobi, Kenya: University of Nairobi.
- Awanabor, D. (2005). *Credentialing process in the Nigerian educational system*. Keynote address presented at the first annual conference of the Faculty of Education, Ekpoma, Nigeria.

- Badejo, A. O., & Gandonu, M. B. (2010). Predisposing factors towards examination malpractice among students in Lagos Universities: Implications for counselling. *Edo Journal of Counselling*, 3(2), 197-209.
- Baird, J. S. Jr. (1980). Current trends in college cheating. *Psychology in the Schools*, 17, 515-582.
- Balkundi, P., & Harrison, D. A. (2006). Ties, leaders, and time in teams: Strong inference about network structure's effects on team viability and performance. *Academy of Management*, 49(1), 49-68.
- Bamusananire, E. (2010). *Strategies for managing examination malpractices in public examinations: The Rwandan perspective*. Presented at the 28th annual conference of the Association of Education Assessment in Africa (AEAA), Abuja, Nigeria,
- Banda, K. N. (1982). *A brief history of Malawi*. Blantyre, Malawi: Dzuka Publishing Company.
- Banister, P., Burman, E., Parker, I., Taylor, M., & Tindall, C. (1994). *Quality methods in Psychology*. Buckingham, UK: Open University Press.
- Bardhan, P. (1997). Corruption and development: A review of issues. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 35(3), 1320-1346.
- Bascia, N., Carr-Harris, S., Fine-Meyer, R., & Zurzolo, C. (2014). Teachers, curriculum innovation, and policy formation. *The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education of the University of Toronto Curriculum Inquiry*, 44(2), 228-248.
- Bernbaum, M., Fir, K., Miske, S., Moreau, T., Nyirenda, D. Sikes, J., ...& Schwartz, B. (1999). *Impact evaluation. Promoting primary education for girls in Malawi*. Washington, DC: US Agency for International Development.

- Blackwell, L. S., Trzesniewski, K. H., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Implicit theories of intelligence predict achievement across an adolescent transition: A longitudinal study and an intervention. *Child Development, 78*(1), 245-263.
- Bloodgood, J. M., Turnley, W. H., & Mudrack, P. (2008). The influence of ethics instruction, religiosity, and intelligence on cheating behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 82*, 557-571.
- Bok, S. (1999). *Lying: Moral choice in public and private life*. New York, NY: Vintage.
- Bollen, K. A. (1989). *Structural equations with latent variables*. Thousand Oaks, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1997). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice, and leadership*. 2nd ed. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bowie, N. E. (1999). *Business ethics: A Kantian perspective*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Bowie, N. E. (2002). A Kantian approach to business ethics. In R. E. Frederick, *A companion to business ethics* (pp. 1-447). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
- Brace, I. (2008). *Questionnaire design. How to plan, structure and write survey material for effective market research*. 2nd ed. Philadelphia, PA: Kogan Page.
- Brandt, R. B. (1979). *A theory of the good and the right*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Brecher, N. D. (2014). Serving as an agent of change. The leaders' role. *Journal of Property Management, 79*(3), 21-22.
- Briggs, P. (2003). *Malawi, the Bradt travel guide*. 3rd ed. Rome, Italy: The Globe Pequot Press Inc.

- Briggs, P. (2010). *Malawi*. Guilford, CT: The Globe Pequot Press Inc.
- Bruno, U., & Obidigbo, G. (2012). The counseling implications of examination malpractices among university undergraduates. *Research Journal of Organizational Psychology and Educational Studies*, 1(2), 199 – 202.
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research methods*. 2nd ed. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Budd, J. W. (2004). *Employment with a human face balancing efficiency, equity, and voice*. New York, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Bunn, D. N., Caudill, S. B., & Gropper, D. M. (1992). Crime in the classroom: An economic analysis of undergraduate student cheating behavior. *Journal of Economic Education*, 23, 97-207.
- Burke, J. A., Polimeni, R. S., & Slavin, N. S. (2007). Academic dishonesty: A Crisis on campus- forging ethical professionals begins in the classroom. *The CPA Journal*, 3, 123-130.
- Busayo, I. (2008). Library intervention strategies against examination malpractices in tertiary education institution. In Achebe, N. (Ed.), *Library and Information Literacy for Higher Education*. 2nd ed. (pp. 65-89). Enugu, Nigeria: Nigeria Library Association.
- Carlisle, K. E., & Murphy, S. E. (1996). *Practical motivation handbook*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
- Carrell, S. E., Malmstrom, F. V., & West, J. E. (2008). Peer effects in academic cheating. *Journal of Human Resources*, 43, 173-207.
- Centre for Social Concern. (2011). *Malawi press review*. Retrieved from: [www.cfscmalawi.org/Press/2011-03 Press Review.pdf](http://www.cfscmalawi.org/Press/2011-03%20Press%20Review.pdf)

- Cesar, C. C., & Carvalho, M. S. (2011). Stratified sampling design and loss to follow-up in survival models: Evaluation of efficiency and bias. *BMC Medical Research Methodology*, 11(99), 125-140.
- Chakwera, E., Khembo, D., & Sireci, S. G. (2004). High-stakes testing in the warm heart of Africa: The challenges and successes of the Malawi National Examinations Board. *Journal of the Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 12(29), 1-21.
- Chaminuka, L., & Ndudzo, D. (2014). Students and staff perceptions on examination malpractice and fraud in higher education in Zimbabwe. *Asian Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences*, 2(2), 78-90.
- Cheating.com.au (2001, March 5). *Sydney Morning Herald*, p. 12.
- Cheats charter for the students of Jakarta. (2002, August 8-14). *Guardian Weekly*, p. 22.
- Chianson, M. M., & Otor, E. E. (2013). Degradation in the standard of teaching and learning due to examination malpractice. *Journal of Research and Methods in Education*, 3(2), 61-63.
- Chimombo, J. P. G. (1999). *Implementing educational innovations: A study of Free Primary Education in Malawi*. Sussex, England: University of Sussex.
- Chimombo, J., Kunje, D., Chimuzu, T., & Mchikoma, C. (2005). *The SAQMEQ II project in Malawi: A study of the conditions of schooling and the quality of education*. Harare, Zimbabwe: SAQMEQ.
- Chirombo, R. (2016). *MANEB tightens screws on exam cheating*. Retrieved from: <http://news.anoao.com/link/mw/www.times.mw/maneb-tightens-screws-on-exam-cheating/>
- Chirwa, G., Naidoo, D., & Chirwa, G. (2014). Curriculum change and development in Malawi: A historical overview. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(16), 336-345.

- Chiwaula, L. W. K. (2008). *Pupil absenteeism in Southern Malawi: The case of Zomba rural and urban education district primary schools*. Kobe University, Japan: International Cooperation Studies.
- Clabaugh, G. K., & Rozycki, E. G. (2009). *Preventing cheating and plagiarism*. Orlando, PA: New Foundations Press.
- Connelly, L. M. (2014). Use of theoretical frameworks in research. *MEDSURG Nursing*, 23(3), 187-188.
- Cook, J. (2009). *The Warm Heart of Africa: A brief look at the people, history and culture of Malawi*. Saginaw, MI: College of Business and Management.
- Cortina, J. M. (1993). What is coefficient alpha: An examination of theory and applications. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(1), 98-104.
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Crosby, C. A. (1993). *Historical dictionary of Malawi*. Blantyre, Malawi: Dzuka Publishing Company.
- Crown, D. F., & Spiller, M. S. (1998). Learning from the literature on collegiate cheating: A review of empirical research. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 17, 683-700.
- CultureGrams. (2008). *World edition, "Malawi."* Retrieved from www.culturegrams.com
- Decoo, W. (2002). *Crisis on campus: Confronting academic misconduct*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- DeGeorge, R. T. (2006). *Business ethics*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

- Denzin, N. K. (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Dillon, R. S. (1992). Care and respect. In E. B. Cole, & S. Coultrap-MCQuin (Eds.). *Explorations in feminist ethics: Theory and practice* (pp. 69-81). Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.
- Donmoyer, R., & Wagstaff, J. G. (1990). Principals can be effective managers and instructional leaders. *NASSP Bulletin*, 74(525), 20-29.
- Drost, E. A. (2011). Validity and reliability in social science research. *Education Research and Perspectives*, 38 (1), 105-123.
- Duska, R. (2002). The ethics of reward systems in the financial services industry. *Business and Society Review*, 104(1), 34-41.
- Dweck, C. S. (2006). *Mindset*. The new psychology of success. New York, NY: Ballantine Books.
- Dweck, C. S. (2008). The perils and promises of praise. *Educational Leadership*, 65, 34-39.
- Eckstein, M. A. (2003). *Combating academic fraud towards a culture of integrity*. Paris, France: International Institute for Educational Planning.
- Eco, U. (1976). *A theory of semiotics*. Bloomington, IN: University of Indiana Press.
- Ennis, C. D. (1999). A theoretical framework: The central piece of a research plan. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 18, 129-140.
- Ethics Handbook for Financial Services Professionals. (2006). *A handbook for insurance agents and other financial services professionals*. Los Angeles, CA: Silver Lake Publishing.

- Fasasi, Y. A. (2006). Quality assurance: A practical solution to examination malpractices in Nigerian secondary schools. *International Journal of Africa and African American Studies*, 5(2), 202-212.
- Fernandez, C.V., Kadish, E., & Weiler, C. (2003). Informing study participants of research results: An ethical imperative. *IRB: Ethics & Human Research*, 25(3) 12-19.
- Ferrell, C. M., & Daniel, L. G. (1995). A frame of reference for understanding behaviors related to the academic misconduct of undergraduate teacher education students. *Research in Higher Education*, 36, 345-375.
- Franklyn-Stokes, A., & Newstead, S. E. (1995). Undergraduate Cheating: Who does what and why? *Studies in Higher Education*, 20(2), 159-172.
- Fritzsche, D. J., & Becker, H. (1984). Linking management behavior to ethical philosophy: An empirical investigation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27(1), 166-175.
- Fullan, M. (2001a). *The new meaning of educational change*. 3rd ed. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Fullan, M. (2001b). *Leading in a culture of change*. Ontario, Canada: Jossey-Bass.
- Galford, R., & Drapeau, A. S. (2002). *The trusted leader*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Gallant, T. B., & Drinan, P. (2006). Organizational theory and student cheating: Explanation, responses and strategies. *Journal of Higher Education*, 77(5), 840-860.
- GAN Integrity. (2017). *Malawi: Malawi corruption report*. Retrieved from: <http://www.business-anti-corruption.com/country-profiles/malawi>

- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P.W. (2006). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. 8th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Gbenedio, U. B. (1993). Examination malpractices and communication problem. In Maduka (Ed.), *Examination causes, implications and remedies* (pp. 112-125). Benin, Nigeria: University of Benin Publications.
- Gbenda, B. L. (2008). *New perspectives in examination malpractices in Nigeria*. Makurdi, Nigeria: Academic Press Limited.
- Genereux, R. L., & McLeod, B. A. (1995). Circumstances surrounding cheating: A questionnaire study of college students. *Journal of Research in Higher Education*, 36, 687-704.
- Gilligan, C. (1982). In a different voice. Psychological theory and women's development. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27(1), 166-175.
- Glew, D., O'Leary-Kelly, A., Griffin, R., & Van Fleet, D. (1995). Participation in organizations: A preview of the issues and proposed framework for future analysis. *Journal of Management*, 21(3), 395-421.
- Granitz, N., & Loewy, D. (2007). Applying ethical theories: Interpreting and responsibility to student plagiarism. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 72, 293-306.
- Grcic, J. (2013). Virtue theory, relativism and survival. *International Journal of Social Science and Humanity*, 3(4), 416-419.
- Greaney, V., & Kellaghan, T. (1995). *Equity issues in developing countries*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Gregory, R. J. (1996). *Psychological testing: History, principles and applications*. 2nd ed. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.

- Governance and Corruption Baseline Survey. (2006). *Malawi: Governance and corruption baseline survey*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Millennium Consulting Group Ltd.
- Hadden, C., & Davies, T. G. (2002). From innovation to institutionalization: The role of administrative leadership in the assessment process. *Community College Journal of Research and Practice*, 26, 243–260.
- Hall, G. E., & Hord, S. M. (2011). *Implementing change: Patterns, principles, and potholes*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.
- Hallinger, P. (1992). The evolving role of American principals: From managerial to instructional to transformational leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 30(3), 35-48.
- Harada, N. (2011). Developing a growth mindset with Harry Potter. In A. Steward (Ed.), *JALT2010 Conference Proceedings* (pp. 2-7). Tokyo, Japan: JALT.
- Healy, M., & Perry, C. (2000). Comprehensive criteria to judge validity and reliability of qualitative research within the realism paradigm. *Qualitative Market Research: An International Journal*, 3(3), 118-126.
- Henningsen, M. L. M., Valde, K. S., & Denbow, J. (2013). Academic misconduct: A goals -plans-action approach to peer confrontation and whistle-blowing. *Communication Education*, 62(2), 148-168.
- Henson, R. K. (2001). Understanding internal consistency reliability estimates: A conceptual primer on Coefficient Alpha. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, 34, 177-188.
- Heynemann, S. P. (2004). Education and corruption. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 24(6), 637-648.

- Holkamp, G. (2009). *Researching the girls' dropout rate in Malawi. Why girls' dropout of primary schools and in what ways this rate can be reduced*. Windesheim, Germany: Hodge School.
- Houston, J. P. (1977). Cheating behavior, anticipated success-failure, confidence, and test importance. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 69(1), 55-60.
- Huntington, S. P. (1968). *Political order in changing societies*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Hussein, M. (2005). *Combating corruption in Malawi: An assessment of the enforcing mechanisms*. Pretoria, South Africa: Institute for Security Studies.
- Ifijeh, G., Michael-Onuoha, H., Ilogho, J., & Osinulu, I. (2015). Emergence of hi-tech examination malpractices in Nigeria: Issues and implications. *International Journal of Education and Research*, 3(3), 113-122.
- Ihejirika, J. C. (2005). *View point: The Nigerian society is to blame for examination malpractice*. Retrieved from <http://nm.onlinenigeria.com/templates/?a=3605&z=12>
- Imenda, S. (2014). Is there a conceptual difference between theoretical and conceptual frameworks? *Journal of Social Science*, 38(2), 185-195.
- Ingram, D., & Parks, J. A. (2002). *The complete idiot's guide to understanding ethics*. New York, NY: Alpha Books.
- Isangedighi, A. J. (2007). *Child psychology*. Calabar, Nigeria: Eti-Nwa Associates.
- Jacob, S., & Lar, T. D. (2001). *Forms and reasons for examination malpractice: Implication for national development*. Proceeding of the 16th Annual Congress of the Nigerian Academy of Education, Jos, Nigeria.

- Jega, M. A. (2006). Examination malpractice: Concept, causes, consequences and remedies. *Education for Today*, 6(2), 59-72.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. (2012). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. 4th ed. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Jones, T. M., Felps, W., & Bigley, G. A. (2007). Ethical theory and stakeholder-related decisions: The role of stakeholder culture. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(1), 137-155.
- Kabwila, V. (1995). *Factors affecting the implementation of English, Social Studies, Music, Chichewa and Mathematics curricula implementation in Malawi*. Brandon, Canada: Brandon University.
- Kadzamira, E. C., & Kunje, D. (2002). *The changing roles of non-governmental organizations in education in Malawi*. Retrieved http://pdf.usaid.gov/pdf_docs/Pnacp216.pdf
- Kadzamira, E. C., & Rose, P. (2001). *Education policy choice and policy practice in Malawi: Dilemmas and disjunctures. IDS working paper 124*. Brighton, England: Institute of Development Studies.
- Kant, I. (1988). *Groundwork of the metaphysics of morals*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kapulula, P. (2015). Malawi: Abolition of JCE examinations to promote continuous assessment in secondary schools. (2015, October 8) *Malawi News Agency*, p. 5.
- Kayode, A. (2012). Adoption of Latin square experimental design in minimizing cheating during examination. *International Journal of Computer Applications*, 5(18), 5-8.

- Kayode, B. (2006). Practical approach towards eliminating examination malpractice in Nigeria's higher institutions. *Journal of the Nigerian Society for Educational Psychologist*, 4(2), 262-268.
- Khan, I., Khan, M. J. & Khan, J. (2012). *Teachers' perception regarding malpractices used in examinations in urban areas of District Peshawar*. University of Peshawar, Pakistan: Munich Personal RePEc Archive.
- Kellaghan, T. (1990). Examination systems in Africa. In P. Broadfoot, H. Murphy & H. Torrance (Eds.), *Changing educational assessment. International perspectives and trends* (pp. 402-410). London, UK: Routledge.
- Kellaghan, T. (1992). Examination systems in Africa: Between internationalization and indigenization. In M. A. Eckstein & H. J. Noah (Eds.), *Examinations: Comparative and international studies* (pp. 95-104). Oxford, UK: Pergamon.
- Kenya National Examinations Council. (2008). *Examination rules and regularities*. Nairobi, Kenya: Kenya National Examinations Council.
- Khanje, C. K. (1999). *The Malawi National Examinations Board: Evils of corruption in examinations*. Zomba, Malawi: Malawi National Examinations Board.
- Khomani, P. (2003). *Curriculum development process and the Malawi experience*. Domasi, Zomba: Malawi Institute of Education.
- Kibler, W. L. (1993). Academic dishonesty: A student development dilemma. *NAPSA Journal*, 30, 252-260.
- Kitcharoen, K. (2004). The importance-performance analysis of service quality in administrative departments of private universities in Thailand. *ABAC Journal*, 24(3), 20-46.
- Kithuka, M. (2004). *Educational measurement and evaluation*. Egerton, Kenya: Egerton University Press.

- Kotter, J. P. (2017). *Change process model. Kotter's 8 step change management*. Retrieved from: www.facebook.com/KotterInternational
- Kotter, J. P., & Schlesinger, L. A. (1979). *Choosing strategies for change*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review.
- Kpangban, E., Ajaja, O. P., & Umudhe, S. E. (2008). Sound moral values and development of right attitudes as a panacea to examination malpractice in Nigeria. *Journal of Social Science, 17*(3), 223-231.
- Kroth, M. (2007). *The manager as motivator*. Westport, CT: Prager.
- LaBeff, E. E., Clark, R. E., Haines, V. J., & Diekhoff, G. M. (1990). Situational ethics and college students cheating. *Sociological Inquiry, 60*, 191-198.
- Lankshear, C., & Knobel, M. (2004). *The teacher research*. Maidenhead, England: Open University Press.
- Learning Resources Center. (2002). *Reliability, validity, and statistical analysis*. Retrieved from http://nursesweb.ucsf.edu/www/lrc_stats.pdf
- Lebeloane, L. D. M., & Nyamwe, L. (2014). Forms, factors and consequences of cheating in university examinations: Insight from open and distance learning students. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education, 15*(4), 1-22.
- Lewin, K. M., & Little, A. (1982). *Examination reform and educational change in Sri Lanka 1972-82: Modernization or dependent underdevelopment?* Brighton, England: University of Sussex.
- Liehr, P., & Smith, M. J. (1999). Middle range theory: Spinning research and practice to create knowledge for the new millennium. *Advances in Nursing Science, 21*(4), 81-91.

- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (2000). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 340-350). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Lincoln, S. H., & Holmes, E. K. (2011). Ethical decision making: A process influenced by moral intensity. *Journal of Healthcare, Science and the Humanities, 1* (1), 55-69.
- Lyons, D. (1994). *Rights, welfare, and Mill's moral theory*. New York, NY: Harper Collin
- Mackinnon, D. M. (2012). *Making moral decisions*. London, UK: S. P. C. K.
- Madaus, G. F., & Kellaghan, T. (1991). Student examination systems in European community: Lessons for the United States. In G. Kulm & S. M. Malcom (Eds.), *Science assessment in the service reform* (pp. 189-232). Washington, DC: American Association for the Advancement of Science.
- Maheka, G. (2015). *Nature and causes of examination malpractices in selected secondary schools in Kitwe District, Zambia*. Lusaka, Zambia: The University of Zambia.
- Maheshwari, V. K. (2011). *Malpractices in education: The termites destroying the educational setup*. Roorkee, India: Kanahiya Lal Dav PG College.
- The Malawi Government. (2000). *Education basic statistics*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Teacher Development Unit.
- The Malawi Government. (2002). *Teacher education and development review*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Teacher Development Unit.
- The Malawi Institute of Education. (2008). *Curriculum change*. Domasi, Zomba. Malawi Institute of Education.

- The Malawi National Examinations Board Act. (2003). *Chapter 30:04: Malawi National Examinations Board*. Retrieved from: <http://malawilaws.com/revised-laws/volume-iv/110-CHAPTER%2029-03EX-SERVICEMEN%C3%A2%E2%82%AC%E2%84%A2S%20MEMORIAL%20HOM.html>
- Malunga, L. B. (2000). *Presidential commission of inquiry into the Malawi School Certificate of Education (MSCE) examination results*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Ministry of Education.
- Martilla, J. A., & James, J. C. (1977). Importance-performance analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, 10(1), 13–22.
- Mashanyare, I., & Chinamasa, E. (2014). School examinations leakage: Cases of Zimbabwe Schools Examinations Council. *IOSR Journal of Humanities and Social Science* 19(4), 47-54.
- Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and personality*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Maxwell, S. E., & Delaney, H. D. (2004). *Designing experiments and analyzing data*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- McCabe, D. L. (2005). *Presidents report: The center for academic integrity*. Durham, NC: Kenan Institute for Ethics, Duke University.
- McCabe, D. L., & Bowers, W. J. (1994). Academic dishonesty among males in college: A thirty year perspective. *Journal of College Student Development*, 35, 5-10.
- McCabe, D., & Pavela, G. (2000, September 20). Some good news about academic integrity. *Change*, 32.

- McCabe, D. L., & Trevino, L.K. (1996a). Individual and contextual influences on academic dishonesty. *Journal of Higher Education*, 64, 522-538.
- McCabe, D. L., & Trevino, L. K. (1996b). What we know about cheating in college: Longitudinal trends and recent developments. *Change*, 29–33.
- McCabe, D. L., Trevino, L. K., & Butterfield, K. D. (2002). Honor codes and other contextual influences on academic integrity: A replication and extension to modified honor code settings. *Research in Higher Education*, 43(3), 357-378.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishers.
- Ministry of Education. (1998). *A policy and investment framework for education in Malawi 1999-2009*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education and the Malawi National Commission for UNESCO. (2004). *The development of education in Malawi- 2004*. Report presented at the 47th Session of the International Conference on Education, 2004. Retrieved from www.ibe.unesco.org/international/ICE47/English/Natreps/reports/malawi.pdf
- Ministry of Education Science and Technology. (2001). *Education sector policy and investment framework (PIF)*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.
- Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. (2008). *National education sector plan 2008-2017*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.
- Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. (2014). *Education statistics 2014*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.
- Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and Malawi National Commission for UNESCO. (2008). *The development of education: National report of Malawi*. Lilongwe, Malawi: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.

- Miyazaki, I. (1976). *China's examination hell: The civil service examinations of imperial China*. New York, NY: Weatherhill.
- Montgomery, R. J. (1965). *Examinations: An account of their evolution as administrative devices in England*. London, UK: Longman.
- Morse, J. M. & Field, P. A. (1996). *Nursing research: The application of qualitative approach*. London, UK: Chapman and Hall.
- Mueller, C. M., & Dweck, C. S. (1998). Intelligence praise can undermine motivation and performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(1), 33-52.
- Muhayimana, T. (2015). *How far have you gone? An analysis of perceived outcomes among mentees participating in a formal school-based mentoring program in Rwanda Kirehe District as a case study*. Cedar Falls, IA: University of Northern Iowa.
- Munachonga, M. (2014). *An ethical evaluation of the causes and effects of examination malpractices in Zambia: Case study of selected schools in Lusaka district*. Lusaka, Zambia: University of Zambia.
- Murphy, J. (1988). Methodological, measurement, and conceptual problems in the study of instructional leadership. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 10(2), 117-139.
- National Research Council. (2002). *Scientific research in education*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- National Statistical Office and ICF Macro. (2011). *Malawi demographic and health survey 2010*. Calverton, Maryland: NSO and ICF Macro. Retrieved from <https://dhsprogram.com/pubs/pdf/FR247/FR247.pdf>
- Ng'ambi, F. (2011). *Malawi: Effective delivery of public education services*: Johannesburg, South Africa: Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa.

- Nitko, A. J. (1996). *Educational assessment of students*. 2nd ed. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Njue, E. K., Muthaa, G. M., & Muriungi, P. K. (2014). Effectiveness of examination handling and distribution procedures in curbing malpractices in secondary Schools in Eastern Province, Kenya. *Creative Education*, 5, 573-579.
- Nnam, M. U., & Inah, A. F. (2015). Empirical investigation into the causes, forms and consequences of Examination malpractice in Nigerian Institutions of Higher Learning. *International Journal of Novel Research in Humanity and Social Sciences* 2(1), 52-62.
- Noah, H. J., & Eckstein, M. A. (2001). *Fraud and education: The worm in the apple*. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: McGraw-Hill Book.
- Nussbaum, A. D., & Dweck, C. S. (2007). Defensiveness vs. remediation: Self-theories and modes of self-esteem maintenance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 34, 599-612.
- Nwaba, E. I., & Nwaba, P. A. (2005). Correlates of examination cheating behavior among university students. *IFE Psychologia*, 11(1), 71 – 79.
- Nyamwange, C., Ondima, P., & Onderi, P. O. (2013). Factors influencing examination cheating among secondary school students: A case of Masaba South District of Kisii County, Kenya. *Elixir Psychology*, 56, 13519-13524.
- Okoh, E. E. (2014). Perceptual Evaluation of the causes and effects of examination malpractice among college of education students in Delta State. *African Journal of Education and Technology*, 4 (1), 127-135.

- Oko, S. U., & Adie, R. I. (2016). Examination malpractice: Causes, effects and possible ways of curbing the menace. A case study of Cross River University of Technology. *International Journal of Managerial Studies and Research*, 4(1), 59-65.
- Okorodudu, G. N. (2013). Peer pressure and socioeconomic status as predictors of student's attitude to examination malpractice in Nigeria. *International Journal of Education*, 5(1), 36-51.
- Olatunbosun, J. B. (2009). Examination malpractice in secondary schools in Nigeria: What sustains it? *European Journal of Educational Studies* 1(3), 101-108.
- Omemu, F. (2015). Causes of examination malpractice in Nigeria schools. *British Journal of Education*, 3(7), 34-41.
- Onuka, A. O. U., & Durowoju, E. O. (2013). Stakeholders' role in curbing examination malpractice in Nigeria. *International Journal of Economy, Management and Social Sciences*, 2(6), 342-348.
- Onyechere, I. (2006). *Examination ethics handbooks: An examination ethics projects*. Lagos, Nigeria: Protomac Books Ltd.
- Pannucci, J. P., & Wilkins, E. G. (2011). Identifying and Avoiding Bias in Research. *Plast Reconstruct Surg.* 126(2), 619-625.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publishers.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Peters, G. (2013). *American public policy. Promise and performance*. 9th ed. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.

- Petters, J. S., & Okon, O. (2014). Students' perception of causes and effects of examination malpractice in the Nigerian educational system: The way forward for quality education. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 114, 125 – 129.
- Pettifor, J. L., Estay, I., & Paque, S. (2000). Preferred strategies for learning ethics in the practice of a discipline. *Canadian Psychology*, 43(4), 260-269.
- Phadermrod, B., Crowder, R. M., & Wills, G. B. (2016). Importance-Performance Analysis based SWOT analysis. *International Journal of Information Management*, 4, 1-10.
- Pratt, D. (1980). *Curriculum design and development*. New York, NY: Harcourt Brace.
- Premeaux, S. R. (2004). The current link between management behavior and ethical philosophy. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 51, 269-278.
- Pyrczak, F. (2008). *Evaluating research in academic journals: A practical guide to realistic evaluation*. 4th ed. New York, NY: Pyrczak Publishing.
- Rachels, J. (1999). *The elements of moral philosophy*. 3rd ed. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill.
- Ramani, K., Ngala, M., & Ochichi, P. (2010). *Strategies for managing examination malpractice in public examinations*. Paper presented at the 28th annual conference of the Association for Educational Assessment in Africa (AEAA), Abuja, Nigeria.
- Rawls, J. (1971). *A theory of justice*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Reidenbach, R. E., & Robin, D. P. (1988). Some initial steps toward improving the measurement of ethical evaluations of marketing activities. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 7(11), 871-879.

- Reidenbach, R. E., & Robin, D. P. (1990). Toward the development of a multidimensional scale for improving evaluations of business: Ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 9*(8), 639-653.
- Rest, J. R. (1984). Research on Moral Development: Implications for Training Psychologists. *The Counseling Psychologist, 12*, 19-30.
- Roberts, P., Priest, H., & Traynor, M. (2006). Reliability and validity in research. *Nursing Standard, 20*(44), 41-45.
- Roig, M., & Ballew, C. (1994). Attitudes toward cheating of self and others by college students and professors. *The psychological Records, 44*, 3-12.
- Rudolph, L., & Timm, L. (1998). A comprehensive approach for creating a campus climate that promotes academic integrity. In D. D. Burnett, L. Rudolph, & K. O. Clifford (Eds.), *Academic integrity matters* (pp. 64–82). Washington, DC: National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.
- Ruwa, M. (1997). Examination malpractices: A Case study of the University of Maiduguri. *Maiduguri Journal of Educational Studies, 3*(10), 197-208.
- Saraj, A. (2006). *Examinations in Pakistan*. Lahore, Pakistan: Lahore Press.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research Methods for business students*. 5th ed. New York, NY: Pearson Education Limited.
- Schab, F. (1991). Schooling without learning: Thirty years of cheating in high school. *Adolescence, 26*, 61-69.
- Schulte, B. (2002, September 15). Cheatin, writin and rithmetic: How to succeed in school without really trying. *The Washington Post, 16*.

- Schumann, P. L. (2001). A moral principles framework for human resource management ethics. *Human Resource Management Review*, 11, 93-111.
- Schwandt, T. A. (2000). Three epistemological stances for qualitative inquiry: Interpretivism, hermeneutics, and social constructionism. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 221-259). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Sekaran, U. (2003). *Research methods for business: A skill-building approach*. 3rd ed. New York, NY: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
- Seng Wong, M., Hideki, N., & George, P. (2011). The use of importance-performance analysis (ipa) in evaluating Japan's e-government services. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Electronic Commerce Research*, 6, 17-30.
- Shahid, M. S. (2007). *Education in Pakistan*. 6th ed. Islamabad, Pakistan: Allama Iqbal Open University.
- Sharra, S. (2015). *Malawi at fifty-one: The educational legacies of Malawi Presidents hitherto*. Retrieved from: www.nyasatimes.com/malawi-at-fifty-one-the-education-legacies-of-malawis-presidents-hitherto/
- Shon, P. C. H. (2006). How college students cheat on in-class examinations: Creativity, strain, and techniques of innovation. *Plagiarism: Cross-Disciplinary Studies in Plagiarism, Fabrication, and Falsification*, 130-148.
- Shultz, T., & Brender-Ilan, Y. (2004). Beyond justice: Introducing personal moral philosophies to ethical evaluations of human resources practices. *Business ethics: A European Review*, 13(4), 302-316.
- Sica, G. T. (2006). Bias in research studies. *Radiology*, 238(3), 780- 789.
- Silva, F., & Fernandes, P. O. (2012). Empirical study on the student satisfaction in higher education: Importance-satisfaction analysis. *Management*, 293, 2.

Sip, K. E., Roepstorff, A., McGregor, W., & Frith, C. D. (2008). Detecting deception: The scope and limits. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 12(2), 48-53.

Six jailed over exam cheating. Educational officials and teachers caught giving answers to prospective university students. (2001, June 8) *South China Morning Post*, 15.

Smith, T. (2000). *Challenging academe's mystique: Applying criminology theories to college student cheating*. Dissertation. University of Albany, NY: School of Criminal Justice.

Smyth, M. L., & Davis, J. R. (2004). Perceptions of dishonesty among two-year college students: Academic versus business situations. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 5(1), 63-73.

The State University. (2016). *Malawi: History & background*. Retrieved from <http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/912/Malawi-HISTORY-BACKGROUND.html>

Stenbacka, C. (2001). Qualitative research requires quality concepts of its own. *Management Decision*, 39(7), 551-555.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (2008). *Basics of qualitative research: Grounded theory procedures and techniques*. 3rd ed. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Suleman, Q., Gul, R., Ambrin, S., & Kamran, F. (2015). Factors contributing to examination malpractices at secondary school level in Kohat Division, Pakistan. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 9(2), 165-182.

Sullivan, R. J. (1989). *Immanuel Kant's moral theory*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Synoeyenbos, M., & Humber, J. (1999). Utilitarianism and business ethics. In R. E. Frederick. *A companion to business ethics* (pp. 17-29). Oxford, UK: Blackwell Publishing.

- Taylor, S. J., & Bogdan, R. (1998). *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource*. 3rd ed. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Tellis, G. J., & Chandrasekaran, D. (2010). Extent and impact of response biases in cross-national survey research. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, 27(4), 329–341.
- Trent, R. J. (2004). Becoming an effective teaming organization. *Business Horizons*, 47, 33-41.
- Trevino, L. K. (1992). Moral reasoning and business ethics: Implications for research, education and management. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 11, 445-459.
- United Nations Development Programme. (2003). *United Nations Development report 2003*. New York, NY. United Nations Development Programme.
- Valerie, S. M., & Ritter, L. A. (2007). *Conducting online surveys*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Wade, B. K., & Stinson, R. F. (1993). Student cheating: Understanding and prevention. *NACTA Journal*, 13-20.
- Wamba, N., & Mgonezulu, V. (2014). The crisis in public education in Malawi. *International Journal of Advanced Research* 2(4), 323-331.
- Wellington, J. A., Bathmaker, C. Hunt, G., McCulloch, & Sikes, P. (2005). *Succeeding with your doctorate*. London, UK: Sage Publishers.
- West, T., Ravenscroft, S. P., & Shrader, C. B. (2004). Cheating and moral judgment in the college classroom: A natural experiment. *Journal of Business Ethic*, 54, 173-183.

- Whitley, B. E., Jr., & Keith-Spiegel, P. (2001). Academic integrity as an institutional issue. *Ethics & Behavior, 11*(3), 325–342.
- Wilayat, M. (2009). *Examination malpractice: Causes of examination malpractice/unfair means*. Peshawar, Pakistan: University of Peshawar.
- The World Bank. (1990). *The education system in Malawi: World Bank working paper no. 182*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- The World Bank. (2006). *Malawi: Governance and corruption baseline survey*. Geneva, Switzerland: The World Bank.
- The World Bank. (2010). *The education system in Malawi. World Bank working paper no. 182*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- The World Factbook. (2008). *Malawi*. Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/print/mi.html>
- World Info Zone. (2009). *Malawi*. Retrieved from <http://www.worldinfozone.com/facts.php?country=Malawi>
- Worthen, B. R., Sanders, J. R., & Fitzpatrick, J. L. (1997). *Program evaluation: Alternative approaches and practical guidelines*. 2nd ed. New York, NY: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Xu, Z. X., & Ma, H. K. (2015). Does honesty result from moral will or moral grace? Why moral identity matters. *Journal of Business Ethics, 127*, 371-384.
- Yusuf, F. A., Olufunke, Y. R., & Bamgbose, O. R. (2015). Factors responsible for examination malpractices as expressed by undergraduates of Osun State University, Nigeria. *Journal of Education and Practice, 6*(33), 75-80.

APPENDIX A

SECONDARY SCHOOLS EXAMINATION MALPRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE
FOR TEACHERS/HEAD TEACHERS



Secondary Schools Examination Malpractices Questionnaire for Teachers/Head teachers

Research Topic: An Investigation into Causes and Forms of Examination Malpractices in the Malawian Education System: A Case study of Secondary Schools in South East Education Division (SEED)

INSTRUCTIONS

Dear Respondent,

1. Below are questions pertaining to my research which is trying to examine causes that make students to cheat in an examination. The questions also intend to examine forms or ways which students use to cheat in national examinations in Malawi.
2. Please, truthfully and honestly take your time to answer the questions. Be assured that your responses will remain anonymous as there shall be no display of respondents' names.
3. Also, be assured that there shall be no any form of reprisals for any answer that you will give. It is your opinion that matters.
4. You should also know that participation in this study is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from participating anytime you feel so. No measures will be taken against you.
5. The responses you will give will be used solely for this study. They will not be shared to any other person or institution.
6. You should also know that your responses will be and remain anonymous as you will not write your name on the questionnaire.
7. Unless otherwise stated, you are supposed to answer all questions.
8. Please check your best response for each item.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey

If you have further questions regarding this survey, please contact me, Fiddelis Makaula at 0888375665

• •

PART 1

CAUSES OF EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE

Below are some of the **causes or reasons why students may cheat** during examinations. Please indicate your level of agreement with each statement.

Students

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Lack of discipline among students in the schools | | | | | |
| Insufficient student preparation for the examinations | | | | | |
| Desire among students to pass the examinations at all cost | | | | | |
| Students pressured by parents and guardians | | | | | |
| Students wishing to conform to peer pressure | | | | | |
| Lack of positive self-concept | | | | | |
| Lack of good study habits | | | | | |
| Laziness to work hard | | | | | |

Facility/ Testing Environment

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Inadequate learning facilities (e.g. classrooms, libraries etc.) | | | | | |
| Remotely-located examination centers so that MANEB officials do not reach those schools | | | | | |
| Crowded examination halls | | | | | |

Teachers and Invigilators

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Competition between schools | | | | | |
| Poor teachers' salaries | | | | | |
| Financial rewards to teachers for high performing students | | | | | |
| Insufficient preparation for the examinations among many teachers | | | | | |
| Examination-oriented teaching | | | | | |
| Spoon feeding mentality | | | | | |
| Incompetent teachers | | | | | |
| Uncompleted syllabus and lessons | | | | | |
| Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators | | | | | |
| Lack of appropriate punishment measures for students involved in examination malpractices | | | | | |

Bad habits/Behaviors

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Leakages of question papers by examination officials/school authorities | | | | | |
| Corruption by assisting others to cheat | | | | | |
| Sexual favors | | | | | |

Below are some of the causes or reasons why students may cheat during examinations. Please rank how **important** each cause is in addressing the causes of examination cheating.

Students

| | Not important at all to address cheating | Somewhat unimportant to address cheating | Neutral | Somewhat important to address cheating | Most important to address cheating |
|--|--|--|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| Lack of discipline among students in the schools | | | | | |
| Insufficient student preparation for the examinations | | | | | |
| Desire among students to pass the examinations at all cost | | | | | |
| Students pressured by parents and guardians | | | | | |
| Students wishing to conform to peer pressure | | | | | |
| Lack of positive self-concept | | | | | |
| Lack of good study habits | | | | | |
| Laziness to work hard | | | | | |

Facility/ Testing Environment

| | Not important at all to address cheating | Somewhat unimportant to address cheating | Neutral | Somewhat important to address cheating | Most important to address cheating |
|---|--|--|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| Inadequate learning facilities (e.g. classrooms, libraries etc.) | | | | | |
| Remotely-located examination centers so that MANEB officials do not reach those schools | | | | | |
| Crowded examination halls | | | | | |

Teachers and Invigilators

| | Not important at all to address cheating | Somewhat unimportant to address cheating | Neutral | Somewhat important to address cheating | Most important to address cheating |
|---|--|--|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| Competition between schools | | | | | |
| Poor teachers' salaries | | | | | |
| Financial rewards to teacher for high performing students | | | | | |
| Insufficient preparation for the examinations among many teachers | | | | | |
| Examination-oriented teaching | | | | | |
| Spoon feeding mentality | | | | | |
| Incompetent teachers | | | | | |
| Uncompleted syllabus and lessons | | | | | |
| Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators | | | | | |
| Lack of appropriate punishment measures for students involved in examination malpractices | | | | | |

Bad habits/Behaviors

| | Not important at all to address cheating | Somewhat unimportant to address cheating | Neutral | Somewhat important to address cheating | Most important to address cheating |
|---|--|--|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| Leakages of question papers by examination officials/school authorities | | | | | |
| Corruption by assisting others to cheat | | | | | |
| Sexual favors | | | | | |

PART 2

FORMS OR WAYS OF EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE

Below are some of the forms or ways that students use to cheat during examinations. Please indicate your level of agreement with each statement.

Students

| | Definitely not serious | Moderate serious | Neutral | Somewhat serious | Definitely serious |
|--|------------------------|------------------|---------|------------------|--------------------|
| Bringing prepared answers to examination halls | | | | | |
| Copying another student's work during the actual writing process | | | | | |
| Copying answers directly from modules or textbooks | | | | | |
| Hiring other people to write the examinations/impersonation | | | | | |
| Writing examinations in special centers noted for examination malpractices | | | | | |
| Writing answers on body parts | | | | | |
| Using mobile phones and calculators | | | | | |
| Using notebooks hidden in the toilets | | | | | |
| Exchanging question papers with answers written on them | | | | | |
| Replacing old answer scripts with new one after examinations | | | | | |

Teachers

| | Definitely not serious | Moderate serious | Neutral | Somewhat serious | Definitely serious |
|--|------------------------|------------------|---------|------------------|--------------------|
| School authorities colluding/conniving with examination official and invigilators to assist students | | | | | |
| Invigilators conniving with students to cheat in examination halls | | | | | |
| Teachers sending prepared answers to students during examinations | | | | | |
| Leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials | | | | | |
| Invigilators giving students extra time to write examinations | | | | | |
| Intentionally wrongly seated | | | | | |

Below are some of the forms or ways that students use to cheat during examinations. Please rank how common each form occurs during examinations.

Students

| | Not common At all | Rarely common behavior | Neutral | Common | Very common |
|--|----------------------|------------------------------|---------|--------|----------------|
| Bringing prepared answers to examination halls | | | | | |
| Copying another student's work during the actual writing process | | | | | |
| Copying answers directly from modules or textbooks | | | | | |
| Hiring other people to write the examinations/impersonation | | | | | |
| Writing examinations in special centers noted for examination malpractices | | | | | |
| Writing answers on body parts | | | | | |
| Using mobile phones and calculators | | | | | |
| Using notebooks hidden in the toilets | | | | | |
| Exchanging question papers with answers written on them | | | | | |
| Replacing old answer scripts with new one after examinations | | | | | |

Teachers/Invigilators

| | Not common At all | Rarely common | Neutral | Common | Very common |
|--|----------------------|------------------|---------|--------|----------------|
| School authorities colluding/conniving with examination official and invigilators to assist students | | | | | |
| Invigilators conniving with students to cheat in examination halls | | | | | |
| Teachers sending prepared answers to students during examinations | | | | | |
| Leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials | | | | | |
| Invigilators giving students extra time to write examinations | | | | | |
| Intentionally wrongly seated | | | | | |

PART 3

Demographics

What is your gender identity?

Woman _____ Man _____

Your age: _____

In which area is your school located?

City/urban ____ Rural ____

In what capacity are you answering this questionnaire? Teacher ____ Head teacher ____

Looking at the trend by which students cheat in the national examinations, at what rate do you think cheating is now?

____ 1-5 % ____ 6-10 % ____ 11-15 % ____ 16-20 % ____ 21% and above

Please list any other causes that you know which students use when cheating during examinations.

A _____

B _____

C _____

Of the causes that you have listed above, rank how important each cause is in addressing examination cheating.

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

Please list any other form of cheating that you know which students use to cheat during examinations.

A _____

B _____

C _____

Of the forms or ways of cheating that you have listed above, please rank how common each form occurs during examinations.

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

Questionnaire adapted from (Adeyemi, 2010; Achio et al., 2012; Akaranga & Ongong, 2013; Petters & Okon, 2014).

APPENDIX B
SECONDARY SCHOOL EXAMINATION MALPRACTICES QUESTIONNAIRE
FOR STUDENTS



Secondary Schools Examination Malpractices Questionnaire for Students

Research Topic: An Investigation into Causes and Forms of Examination Malpractices in the Malawian Education System: A Case study of Secondary Schools in South East Education Division (SEED)

INSTRUCTIONS

Dear Respondent,

1. Below are questions pertaining to my research which is trying to examine causes that make students to cheat in an examination. The questions also intend to examine forms or ways which students use to cheat in national examinations in Malawi.
2. Please, truthfully and honestly take your time to answer the questions. Be assured that your responses will remain anonymous as there shall be no display of respondents' names.
3. Also, be assured that there shall be no any form of reprisals for any answer that you will give. It is your opinion that matters.
4. You should also know that participation in this study is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from participating anytime you feel so. No measures will be taken against you.
5. The responses you will give will be used solely for this study. They will not be shared to any other person or institution.
6. You should also know that your responses will be and remain anonymous as you will not write your name on the questionnaire.
7. Unless otherwise stated, you are supposed to answer all questions.
8. Please check your best response for each item.

Thank you for taking the time to complete this survey

If you have further questions regarding this survey, please contact me, Fiddelis Makaula at 0888375665

PART 1

CAUSES OF EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE

Below are some of the **causes or reasons why students may cheat** during examinations. Please indicate your level of agreement with each statement.

Students

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|--|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Lack of discipline among students in the schools | | | | | |
| Insufficient student preparation for the examinations | | | | | |
| Desire among students to pass the examinations at all cost | | | | | |
| Students pressured by parents and guardians | | | | | |
| Students wishing to conform to peer pressure | | | | | |
| Lack of positive self-concept | | | | | |
| Lack of good study habits | | | | | |
| Laziness to work hard | | | | | |

Facility/ Testing Environment

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Inadequate learning facilities | | | | | |
| Remotely-located examination centers so that MANEB officials do not reach those schools | | | | | |
| Crowded examination halls | | | | | |

Teachers and Invigilators

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Competition between schools | | | | | |
| Poor teachers' salaries | | | | | |
| Financial rewards to teachers for high performing students | | | | | |
| Insufficient preparation for the examinations among many teachers | | | | | |
| Examination-oriented teaching | | | | | |
| Spoon feeding mentality | | | | | |
| Incompetent teachers | | | | | |
| Uncompleted syllabus and lessons | | | | | |
| Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators | | | | | |
| Lack of appropriate punishment measures for students involved in examination malpractices | | | | | |

| | Strongly disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Strongly agree |
|---|-------------------|----------|---------|-------|----------------|
| Leakages of question papers by examination officials/school authorities | | | | | |
| Corruption by assisting others to cheat | | | | | |
| Sexual favors | | | | | |

Below are some of the causes or reasons why students may cheat during examinations. Please rank how **important** each cause is in addressing the causes of examination cheating.

Students

| | Not important at all to address cheating | Somewhat unimportant to address cheating | Neutral | Somewhat important to address cheating | Most important to address cheating |
|--|--|--|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| Lack of discipline among students in the schools | | | | | |
| Insufficient student preparation for the examinations | | | | | |
| Desire among students to pass the examinations at all cost | | | | | |
| Students pressured by parents and guardians | | | | | |
| Students wishing to conform to peer pressure | | | | | |
| Lack of positive self-concept | | | | | |
| Lack of good study habits | | | | | |
| Laziness to work hard | | | | | |

Facility/ Testing Environment

| | Not important at all to address cheating | Somewhat unimportant to address cheating | Neutral | Somewhat important to address cheating | Most important to address cheating |
|---|--|--|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| Inadequate learning facilities (e.g. classrooms, libraries etc.) | | | | | |
| Remotely-located examination centers so that MANEB officials do not reach those schools | | | | | |
| Crowded examination halls | | | | | |

| | Not important at all to address cheating | Somewhat unimportant to address cheating | Neutral | Somewhat important to address cheating | Most important to address cheating |
|---|--|--|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| Competition between schools | | | | | |
| Poor teachers' salaries | | | | | |
| Financial rewards to teachers for high performing students | | | | | |
| Insufficient preparation for the examinations among many teachers | | | | | |
| Examination-oriented teaching | | | | | |
| Spoon feeding mentality | | | | | |
| Incompetent teachers | | | | | |
| Uncompleted syllabus and lessons | | | | | |
| Lack of effective supervision of students during examinations by invigilators | | | | | |
| Lack of appropriate punishment measures for students involved in examination malpractices | | | | | |

Bad habits/Behaviors

| | Not important at all to address cheating | Somewhat unimportant to address cheating | Neutral | Somewhat important to address cheating | Most important to address cheating |
|---|--|--|---------|--|------------------------------------|
| Leakages of question papers by examination officials/school authorities | | | | | |
| Corruption by assisting others to cheat | | | | | |
| Sexual favors | | | | | |

PART 2

FORMS OR WAYS OF EXAMINATION MALPRACTICE

Below are some of the forms or ways that students use to cheat during examinations. Please indicate your level of agreement with each statement.

Students

| | Definitely not serious | Moderate serious | Neutral | Somewhat serious | Definitely serious |
|--|------------------------|------------------|---------|------------------|--------------------|
| Bringing prepared answers to examination halls | | | | | |
| Copying another student's work during the actual writing process | | | | | |
| Copying answers directly from modules or textbooks | | | | | |
| Hiring other people to write the examinations/impersonation | | | | | |
| Writing examinations in special centers noted for examination malpractices | | | | | |
| Writing answers on body parts | | | | | |
| Using mobile phones and calculators | | | | | |
| Using notebooks hidden in the toilets | | | | | |
| Exchanging question papers with answers written on them | | | | | |
| Replacing old answer scripts with new one after examinations | | | | | |

Teachers

| | Definitely not serious | Moderate serious | Neutral | Somewhat serious | Definitely serious |
|--|------------------------|------------------|---------|------------------|--------------------|
| School authorities colluding/conniving with examination official and invigilators to assist students | | | | | |
| Invigilators conniving with students to cheat in examination halls | | | | | |
| Teachers sending prepared answers to students during examinations | | | | | |
| Leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials | | | | | |
| Invigilators giving students extra time to write examinations | | | | | |
| Intentionally wrongly seated | | | | | |

Below are some of the forms or ways that students use to cheat during examinations. Please rank how **common** each form occurs during examinations.

Students

| | Not common At all | Rarely common behavior | Neutral | Common | Very common |
|--|----------------------|------------------------------|---------|--------|----------------|
| Bringing prepared answers to examination halls | | | | | |
| Copying another student's work during the actual writing process | | | | | |
| Copying answers directly from modules or textbooks | | | | | |
| Hiring other people to write the examinations/impersonation | | | | | |
| Writing examinations in special centers noted for examination malpractices | | | | | |
| Writing answers on body parts | | | | | |
| Using mobile phones and calculators | | | | | |
| Using notebooks hidden in the toilets | | | | | |
| Exchanging question papers with answers written on them | | | | | |
| Replacing old answer scripts with new one after examinations | | | | | |

Teachers/Invigilators

| | Not common At all | Rarely common | Neutral | Common | Very common |
|--|----------------------|------------------|---------|--------|----------------|
| School authorities colluding/conniving with examination official and invigilators to assist students | | | | | |
| Invigilators conniving with students to cheat in examination halls | | | | | |
| Teachers sending prepared answers to students during examinations | | | | | |
| Leaking examination papers by teachers and MANEB officials | | | | | |
| Invigilators giving students extra time to write examinations | | | | | |
| Intentionally wrongly seated | | | | | |

PART 3

Demographics

What is your gender identity?

Woman ____ Man ____

Your age: _____

In which area is your school located?

City/urban ____ Rural ____

In which form/class are you now? Form ____

Have you repeated? Yes ____ No ____

Looking at the trend by which students cheat in the national examinations, at what rate do you think cheating is now?

____ 1-5 % ____ 6-10 % ____ 11-15 % ____ 16-20 % ____ 21% and above

Please list any other causes that you know which students use when cheating during examinations.

A _____

B _____

C _____

Of the causes that you have listed above, rank how important each cause is in addressing examination cheating.

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

Please list any other form of cheating that you know which students use to cheat during examinations.

A _____

B _____

C _____

Of the forms or ways of cheating that you have listed above, please rank how common each form occurs during examinations.

1 _____

2 _____

3 _____

Questionnaire adapted from (Adeyemi, 2010; Achio et al., 2012; Akaranga & Ongong, 2013; Petters & Okon, 2014).

APPENDIX C

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) STUDY APPROVAL LETTER

IRB 17-0183 - Study Approval

Inbox x

Micah Webb <mwebb@uni.edu>

Mar 31

to me, nick.pace

Dear Investigator(s):

Your study, [An Investigation into Causes and Forms of Examination Malpractices: A Case Study of Secondary Schools in South East Education Division \(SEED\)](#), has been approved by the UNI IRB, effective [3/26/17](#). You may begin recruitment, data collection, and/or analysis for your project. You are required to adhere to the procedures and study materials approved during this review, as well as to follow all University and IRB policies and procedures for human subjects research posted on the IRB website at <http://www.uni.edu/rsp/protection-human-research-participants>.

Your study has been approved in the following category: [Expedited 6](#).

Approval for your study will expire one year from the approval date above. Beyond that date, you may not recruit participants, or collect and/or analyze data without continuing approval. To renew approval for your project, submit the Continuing Review and Closure form before the expiration date. The IRB office will email you the form 4-6 weeks prior to expiration or you can download it from the IRB website. **When your study ends**, you must download and submit the Continuing Review and Closure form as a **brief final report on your project**. If you are a student and planning to leave campus at the end of the academic year, make sure to submit this before you leave.

If you need to make any changes to your study, you must request approval of the changes before continuing with the research. Requests for modifications should be emailed to the IRB Administrator at anita.gordon@uni.edu.

If during the study you observe any problems or events pertaining to participation in your study that are *serious* and *unexpected* (e.g., you did not include them in your IRB materials as a potential risk), you must report this to the IRB **within 10 days**. Examples include unexpected injury or emotional stress, missteps in the consent documentation, or breaches of confidentiality.

If you need a formal, signed approval letter, contact the IRB office and one will be provided for your records.

Best wishes for your project success.

Anita Gordon, Ph.D.
IRB Administrator

APPENDIX D
PERMISSION LETTER TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SOUTH-EAST EDUCATION
DIVISION (SEED)

Telephone: (265) 01 526 432

Fax: (265) 01 526 432



In reply please quote No.....

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCI & TECHNOLOGY,

SOUTH EAST EDUCATION DIVISION,

Communications should be addressed to:

PRIVATE BAG 48,

The Manager, South-East Education Division

ZOMBA.

MALAWI

REF. NO. SEED/ADM/VOL. II/479

27th May, 2016

**TO : ALL HEADTEACHERS,
SOUTH EAST EDUCATION DIVISION**



Dear All,

AUTHORITY TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS; FOCUSING ON AN EXAMINATION INTO PERCEIVED CAUSES, FORMS AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS OF EXAMINATION MALPRACTICES IN THE MALAWIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM AMONG SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN SOUTH EAST EDUCATION DIVISION; THE WAYFORWARD FOR QUALITY EDUCATION.

I write to kindly request your office to allow MR FIDDELIS MAKAULA, currently a PHD student at the University of NORTHERN IOWA in the United States of America – to carry out a research for his PHD Dissertation with your Students and teachers at your institutions.

I will be most grateful if Mr. Makaula, who incidentally was one of our head teachers in the Division, is given all the necessary support and guidance so that his research is carried out successfully.

I look forward to your usual support and hoping at the same time that you will accord this request all the attention and urgency that it deserves.

Yours faithfully,


M.S.D. ALUFANDIKA

EDUCATION DIVISION MANAGER

