

**AGE, GENDER AND SOCIABILITY AS PREDICTORS OF ACADEMIC DISHONESTY
AMONG UNDERGRADUATES IN EKITI STATE UNIVERSITIES**

BY

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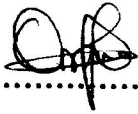
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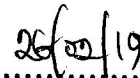
CERTIFICATION

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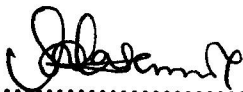


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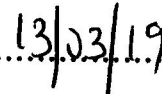


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DEDICATION

This project work is dedicated to God Almighty, my Creator and Redeemer. Without Him, I am nothing. I also dedicate this research work to my mother, Onyinye Philomena, and my aunt Mrs. Stella Ugbaja for their love towards me and support financially and emotionally.

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My profound gratitude goes to God Almighty for giving me the privilege of being alive till today and also rendering me with the ability and assistance to conduct this project successfully. Glory, honour and adoration are to His holy name.

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ABSTRACT

The study investigated the predictive outcome of age, gender and sociability on academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti state universities. The study adopted an ex-post facto research design. A total of three hundred and eleven (311) undergraduates were conveniently sampled in the study. These participants were administered with sociability scale and academic dishonesty tendency scale together with demographic information. Hypothesis one was tested using multiple regression and was partially confirmed. hypothesis two was tested in the study using independent sample t-test which was not confirmed. Hypothesis three was tested using One-Way Anova which was also not confirmed. The result of the tested hypothesis showed that age and sociability did not jointly predicted academic dishonesty. Gender did not influence academic dishonesty. University type did not influence academic dishonesty. Based on findings, it was concluded that age and sociability did not jointly predict academic dishonesty. Gender did not influence academic dishonesty. University type did not influence academic dishonesty. Recommendations were given to examination bodies and institutions of learning to help in monitoring and controlling exam related deficiencies and malpractices.

Keywords: Age, gender, sociability, academic dishonesty, undergraduates, Ekiti state.

Word Count: 177

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the study

Academic dishonesty appears to have become a serious problem at institutions of higher learning and seems to be everywhere. It seems to be present in every facet of life, be it the household, in school, in sports, in politics, and even in the professional world. In a 1999 meta-analysis on academic dishonesty research, McCabe & Drinan found widespread cheating on academic campuses across the country. In one study as many as 75% of students admitted to one or more instances of serious cheating on a test or examination, up from 39% on the same campuses in 1963. Maramark & Maline came to a similar conclusion in their own analysis of studies conducted over the past 30 years.

Academic dishonesty is a concept covering both copying/cheating and plagiarism (McCabe & Pavela, 2000; Godde, 2001). Hard, Conway, & Moran (2006) defined academic dishonesty as providing or getting unofficial support in the formation of a project to be submitted for academic credit (cheating); and presenting the ideas or words of other person or persons as one's own for academic benefit without properly citing the actual person (plagiarism). The term copying/cheating is defined in the Turkish dictionary (1997) as the representation of a work of art or a written text, or piece of paper prepared to look at secretly during exams against the rules. To copy or cheat (generally in written exams) was defined as looking secretly to a source to find the answers against the exam rules.

Research generally suggests that older students are significantly less likely to cheat than their younger counterparts (Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe & Treviño, 1997; Newstead, Franklyn-

Stokes, & Arnstead, 1996; Nonis & Swift, 2001; Rakovski & Levy, 2007; Vandehey, Diekhoff, & LaBeff, 2007). Kohlberg's (1973) theory of moral development offers a theoretical rationalization for this association, explaining that moral reasoning abilities change in predictable ways with age as cognitive abilities develop. Explanations of age differences in academic motivation cannot be ruled out as well, with a growing body of research indicating that older students are more scholastically oriented than their younger counterparts (Newstead et al., 1996).

Early studies found that male students engaged in more dishonest academic behaviors than female students (Bowers, 1964), and this relationship was generally attributed to variations in childhood socialization processes of boys and girls and the differential impact of social controls on men and women (Tibbetts, 1997; Whitley, Nelson, & Jones, 1999). Zimmerman (1998) found that young males cheated more than older females and felt more pressure to do so; just as Ones & Chockalingan (1998) found that women scored higher on overt integrity tests than men and found very small differences between older job applicants (40 years and above) and younger job applicants (younger than 40). In a related study, Olasehinde-Williams, Abdullahi & Owolabi (2003) investigated the extent to which students' attitude to cheating was consistent with their actual cheating behaviour among final year students in a Federal University in Nigeria and found that the high rate of cheating manifested by the students was not consistent with their expressed negative attitude to cheating; while higher percentage of male students manifested cheating tendency than the females. Kisamore, Stone & Jawahar (2007) also studied the relationship between individual and situational factors on misconduct contemplations and found that, age, integrity, culture and personality variables were significantly related to academic integrity.

Sociability is the ability of being outgoing with others and the desire to establish interpersonal relationship with others (Caligiuri, 2000) enjoys social interaction (Guastello & Guastello, 2002), participates in a leader-less peer-group (Gifford, & Gallagher, 1985), possess a tendency to approach novel situations and people (Sanson, Hemphill, & Smart, 2004). Sociable behaviours may include behaviours such as showing concern, inviting by-standers to join an activity, stopping a quarrel, being cooperative, giving support, engaging in play, and having conversations with other children while playing (Coplan & Rubin, 1998).

Researchers have been interested in finding out the relationship between sociability and academic achievement, integrity and cheating behaviour as Wentzel and Asher (1995) concluded in a study that children who have high level of sociable characteristics attain high academic achievement in educational situation.

The research carried out by Chen, Rubin, and Li (1997) also concluded that children who are liked and accepted in their peer group and hold leadership positions (in other words are sociable) are more likely to be high achievers at school. Children who are rejected by others have to face academic difficulties and cannot perform well in academic settings. Similar results have been found by many others who have indicated that children who show sociable and prosocial behaviour have higher academic achievement (Masten, Coatsworth, Neemann, Gest, Tellegen, & Garmezy, 1995).

Academic integrity is about honesty in all areas pertaining to the education system. Van-Jaarsveld (2004) identified three major elements of integrity. These are; discerning what is right and what is wrong; acting on what one has discerned, regardless of personal cost and; stating openly that one is acting on one's understanding of what is right or wrong.

1.2.Statement of problem

Research indicates that academic dishonesty is prevalent in the institution of learning it is therefore pertinent for society to pay attention to the social problem associated with dishonesty. First, the integrity of the academic community is at stake. Academic dishonesty scandals that put the academic community in the middle of controversies weaken the morale of the education system and destroy its reputation. This causes the studies conducted by the academic community to lose their credibility in a society that is already sceptical of the objectivity of scientists, thereby making the educational institution's purpose as a research-oriented institution aimed at helping the community a very difficult endeavour to achieve. Second, the results of studies and undertakings committed by academically dishonest individuals could put elements of society in serious jeopardy. For example, research in the field of medicine that contain fraudulent data may put the health of the members of the population at risk, while the undertakings of engineers, who are not actually qualified but only passed by cheating, may inadvertently come up with ill-designed structures that could topple any minute and take the lives of several innocent people in the process.

similarly the results of empirical study of Frei, Peterson, Isaacson and Griffith's study indicate that academically dishonest students are usually also those who have a high tolerance for other deviant behaviours, such as lying, theft, infidelity, betrayal and violence. While it is not prudent to generalize that all those who have engaged in academic dishonesty will be problematic members of the society, the above-cited findings are a cause for concern.

From the foregoing, it is therefore important to examine Age, Gender and Sociability as predictors of Academic Dishonesty among undergraduates. Given the alarming state of academic dishonesty among our nation's institutions of higher learning, understanding what factors may

reduce student cheating seems appropriate. Arguably, the responsibility for reducing cheating lies with both students and academic institutions.

1. Therefore the research study tends to answer the following questions:

Do age and sociability jointly predict academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti State Universities?

2. Is there a gender difference on academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti State Universities?

3. Are there differences in the university type of undergraduates on academic dishonesty in Ekiti State Universities?

1.1.Objectives of study

The specific objectives of the research study includes: To;

1.Examine whether age and sociability will independently and jointly predict academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti State Universities.

2.Examine the differences in gender on academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti State Universities.

3.Examine the influence of university type on academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti State Universities.

1.2.Significance of study

In its broadest sense, the aim of the study is geared toward increasing the body of knowledge in the literature existing on the role of age, gender and sociability on academic dishonesty. Its usefulness to academic environments or settings will aid in proper adjustment of the consequences of examination malpractices and any form of cheating in the lives of undergraduates. Its usefulness to counselling units or centres of schools will aid guidance

counsellors in understanding the deficiency in examinations and proffering solutions to amend them. However, this study will help examination bodies in understanding proper ways in correcting the massive and widespread prevalence of malpractices inherent in examinations across the globe and fashioning out ways of amending them to suit the positivity and truthfulness of examinations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter represents the theoretical background and framework used in study and also the explanation of past studies and literature in the study.

2.1. Theoretical Framework

The following theories were used in explaining and addressing the variables of consideration in this research study.

2.1.1. Social Role Theory

This theory was developed by Eagley and Wood in 2012. The theory highlights a profound question about human life as why men and women, and boys and girls, behave differently in many circumstances but similarly in others. There is no one discipline that provides a sovereign, overarching answer, but each discipline favours certain types of causes. For biologists, sex differences reflect gonadal or other sex-differentiated hormones. For sociologists, the differences reflect the position of men and women in broader social hierarchies. For economists, the differences reflect the human capital of women and men. For developmental researchers, they arise from sex-linked temperament and socialization experiences. Evolutionary psychologists usually favour sex-differentiated selection pressures on human ancestors. This theory begins from a uniquely social psychological vantage point that highlights social roles and interweaves role-related processes with these other perspectives to produce a powerful analysis of sex differences and similarities.

The argument of this theory is that sex differences and similarities in behaviour reflect gender role beliefs that in turn represent people's perceptions of men's and women's *social roles* in the society in which they live. In post-industrial societies, for example, men are more likely than women to be employed, especially in authority positions, and women are more likely than men to fill caretaking roles at home as well as in employment settings. Men and women are differently distributed into social roles because of humans' evolved physical sex differences in which men are larger, faster, and have greater upper-body strength, and women gestate and nurse children. Given these physical differences, certain activities are more efficiently accomplished by one sex or the other, depending on a society's circumstances and culture. This task specialization produces an alliance between women and men as they engage in a division of labour. Although these alliances take somewhat different forms across cultures, task specialization furthers the interests of the community as a whole. Gender role beliefs arise because people observe female and male behaviour and infer that the sexes possess corresponding dispositions. Thus, men and women are thought to possess attributes that equip them for sex typical roles. These attributes are evident in consensually-shared beliefs, or gender stereotypes. In daily life, people carry out these gender roles as they enact specific social roles such as parent or employee. Because gender roles seem to reflect innate attributes of the sexes, they appear natural and inevitable. With these beliefs, people construct gender roles that are responsive to cultural and environmental conditions yet appear, for individuals within a society, to be stable, inherent properties of men and women. To equip men and women for their usual family and employment roles, societies undertake extensive socialization to promote personality traits and skills that facilitate role performance.

Additionally, gender roles influence behaviour through biological and psychological processes. Biological processes include hormonal fluctuations that act as chemical signals that regulate role performance. Psychological processes include individuals' internalization of gender roles as self-standards against which they regulate their own behaviour as well as their experience of other people's expectations that provide social regulatory mechanisms. Biology thus works with psychology to facilitate role performance. The broad scope of this theory enables it to tackle the various causes of female and male behaviour that are of interest across the human sciences. But the theory was not developed all in one piece. Gender roles derive from the specific family and employment roles commonly held by women versus men in a society. Consistent with the correspondent inference principle (Gilbert and Malone, 1995), people infer the traits of men and women from observations of their behaviour. Given a homemaker-provider division of labour, people disproportionately observe women and girls engaging in domestic behaviours such as childcare, cooking, and sewing, and men and boys engaging in activities that are marketable in the paid economy. Furthermore, perceivers tend to essentialise gender by viewing the different behaviours of the sexes as due to inherent differences in the natures of men and women. Thus, even though the division of labour is tailored to local conditions, it tends to be viewed by the members of a society as inevitable and natural. The social behaviours that typify the homemaker provider division of labour differ in their emphasis on communion versus agency (Eagly, 1987; Eagly and Steffen, 1984). Thus, women's accommodation to the domestic role fosters a pattern of interpersonally facilitative and friendly behaviours that can be termed communal.

Women's communal activities encompass child-rearing, a responsibility that requires nurturing behaviours. The importance of close relationships to women's nurturing role favours

the acquisition of superior relational skills and the ability to communicate nonverbally. In contrast, men's accommodation to the employment role, especially to male-dominated occupations, favours a pattern of relatively assertive behaviours that can be termed agentic (Eagly and Steffen, 1984). The distribution of the sexes into occupations is another important source of observations of women and men. Given the moderately strong sex segregation of the labour force (Tomaskovic-Devey et al., 2006), perceivers infer the typical qualities of the sexes in part from observations of the type of paid work that they commonly undertake. Research has shown that occupational success is perceived to follow from agentic personal qualities to the extent that occupations are male-dominated and from communal personal qualities to the extent that they are female-dominated (Cejka and Eagly, 1999; Glick, 1991). Also, men have greater access to employment roles yielding higher levels of authority and income, and their adjustment to this aspect of their roles may foster relatively dominant behaviour (Ridgeway and Bourg, 2004; Wood and Karten, 1986). Women's lesser access to such roles may favour more supportive behaviour (Conway et al., 1996).

Gender roles are an important part of the culture and social structure of every society. Their power to influence behaviour derives from their essential quality, appearing to reflect inherent attributes of women and men and from the related tendency to be relatively consensual and for people to be aware of this consensus (Wood and Eagly, 2010). Because gender roles are shared, people correctly believe that others are likely to react more approvingly to behaviour that is consistent rather than inconsistent with these roles. Therefore, the most likely route to a smoothly functioning social interaction is to behave consistently with one's gender role or at least to avoid strongly deviating from it. In summary, gender roles are emergent from the activities carried out by individuals of each sex in their typical occupational and family roles. To

the extent that women more than men occupy roles that are facilitated by predominantly communal behaviours, domestic behaviours, or subordinate behaviours, corresponding attributes become stereotypic of women and part of the female gender role.

2.1.2. Raymond Cattell's 16 Personality Factors

In an effort to make Allport's list of 4,500 traits more manageable, Raymond Cattell (1905–1998) took the list and removed all the synonyms, reducing the number down to 171. However, saying that a trait is either present or absent does not accurately reflect a person's uniqueness, because (according to trait theorists) all of our personalities are actually made up of the same traits; we differ only in the degree to which each trait is expressed.

Cattell (1905–1998) believed it necessary to sample a wide range of variables to capture a full understanding of personality. The first type of data was life data, which involves collecting information from an individual's natural everyday life behaviours. Experimental data involves measuring reactions to standardized experimental situations, and questionnaire data involves gathering responses based on introspection by an individual about his or her own behaviour and feelings. Using this data, Cattell performed factor analysis to generate sixteen dimensions of human personality traits: abstractedness, warmth, apprehension, emotional stability, and liveliness, openness to change, perfectionism, Privateness, intelligence, rule consciousness, tension, sensitivity, social boldness, self-reliance, vigilance, and dominance.

Based on these 16 factors, Raymond Cattell (1905–1998) developed a personality assessment called the 16PF. Instead of a trait being present or absent, each dimension is scored over a continuum, from high to low. For example, one's level of warmth describes how warm, caring, and nice to others we are. If one score low on this index, one tend to be more distant and cold. A high score on this index signifies that someone is supportive and comforting. Despite

breaking down significantly on Allport's list of traits, Cattell's 16PF theory has still been criticized for being too broad.

2.1.2. Theories on Academic Dishonesty

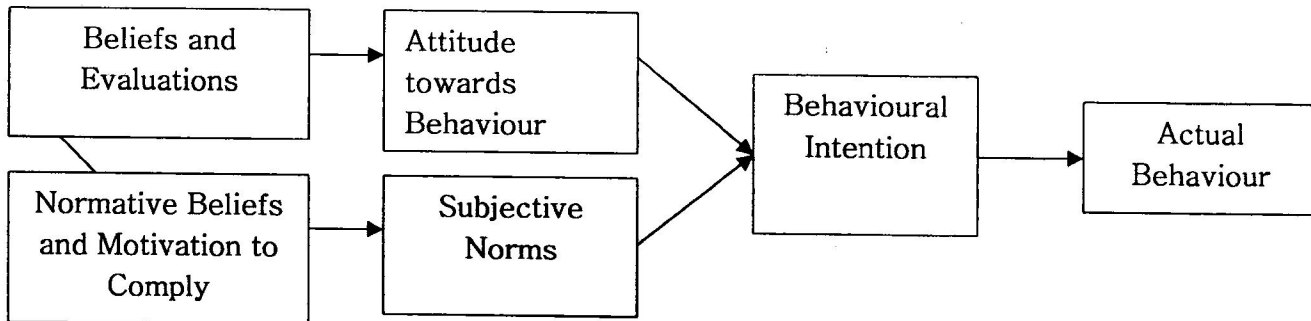
Theory of Reasoned Action

The Theory of reasoned action, also known as rational choice theory, choice theory or rational action theory is a framework for understanding, and often formally modelling social and economic behaviour (Blume & Easley, 2008). The theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980) was first introduced in 1967 by Fishbein in an effort to understand the relationship between beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviour. The theory of reasoned action assumes that individuals consider behaviour's consequences before performing the particular behaviour. As a result, intent is an important-factor in determining behaviour and behavioural change.

According to Ajzen (1980), intentions develop from an individual's perception of behaviour (as positive or negative) together with the individual's idea of the way their society perceives the same behaviour. Thus, personal attitude and social pressure shape intention, which is essential to performance of a behaviour and consequently behavioural change. The basic premise of rational choice theory is that aggregate social behaviour results from the behaviour of individual actors, each of whom is making their individual decisions. The theory therefore focuses on the determinants of the individual choices (methodological-individualism). Here, this theory treats dishonest actions as the result of decisions that one makes as a rational agent; that is, one weighs pros and cons of an action, and based on how one assesses the alternatives, one makes the choice. It can be considered as a kind of cost-benefit analysis: is the effort necessary

to cheat worth the cost of getting caught and being punished? The subjective norm of a person is determined by whether important referents (that is, people who are important to the person) approve or disapprove of the performance of a behaviour (that is, normative beliefs), weighted by the person's motivation to comply with those referents (Montano & Kasprzyk, 2002).

Model of the Theory of Reasoned Action



Source: Author's field work

Social behaviour is learned by conditioning, primarily instrumental or operant, in which behaviour is shaped by the stimuli that follow, or are consequences of the behaviour, and by imitation or modelling of others' behaviour. Whether deviant or conforming behaviour persists depends on the past and present rewards and punishments, and the rewards and punishments attached to alternative behaviour differential reinforcement as well as religious beliefs and commitments, social background, upbringing, parental crime, previous learning, and the influence of friends and other groups (Pearson & Weiner, 1985). The act of cheating works on many levels.

On the individual level the student can decide on his own strategy in order to graduate. He/she can cheat or not, depending on the circumstances. Rational choice theory then assumes that an individual has preferences among the available choice alternatives that allow them to state which option they prefer. These preferences are assumed to be complete (the person can

always say which of two alternatives they preferred to the other) and transitive (if option A is preferred over option B, and option B is preferred over option C, then A is preferred over C). The rational agent is assumed to take account of available information, probabilities of events, and potential costs and benefits in determining preferences, and to act consistently in choosing the self-determined best choice of action.

Theory of Planned Behaviour

The Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is one of the most widely cited and applied behaviour theories. It is one of a closely interrelated family of theories which adopt a cognitive approach to explaining behaviour which centres on individuals' attitudes and beliefs. The TPB (Ajzen 1985, 1991) evolved from the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) which posited "intention to act" as the best predictor of behaviour and emphasizes to predict an individual's intention to engage in a behaviour at a specific time and space. In addition to attitudes and subjective norms (which make the theory of reasoned action), TPB adds the concept of perceived behavioural control, which originates from self-efficacy theory (SET), proposed by Bandura in 1977, which came from social cognitive theory. The premise of the TPB is that individuals make rational decisions to engage in specific behaviours based on their own beliefs about the behaviours and their expectation of a positive outcome after having engaged in the behaviours. TPB hypothesize that cheating happens because of the opportunity, as well as the intention to cheat (For instance, a student may have a favourable attitude toward cheating and may have friends who also engage in cheating, but the vigilant level of examination monitoring in a specific class may make cheating very difficult or impossible).

According to Ajzen (2002), an intention to perform a behaviour is determined by three components: (1) attitude toward a behaviour (beliefs about a specific behaviour and its consequences); (2) subjective norm (normative expectations of other-people who are important to the actor regarding the behaviour), and (3) perceived behavioural control (the perceived difficulty or ease of performing the behaviour). The theory of planned behaviour model is thus a very powerful and predictive model for explaining human behaviour.

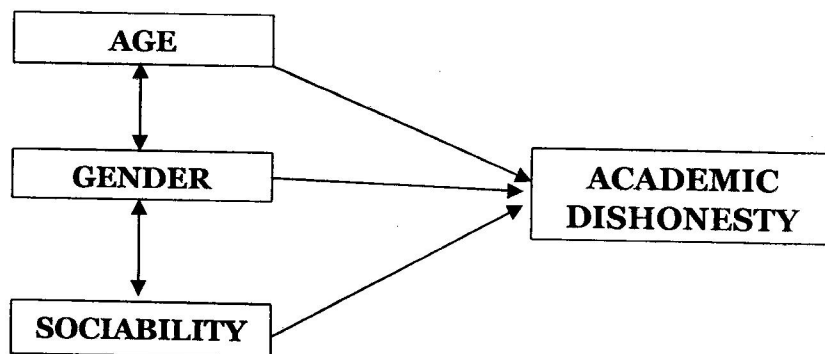
The TPB states that behavioural achievement depends on both motivation (intention) and ability (behavioural control). It distinguishes between three types of beliefs which are behavioural, normative and control. The TPB is however comprised of six constructs that collectively represent a person's actual control over the behaviour.

- 1) Attitudes – This refers to the degree to which a person has a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour of interest. It entails a consideration of the outcomes of performing the behaviour.
- 2) Behavioural Intention – This refers to the motivational factors that influence a given behaviour where the stronger the intention to perform the behaviour, the more likely the behaviour will be performed.
- 3) Subjective Norms – This refers to the belief about whether most people approve or disapprove of the behaviour. It relates to a person's beliefs about whether peers and people of importance to the person think he or she should engage in the behaviour.
- 4) Social Norms – This refers to the customary codes of behaviour in a group or people or larger cultural context. Social norms are considered normative, or standard, in a group of people.

- 5) Perceived Power – This refers to the perceived presence of factors that may facilitate or impede performance of behaviour. Perceived power contributes to a person’s perceived behavioural control over each of those factors.
- 6) Perceived Behavioural Control – This refers to a person’s perception of the ease or difficulty of performing the behaviour of interest. Perceived behavioural control varies across situations and actions, which results in a person having varying perceptions of behavioural control depending on the situation. This construct of the theory was added later, and created the shift from the Theory of Reasoned Action to the Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Existing literature also provides several reviews of the TPB (Webb et al., 2010; Nisbet & Gick, 2008; Munro et al., 2007; Hardeman et al., 2002; Rutter & Quine, 2002; Armitage & Conner 2001). The TPB is not considered useful or effective in relation to planning and designing the type of intervention that will result in behaviour change (Webb et al., 2010; Taylor et al., 2007; Hardeman et al., 2002). Using the theory to explain and predict likely behaviour may, however, be a useful method for identifying particular influences on behaviour that could be targeted for change.

2.2. Theoretical conceptualisation



Source: Author's field work

The model diagram above shows that age, gender and sociability independently and jointly predicts academic dishonesty.

2.3. Related empirical studies

Overtime, quite a number of researches have been conducted on how age, gender and sociability predict academic dishonesty. These related empirical studies will however serve as a guide in addressing some major challenges and problem statement that this research work seeks to evaluate. These related empirical studies include:

2.3.1. Related Studies on Age, gender and Academic Dishonesty.

Not much work has been found on how age and gender influences or predicts academic dishonesty. Although, some earlier studies reported inconclusive findings on gender differences and academic dishonesty (Thoma, 1986); however, recent studies noted a link is prevailing (Shaub, 1989; Sweeney, 1995, Cohen et al, 1998). Some researchers however were able to bring about a conclusion from the result of their findings. Early studies by the works of Bowers (1964) found that male students engaged in more dishonest academic behaviours than female students and this relationship was majorly attributed to variations in childhood socialization and upbringing processes of boys and girls and the differential impact of social controls on men and women (Tibbetts, 1997; Whitley, Nelson, & Jones, 1999). McCabe & Trevino (1997), Hrabak et al. (2004) and Iyer & Eastman (2006) found men to have a higher level of academic dishonesty than women. Kerkvliet (1994) observed that men cheated less than women although in a later study (Kerkvliet & Sigmund, 1999) concluded that gender did not have any influence on academic misconduct. However, Tibbetts (1999) also found men to have scored significantly higher than women on their intentions to cheat. Findings by Eastman et al. (2008) and

Teodorescu & Andrei (2009) did not find gender as a significant predictor. Teixeira & Rocha (2008) in their findings did not find gender playing a role in their study predicting cheating behaviour of students in Spain and Portugal.

Research has found mixed evidence on the gender effect on moral values of students. As of Malone (2006), attitude of male and female students differs on some dishonest acts but for most of the issues of dishonesty, they behave in same way. Cohen et al. (1998) developed a Multidimensional ethics Scores (MES) to evaluate the ethical evaluation and intention aspects of honest behaviors, and found that males and females had significantly different set of judgments on their perception of ethical behavior. However, Zimmerman (1998) in his research found that young males cheated more than older females and felt more pressure to do so; just as Ones & Chockalingan (1998) study found that women scored higher on overt integrity tests than men and found very small differences between older job applicants (40 years and above) and younger job applicants (younger than 40).

The literature is also quite mixed on the influence of age or class level on academic dishonesty. Using age as a predictor, McCabe & Trevino (1997) found older students to have a lower propensity or tendency to cheat than younger students. On the other hand, however, upper level medical students cheated more than pre-clinical students (Hrabak et al., 2004). The works of Bisping et al. (2008) showed contrasting results for age and class level as predictors. Older students were less prone to be academically dishonest but upper class men were more likely to cheat than lower class men.

Furthermore, Eastman et al. (2008) concluded that the higher the class level of insurance students, the more likely they were to cheat compared to other business majors. 'Year of study' was not a significant predictor of college cheating in the case of Romanian students (Teodorescu

& Andrei, 2009). While age was not found to be a significant factor in influencing academic cheating, Teixeira and Rocha (2008) observed that year of schooling was. In their larger study (Teixeira & Rocha, 2010), they also found that older students close to getting their degree were more inclined to cheat and the age variable itself was partly a negative, significant predictor.

In a related study, Olasehinde-Williams, Abdullahi & Owolabi (2003) research study investigated the extent to which students' attitude to cheating was consistent with their actual cheating behaviour among final year students in a Federal University in Nigeria and found that the high rate of cheating manifested by the students was not however consistent with their expressed negative attitude to cheating; while higher percentage of male students manifested cheating tendency than the females. Kisamore, Stone & Jawahar (2007) also studied the relationship between individual and situational factors on misconduct contemplations and found that, age, integrity, culture and personality variables were significantly related to academic integrity.

2.3.2. Related Studies on Sociability and Academic Dishonesty.

Researchers have been interested in finding out the relationship which exists between sociability and academic dishonesty, achievement, integrity and cheating behaviour as Wentzel and Asher (1995) concluded in one of his study that children who have high level of sociable characteristics attain high academic achievement in educational situation. Similar results were found by Hsieh (1998) who conducted a study on two hundred and thirty students including 108 boys and 122 girls from fourth, fifth and sixth grades of ten elementary schools in China. This study concluded that there is a significant and positive relationship between parenting styles and children's temperaments to their behavioural adjustments and academic achievement.

However, research similar to that of sociability on academic dishonesty emphasize on the **Big-Five** personality traits and ascertain that they are expected to have direct impact on the level of students' cheating behaviors. According to literature, single study conducted by Christine & James (2008) has been found that examined the level of students' academic dishonesty on the basis of big five personality traits. As per the findings of Christine & James (2008), Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism found to have no impact on the level of cheating tendency among students while Openness found to moderately have an impact on the level of students' academic dishonesty. Although personality can not only be the single predictors to assess the ethical behaviors, some personality dimensions e.g. Conscientiousness can foresee unethical behaviors (Colbert, et al, 2004; Litzky, et al, 2006; Robinson and Greenberg, 1998). Individual personality and nature mainly considered for examining the individual attitude and behavior (Fang, 2006). Individual having positive emotionality analyze more information and alternatives and which leads them to the quality decision making process (Christine and James, 2008).

2.3.3. Related Studies on the Causes of Academic Dishonesty.

Gehring, Nuss & Pavella (1986) pointed out that students participate in academic dishonesty when the apparent risk of the behaviour is low. For instance, if students do not think that will be any adverse consequences in case of their cheating behaviours, are more likely to exhibit dishonest behaviour. Another important factor which increases the likelihood of cheating in students is unawareness to what exactly academic dishonesty entails.

Fass (1990) indicted that there was a general understanding of academic dishonesty; however there may be a difference between universities and colleges. In order to ensure consistency between different types of campuses, he stated that explanations of academic

dishonesty must cover a range of topics. These contain examinations ethics, the use of fonts in project and papers, bounds of writing support and tutoring, guidelines for data collection and reporting, proper and ethical use of academic resources, computer ethics, respecting others' work, limits on the provision of assistance to others and commitment, and understanding of academic expectations and policies.

Kibler (1993) explained in his study the reason why academic dishonesty prevails in colleges and universities; the foremost reason is that institutions may be treating it as aberrant behaviour rather an educational problem in development. He also contended that when cheating was exposed, majority of the institutions only address the unethical behaviour, without demanding the alleged cheater to address the developmental issues involved in the decision to use cheating as a means to attain a goal.

McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, (2002) explained that academic dishonesty and cheating across cultures may take on different perspectives or interpretations. Putting it briefly, students in different nations may have different opinions on what is and what is not considered wrong. This has received support from social learning theorists. McCabe and Trevino studied 12 different cheating behaviours. They calculated that almost 79% of the students included in the sample were reported to have exhibited at least one sort of cheating behaviour amongst the 12 dishonest behaviour options. When it came to individual cheating during exams and being guilty of plagiarism the findings were 52% and 48 % respectively.

Whitley & Keith-Spiegel (2002) projected four elements of academic dishonesty; these elements include plagiarism, cheating, fabrication, and assisting academic dishonesty. Plagiarism and cheating are the most observable behaviours. Fabrication implies a deliberate addition of dishonest citation or information for examples filling of references in the paper or fabricating the

results of an experiment. Helping academic dishonesty comprises deliberately provide assistance to others engaged in dishonest activities.

McCabe, D. L. (2005) stated that some people would claim that academic dishonesty is not an issue in colleges and universities. However, in his study of academic integrity that included 50,000 undergraduate students from 60 campuses, he founded that an average of 70% of students confessed to cheating in examinations and written assignments. Further he noted that the most important element in cheating was the culture of academic integrity that determine the level of academic dishonesty in colleges and universities to which new coming students were exposed.

Hughes and McCabe (2006) suggested that terms like academic integrity, academic misconduct and academic dishonesty are used interchangeably in the context of unethical behaviour in their relationship to students' academic work. They stated that academic dishonesty or academic misconduct can easily be defined as copying or changing university documents, writing an article for another student, and hiding or damaging library resources.

Langlais (2006) concluded that some evidence proposes that students of different cultural have different definitions of misconduct and professional behaviour. For instance, it has been described that plagiarism is predominant in China because the culture has a vague definition of ownership of intellectual property. Moreover, other nations with group-oriented cultures such as those in Latin America, Africa, and Asia stress collaboration and copying as a form of learning.

Olasehinde-Williams (2006) stated that since the 1960s there has been considerable attention drawn to the issue of academic dishonesty. There is sufficient evidence in literature to suggest that enforcement and sustenance of any approach to limiting academic dishonesty thrives

only when all key players in the system (administration, academic staff and students) have a high degree of sensitivity (in terms of attitude and participation) to the institutional approach.

2.4. Statement of Hypothesis

1. Age and sociability will independently and jointly predict academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti State Universities.
2. Undergraduates who are male will report more on academic dishonesty than those who are female in Ekiti State Universities.
3. There will be a significant difference in university type on academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti State Universities.

2.5. Operational Definition of Terms.

1. Age: The whole duration of a person's life or one of the stages of life of an individual.
2. Gender: The biological act of being a male or female.
3. Sociability: The ability of being outgoing with others and the desire to establish interpersonal relationship with others. As measured using Sociability Scale (Elegbeleye, O., 2008).
4. Academic Dishonesty: The condition of involving in act which is fraudulent such as cheating, malpractices or plagiarism. As measured using the Academic Dishonesty Tendency Scale (Esra, E., & Zekeriya, N., 2009).

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The researcher adopted the use of ex-post facto research design because none of the variables of study was subjected to active manipulation; rather they were measured as occurred. The independent variables are age, gender and sociability. The dependent variable is academic dishonesty.

3.2 SETTING AND PARTICIPANTS

The study was carried out among undergraduates in Ekiti state universities. The participants were 311 (136 male, 175 female) undergraduates with age range of 15 to 37 years and mean age of 20.52 years ($SD = 2.47$). Two hundred and fifty four (81.7%) of the participants were Yoruba, 34 (10.9%) were Igbos, 8 (2.6%) were Hausas and only 15 (4.8) were from other minority ethnic groups.

In terms of level of study, 113 (36.3%) were in 100 level, 99 (31.6%) were in 200 level, 70 (22.5%) were in 300 level, 26 (8.4%) were in 400 level and 3 (1%) were in 500 level. Regarding religious affiliation, 282 (90.7%) were Christian, 27 (8.7%) were Moslems and 2 (0.6%) was Traditional.

In the type of university, 138 (44.4%) were from a federal university, 94 (30.2) were from a state university and 79 (25.4) were from a private university. The name of university indicated that 129 (41.5%) attended FUYOYE, 83 (26.7%) attended EKSU and 99 (31.8%) attended ABU.

3.3 INSTRUMENT

A questionnaire was used to collect data from the field in this present study. The questionnaire was designed in sections comprising of standardized scales as follows:

Section A comprises of the demographic characteristics of undergraduates, such as their sex, age, gender, ethnic group, religious affiliation, level of study, name of university and university type.

Section B measures sociability using The Sociability scale developed by (Elegbeleye, O. S, 2008). Higher scores indicate a high sociability status. The author reported a reliability coefficient of 0.86, while in this present study; the researcher reported a reliability coefficient alpha of 0.33.

Section C measures academic dishonesty using a 22-item academic dishonesty tendency scale developed by Eminoglu & Nartgun (2009). The scale has 5 point Likert response format, ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores indicate higher academic dishonesty. The author reported a reliability coefficient of 0.71, while in the present study; the researcher reported a reliability coefficient alpha of 0.58.

3.4 PROCEDURE

The questionnaires were distributed to the participants in their regular classrooms and were directed on how to give answers to the questionnaires. In the course of the administration, emphasis was laid on the anonymity of the respondents and they were all assured of utmost confidentiality of their responses. At the end of the filling in the questionnaire the participants were thanked for taking their time.

3.5 STATISTICAL METHODS

The demographic data collected were analysed using descriptive statistics such as mean, range, standard deviation, frequency distribution and percentages. Hypotheses stated were analysed using inferential statistics. Hypothesis one was tested using multiple regression analyses to determine independent and joint contributions of predictor variables on criterion variable. Hypotheses two and three were tested using t-test for independent groups and One-way Anova in order to compare and establish group differences.

CHAPTER FOUR RESULTS

HYPOTHESIS ONE

Hypothesis one stated that age and sociability will independently and jointly predict academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti state. The hypothesis was tested using multiple regressions. The result is presented in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 Multiple Regression Analysis of Academic Dishonesty by Age and Sociability

Variables	β	T	P	R	R^2	F	P
Age	-.04	-.61	ns	.121	.015	2.08	
Sociability	.12	1.97	<.01				>.01

From Table 4.1, it can be observed that age and sociability did not jointly predicted academic dishonesty. $F(2, 280) = 2.08$; $p > .01$ with $R = .121$ $R^2 = .015$. This suggests that both variables jointly accounted for 1.5% variation in academic dishonesty among undergraduates. However, only the contribution of sociability ($\beta = .12$; $t = 1.97$, $p < .01$) was significant in the joint production. Therefore, the hypothesis was partially confirmed.

HYPOTHESIS TWO

Hypothesis two stated that undergraduates who are male will report more on academic dishonesty than those who are female. The hypothesis was tested using t-test for independent group. The result is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: t-test for Independent group showing differences in gender on academic dishonesty among undergraduates.

Gender		N	Mean	SD	df	T	P
Academic Dishonesty	Male	136	68.89	10.04	309	.188	>.05
	Female	175	66.67	11.09			

From Table 4.2, the result of the t-test shows that undergraduates who are male ($Y = 68.89$) were not significantly different in academic dishonesty from those who are female ($X = 66.67$), $t = .188$; $df = 309$, $p > .05$. The results imply that gender did not significantly influence academic dishonesty. Therefore, hypothesis two was not confirmed.

HYPOTHESIS THREE

Hypothesis three stated that that there would be a significant difference in university type on academic dishonesty among undergraduates in Ekiti state universities.. The hypothesis was tested using One-way Analysis of Variance. The result is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Summary of One-Way ANOVA Table Showing Influence of University type on Academic Dishonesty

Source	Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Between Groups	471.130	2	235.565	2.102	>.05
Within Groups	34524.201	308	112.092		
Total	34995.331	310			

Table 4.3 showed that type of university had no significant influence on academic dishonesty among undergraduates. $F(2, 308) = 2.102$; $p > .05$. The result implies that Federal university undergraduates ($X=67.43$) were not significantly different in academic dishonesty

from State university undergraduates ($X = 69.49$) and Private university undergraduates ($X = 70.25$). Therefore, hypothesis three was not confirmed.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION & RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed based on the data analysis made in chapter four, interpreted and inference drawn from them. The study findings revealed that age and sociability did not jointly predict academic dishonesty but only sociability independently predicts academic dishonesty. The difference in gender and academic dishonesty was not statistically significant. University type of undergraduates did not significantly influence academic dishonesty. However in the study, Conclusions, implications and recommendations for further studies are made.

5.1. Discussion of Findings

The investigation towards the predicted outcome of academic dishonesty from age and sociability revealed that age and sociability did not predicts academic dishonesty, but only sociability independently predicted academic dishonesty. This finding were supportive of the works of McCabe & Trevino (1997) using age as a predictor, found older students to have a lower propensity or tendency to cheat than younger students. The works of Bisping et al. (2008) showed contrasting results for age and class level as predictors. It was revealed from their study that older students were less prone to be academically dishonest but upper class men were more likely to cheat than lower class men. Further studies on age by Chockalingan (1998) found that very small differences between older job applicants (40 years and above) and younger job applicants (younger than 40). While age was not found to be a significant factor in influencing academic cheating, Teixeira and Rocha (2008) observed that year of schooling was. In their larger study (Teixeira & Rocha, 2010), they found that older students close to getting their

degree were more inclined to cheat and the age variable itself was partly a negative, significant predictor.

The findings of sociability to predict academic dishonesty among undergraduates was supported by the works of Asher (1995) where it was concluded in one of his study that children who have high level of sociable characteristics attain high academic achievement in educational situation. Similar results were found by Hsieh (1998) who conducted a study on two hundred and thirty students including 108 boys and 122 girls from fourth, fifth and sixth grades of ten elementary schools in China. This study concluded that there is a significant and positive relationship between parenting styles and children's temperaments to their behavioural adjustments and academic achievement.

The outcome of the findings of gender and academic dishonesty contradicts early studies by the works of Bowers (1964) who found that male students engaged in more dishonest academic behaviours than female students and this relationship was majorly attributed to variations in childhood socialization and upbringing processes of boys and girls and the differential impact of social controls on men and women. Chockalingan (1998) also found that women scored higher on overt integrity tests than men. Iyer & Eastman (2006) found men to have a higher level of academic dishonesty than women. Kerkvliet (1994) observed that men cheated less than women although in a later study (Kerkvliet & Sigmund, 1999) concluded that gender did not have any influence on academic misconduct. However, Tibbetts (1999) also found men to have scored significantly higher than women on their intentions to cheat. Findings by Eastman et al. (2008) and Teodorescu & Andrei (2009) gave some relieve to the study findings as their work supported the study outcome where they found gender as a significant

predictor. Teixeira & Rocha (2008) also in their findings did not find gender playing a role in their study predicting cheating behaviour of students in Spain and Portugal.

5.2. Conclusion

Based on the study findings, the following conclusions are given:

1. Age and sociability do not jointly predict academic dishonesty, however only sociability independently predicts academic dishonesty among undergraduates.
2. Male and female undergraduates do not differ from each other on academic dishonesty.
3. The type of university of undergraduates (Federal, State and Private) does not differ from each other on academic dishonesty.

5.3. Implications and Recommendations

The upward trend in academic dishonesty among undergraduates and students across Nigeria has been on a rise. However, what has not be understood yet is that if proper measures are not taken into eradicating and reducing issues of academic dishonesty, therefore the validity of academics in Nigeria is at a stake.

However, based on the drawn conclusions of this study, the following recommendations are given:

1. There should be an exploration of the contribution of other potential predictor variables (e.g., locus of control, self-efficacy, optimism, hope, neuroticism and extroversion) and assess their influences or relationship with academic dishonesty.
2. Further examining the contribution of other distinct socio-demographic variables (e.g., ethnicity, socio-economic status) on academic dishonesty.
3. School counsellors, guidance counsellors, psychologists and teachers should thereby use enhancement programmes in developing students' academic integrity towards

achieving academic excellence. This could be achieved by organising orientation programmes, talks, seminars and symposia for this seemingly student population so as to secure the future of academic in Nigeria.

4. Examination bodies such as WASSCE, JAMB etc, should step up techniques of avoiding the continued increase of academic dishonesty by ensuring adequate and effective security and monitoring devices and means to curtail academic dishonesty.

5.4. Limitations of study

This study is limited in certain context. Firstly, the adoption of an expo facto design limits the cause-effects assertion of the study as temporal relations among the study variables cannot be established. Also, the number of undergraduates used in the study is very few, considering the fact that the population of students in the state are quite a number. Moreover, the study results may have been influenced by a motivated group of participants by adopting reactivity of the study procedure. Lastly, respondents also represented a specific geographical area (i.e., Ekiti state) south-western part of Nigeria. In addition, the voluntary nature of participation, as well as relatively high academic dishonesty scores may suggest that these respondents represented a motivated group, with more successful academic backgrounds than other groups of undergraduate students. These factors all limit the generalizability of the findings.

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APPENDIX

Project Results Frequencies

Statistics

		NameOfUniversity	UniversityType	Level	Age	Gender	EthnicGroup	ReligiousAffiliation
N	Valid	311	311	311	283	311	311	311
	Missing	0	0	0	28	0	0	0

Frequency Table

NameOfUniversity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	FUOYE-Federal University Oye-Ekiti	129	41.5	41.5	41.5
	EKSU-Ekiti state University	83	26.7	26.7	68.2
	ABU-AfeBabalola University	99	31.8	31.8	100.0
	Total	311	100.0	100.0	

UniversityType

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Federal	138	44.4	44.4	44.4
	State	94	30.2	30.2	74.6
	Private	79	25.4	25.4	100.0
	Total	311	100.0	100.0	

Level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	100 Level	113	36.3	36.3	36.3
	200 Level	99	31.8	31.8	68.2
	300 Level	70	22.5	22.5	90.7
	400 Level	26	8.4	8.4	99.0
	500 Level	3	1.0	1.0	100.0
	Total	311	100.0	100.0	

Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Male	136	43.7	43.7	43.7
Valid Female	175	56.3	56.3	100.0
Total	311	100.0	100.0	

EthnicGroup

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yoruba	254	81.7	81.7	81.7
Valid Igbo	34	10.9	10.9	92.6
Valid Hausa	8	2.6	2.6	95.2
Valid Others	15	4.8	4.8	100.0
Total	311	100.0	100.0	

ReligiousAffiliation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Christianity	282	90.7	90.7	90.7
Valid Islam	27	8.7	8.7	99.4
Valid Traditional	2	.6	.6	100.0
Total	311	100.0	100.0	

Descriptives

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	283	15.00	37.00	20.5194	2.46870
Valid N (listwise)	283				

Reliability for Academic Dishonesty Scale

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	205	65.9
	Excluded ^a	106	34.1
	Total	311	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.576	22

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
AD1	3.8390	1.03300	205
AD2	1.9073	1.11417	205
AD3	2.8976	1.29639	205
AD4	3.0439	1.36591	205
AD5	2.0488	1.14085	205
AD6	2.8634	1.28753	205
AD7	3.5220	1.26249	205
AD8	3.8439	1.10481	205
AD9	4.1610	.82749	205
AD10	3.7171	1.19965	205
AD11	3.0439	1.20580	205
AD12	3.2878	1.34678	205
AD13	3.8634	1.06683	205
AD14	3.1366	1.23704	205
AD15	3.6732	1.19045	205
AD16	3.3268	1.17803	205
AD17	3.5659	1.35827	205
AD18	2.6439	1.14833	205
AD19	3.3561	1.32288	205
AD20	2.8488	1.25697	205
AD21	3.3463	1.23354	205
AD22	3.0341	1.40859	205

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item- Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
AD1	67.1317	68.233	.164	.566
AD2	69.0634	65.697	.286	.551
AD3	68.0732	64.156	.302	.546
AD4	67.9268	61.607	.403	.528
AD5	68.9220	65.886	.266	.553
AD6	68.1073	68.655	.084	.578
AD7	67.4488	68.013	.120	.573
AD8	67.1268	69.494	.076	.577
AD9	66.8098	69.753	.121	.571
AD10	67.2537	65.808	.250	.555
AD11	67.9268	67.735	.147	.569

AD12	67.6829	69.973	.014	.590
AD13	67.1073	67.185	.216	.560
AD14	67.8341	66.757	.189	.563
AD15	67.2976	69.465	.062	.580
AD16	67.6439	66.446	.222	.558
AD17	67.4049	67.311	.132	.572
AD18	68.3268	67.770	.160	.567
AD19	67.6146	68.601	.080	.579
AD20	68.1220	66.559	.193	.562
AD21	67.6244	64.040	.332	.542
AD22	67.9366	65.491	.203	.561

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
70.9707	72.107	8.49158	22

Reliability for Sociability Scale

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	3	1.0
	Excluded ^a	308	99.0
	Total	311	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.033	25

Item Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
LikeHavingFriend	1.3333	.57735	3
WhoDoYouRelateWith	3.0000	2.64575	3
HaveFriendsInNeighborhood	1.6667	.57735	3
NeighborhoodFriendClose	1.6667	.57735	3
KeepFriendshipforLong	1.3333	.57735	3
KeptTheKindOfFriendship	1.3333	.57735	3
WhereKeepTheFreindship	1.6667	.57735	3
WasItSameSexFriend	1.3333	.57735	3
AreYouStillClose	1.6667	.57735	3
IfNoFriendBrokeasaResult	1.3333	.57735	3
DoYouAlwaysHaveProblems	1.3333	.57735	3
DoYouHaveOppositeFriend	1.3333	.57735	3
AreOppositeSexFriendMoreThanYourSameSexFriend	2.0000	.00000	3
FunctionAsATeamGroupMember	1.6667	.57735	3
DoConsiderAsGoodGroupMember	2.0000	.00000	3
ImportanttoBeTheleader	1.3333	.57735	3
BelongedFormallyOrganisedSocialGroup	1.3333	.57735	3
PresentlyBelogToFormallyOrganisedSocialGroup	1.0000	.00000	3
BeenExpelledfromSocialGroupBefore	1.3333	.57735	3
IfYesWasTheReason	2.0000	1.73205	3
OrdinaryaLoyalMemberofSocialGroup	2.0000	.00000	3
RateYourselfSocially	1.0000	.00000	3
WhatSocialCharacteristicDescribesSociablePerson	4.3333	2.30940	3
DoYouPossessAnyOftheCharacteristic	2.0000	.00000	3
ToWhatDegree	3.0000	.00000	3

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
LikeHavingFriend	42.6667	22.333	-.305	.109
WhoDoYouRelateWith	41.0000	7.000	.500	-.944 ^a
HaveFriendsInNeighborhood	42.3333	26.333	-.956	.251
NeighborhoodFriendClose	42.3333	26.333	-.956	.251
KeepFriendshipforLong	42.6667	22.333	-.305	.109
KeptTheKindOfFriendship	42.6667	22.333	-.305	.109
WhereKeepTheFreindship	42.3333	26.333	-.956	.251
WasItSameSexFriend	42.6667	16.333	.929	-.234 ^a
AreYouStillClose	42.3333	26.333	-.956	.251
IfNoFriendBrokeasaResult	42.6667	16.333	.929	-.234 ^a
DoYouAlwaysHaveProblems	42.6667	25.333	-.803	.220
DoYouHaveOppositeFriend	42.6667	16.333	.929	-.234 ^a
AreOppositeSexFriendMoreThanYourSameSexFriend	42.0000	21.000	.000	.033
FunctionAsATeamGroupMember	42.3333	20.333	.064	.017
DoConsiderAsGoodGroupMember	42.0000	21.000	.000	.033
ImportanttoBeTheleader	42.6667	22.333	-.305	.109
BelongedFormallyOrganisedSocialGroup	42.6667	22.333	-.305	.109
PresentlyBelogToFormallyOrganisedSocialGroup	43.0000	21.000	.000	.033
BeenExpelledfromSocialGroupBefore	42.6667	22.333	-.305	.109
IfYesWasTheReason	42.0000	9.000	.866	-.966 ^a
OrdinaryaLoyalMemberofSocialGroup	42.0000	21.000	.000	.033
RateYourselfSocially	43.0000	21.000	.000	.033
WhatSocialCharacteristicDescribesSociablePerson	39.6667	6.333	.803	-1.428 ^a
DoYouPossessAnyOftheCharacteristic	42.0000	21.000	.000	.033
ToWhatDegree	41.0000	21.000	.000	.033

a. The value is negative due to a negative average covariance among items. This violates reliability model assumptions. You may want to check item codings.

Scale Statistics

Mean	Variance	Std. Deviation	N of Items
44.0000	21.000	4.58258	25

Correlations

Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Age	20.5194	2.46870	283
Level	2.0579	1.00476	311
Sociability	39.1576	6.47309	311
AcademicDishonesty	68.7685	10.62488	311

Correlations

		Age	Level	Sociability	AcademicDishonesty
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	.274**	.042	-.031
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.485	.600
	N	283	283	283	283
Level	Pearson Correlation	.274**	1	-.027	-.009
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.639	.874
	N	283	311	311	311
Sociability	Pearson Correlation	.042	-.027	1	.121*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.485	.639		.034
	N	283	311	311	311
AcademicDishonesty	Pearson Correlation	-.031	-.009	.121*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.600	.874	.034	
	N	283	311	311	311

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Regression for Hypothesis One-Age and Sociability Predicting Academic Dishonesty

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Sociability, Age ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: AcademicDishonesty

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.121 ^a	.015	.008	9.75800

a. Predictors: (Constant), Sociability, Age

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	396.419	2	198.210	2.082	.127 ^b
	Residual	26661.206	280	95.219		
	Total	27057.625	282			

a. Dependent Variable: AcademicDishonesty

b. Predictors: (Constant), Sociability, Age

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	63.746	6.229		10.233	.000
	Age	-.144	.236	-.036	-.610	.542
	Sociability	.203	.103	.117	1.971	.050

a. Dependent Variable: AcademicDishonesty

T-Test for Hypothesis Two-Gender difference in Academic Dishonesty

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AcademicDishonesty	Male	136	68.8971	10.03717	.86068
	Female	175	68.6686	11.08763	.83815

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Academic Dishonesty	.090	.764	.188	309	.851	.22849	1.21645	-2.16508	2.62205
			.190	301.844	.849	.22849	1.20136	-2.13561	2.59258

Oneway ANOVA for Hypothesis Three-University Type on Academic Dishonesty

Descriptives

AcademicDishonesty

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Federal	138	67.4275	10.19008	.86744	65.7122	69.1428	44.00	93.00
State	94	69.4894	12.39471	1.27842	66.9507	72.0280	.00	92.00
Private	79	70.2532	8.77857	.98767	68.2869	72.2195	47.00	92.00
Total	311	68.7685	10.62488	.60248	67.5830	69.9540	.00	93.00

ANOVA

AcademicDishonesty

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	471.130	2	235.565	2.102	.124
Within Groups	34524.201	308	112.092		
Total	34995.331	310			