



ETINED
Council of Europe
Platform on Ethics,
Transparency and
Integrity in Education



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Volume 2
Ethical principles

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Contents

INTRODUCTION	5
1. ETINED: A COUNCIL OF EUROPE INITIATIVE	11
2. DISCUSSION OF THE METHODOLOGICAL APPROACH TO THE INITIAL DOCUMENTS FOR THE PLATFORM	15
3. ETHICS, INTEGRITY AND QUALITY EDUCATION: NOT A MECHANISTIC BUT A PRINCIPLES APPROACH	19
4. DEVELOPING THE PLATFORM: STATEMENTS OF ETHICAL PRINCIPLES AND DOCUMENTS ON ETHICAL BEHAVIOUR OF ALL ACTORS IN EDUCATION	25
5. ETHICAL PRINCIPLES	37
6. FORMS OF CORRUPTION	47
7. CONCLUSION	55
REFERENCES	57

Introduction

The current document is the first of two on the initial development of the Council of Europe Platform on Ethics, Transparency and Integrity in Education. This first document focuses on “ethical principles” for education and the second document will focus on “ethical behaviour of all actors in education”.

The document begins by setting the context for this Council of Europe initiative (Chapter 1), and discussing the methodological approach taken (Chapter 2).

This document then argues for the importance of responding to issues of corruption in education not simply by adopting top-down, mechanistic measures, but by attempting to achieve transparency and integrity in education, based upon a commitment to fundamental positive ethical principles in professional and public life (Chapter 3).

The document moves on to explore some of the complexities involved in attempting to distinguish between materials on “ethical principles” and associated materials on “ethical behaviour of all actors in education”, and analyses a number of important documents produced by other organisations to review existing coverage of relevant approaches to “ethical principles” and “ethical behaviour” (Chapter 4).

The document then proposes a detailed list of relevant fundamental “ethical principles” for education. These are now presented in summary form here (with the full, referenced versions in Chapter 5 of the main text).

Ethical principles

The Council of Europe should state that: all actors involved in education should show an unswerving personal commitment to the following ethical principles.

Integrity

The principle of “integrity” can be defined as “[b]ehaviours and actions consistent with a set of moral and ethical principles and standards, embraced by individuals as well as institutions, that create a barrier to corruption” (Transparency International 2009).

This principle therefore links with the concept of ethics, defined as “[b]ased on core values, a set of standards for conduct in government, companies and society that guides decisions, choices and actions” (Transparency International 2009).

In addition to the general term, the more specific term “academic integrity” can be used to discuss the particular application of this principle in the context of higher education (HE).

Essentially, integrity can be seen as the connection between positive ethical principles and quality in education, and applies to all actors involved in education.

Honesty

This principle involves being “honest and trustworthy”. It means avoiding systematically any form of cheating, lying, fraud, theft, extortion or other dishonest behaviours.

Clearly, the principle also involves not engaging in behaviour of an actual criminal nature.

Truth

This principle involves the “unfettered pursuit of truth” and associated with this is the “free and open dissemination of knowledge” and “knowledge advancement”.

The principle also involves “critical analysis and respect for reasoned opinions” and respect for “free exchange of ideas and ... freedom of expression”.

In the context of HE, the principle of “truth” also relates to research, specifically the ethical conduct of research. Research should be based on academic integrity and social responsiveness and involve an obligation to disseminate research.

Of course, the principle of truth does not only apply to the HE research context, but to all aspects of education and to all actors in education.

Transparency

The principle of “transparency” can be defined as the characteristic of governments, companies, organisations and individuals of being open in the clear disclosure of information, rules, plans, processes and actions. As a principle, public officials, civil servants, the managers and directors of companies, and board trustees have a duty to act visibly, predictably and understandably to promote participation and accountability.

The principle of transparency can be applied specifically in an institutional context.

However, it is important to emphasise that the principle of transparency places a requirement for the open disclosure of information on all actors within the education system as individuals, not just on organisations.

Respect for others

The principle of “respect for others” is wide-ranging, but can also usefully be subdivided in a number of ways.

The overall phrase “respect for human beings” can be used, with an emphasis on respect for the dignity and for the physical and psychic integrity of human beings, and this relationship with others can include colleagues, students, parents and so forth.

A particular extension of the principle of respect for others in relation to colleagues is the importance of collegiality in working.

The principle of respect for others can be developed in HE to include the concept of academic freedom. This can be extended to the elements associated with supporting the human rights of HE personnel, including researchers specifically.

The principle of respect for others can also be extended to recognise the general rights of the teacher and commitment to teachers by the community.

Of course, these expanded extensions of the principle of respect for others to HE staff and schoolteachers are only specific examples. The principle applies to all actors in education.

Trust

In an environment where all actors demonstrate respect for others, the principle of “trust” is also very important. This principle means that all actors in education can have a firm belief in the reliability of each other to be honest, truthful and act with integrity. Therefore, actors can trust others and expect to be trusted by others.

Accountability

When all actors in education show respect for others, and trust each other, the principle of “accountability” is much more securely based. This principle is the concept that individuals, agencies and organisations [public, private and civil society] are held responsible for executing their powers properly.

While there may be a particular stress on accountability in the running of HE institutions, the principle of accountability applies to all actors (at the level of individuals and institutions) in education.

Fairness

“Fairness” is a basic principle which all actors in education must observe in their approach to others. This principle involves treating others with impartiality, free from discrimination or dishonesty.

Equity, justice and social justice

The principles of “equity, justice and social justice” are wide-ranging, but can also usefully be subdivided in a number of ways.

The term “equity” can certainly be applied directly, for example to the equal treatment of all students in HE.

However, equity on its own perhaps stays relatively close in meaning to fairness, and can be more appropriately broadened to the term “justice”, or more particularly “social justice”.

For example, social justice can be defined to include the educational and social values of sustainability, equality and justice and recognising the rights and responsibilities of future as well as current generations and also to include fair, transparent, inclusive and sustainable policies and practices in relation to: age, disability, gender and gender identity, race, ethnicity, religion and belief and sexual orientation.

This definition of social justice can also be equated with education for social democracy and education for participative democracy/active citizenship.

This broader definition of social justice also provides the basis for a particular emphasis on non-discrimination, and the combating of racism, bias and discrimination.

It also provides the basis for a particular emphasis on access. This includes that all children should have access to education, and that there should be access to HE for as many academically qualified individuals as possible (with access to HE also involving a commitment to lifelong learning).

The broader definition of social justice also covers the concept of inclusion in very much the same way as it covers access.

Finally, the reference in the broader definition of social justice to “sustainability” can be linked to educational actors having responsibility for the stewardship of assets, resources and the environment.

As appropriate to their particular contexts, all actors in education should see the principle of equity, justice and social justice as applying to them.

Democratic and ethical governance and management of the education system and educational institutions

The principle of the “democratic and ethical governance and management of the education system and educational institutions” involves all actors in education recognising that the governance and management of the overall education system and individual educational institutions within it should be based on the democratic involvement of all relevant actors, and management by leaders who exercise their leadership in an ethical way.

Quality education

The principle of “quality education” involves all actors in education recognising their unconditional commitment to achieving educational provision which is of the highest quality possible.

This principle of quality education applies to all aspects of the education system.

Personal and systems improvement

The principle of “personal and systems improvement” involves all actors in education recognising the importance of making the maximum contribution possible to the continuous improvement of the education system.

For education professionals, this can be described as a specific professional commitment, both in terms of a commitment to personal improvement through professional development, and in terms of a commitment to the overall improvement of the system which personal development in turn contributes to.

Institutional autonomy/institutional independence

Within the context of democratic and ethical governance and management of the educational system and educational institutions, the principle of “institutional autonomy/institutional independence” is also very important. This involves recognising the need to give appropriate autonomy and independence to individual institutions within a national education system, so that excessive centralised political control of education is avoided.

The case for institutional autonomy/institutional independence tends to be made particularly for HE institutions, where it is specifically linked to the importance of academic freedom.

However, all actors in education should reflect on how far other education institutions, such as schools, require institutional autonomy/institutional independence if they are to function within an overall context which truly embeds democratic and ethical governance and management of the education system and educational institutions.

International co-operation

The principle of “international co-operation” involves all actors in education recognising the importance of positive international collaboration in education activities.

For example, this principle is central to the European Cultural Convention.

After detailing these ethical principles, the document then analyses the specific types of corruption in education which can be addressed by these principles (Chapter 6).

The document concludes that the next task will be to develop fuller statements of what the ethical principles imply for the ethical behaviour of all actors in education, and gives an initial indication of what the platform’s next document on this will cover (Chapter 7).

1. ETINED: a Council of Europe initiative

The origins and background

The Council of Europe's initiative on establishing a Council of Europe Platform on Ethics, Transparency and Integrity in Education (ETINED) has its origins in the following aspects of the Final Declaration from the Council of Europe Standing Conference of Ministers of Education on Governance and Quality Education, Helsinki, 26 and 27 April 2013:

"[T]he Committee of Ministers [is called on] to instruct the Steering Committee for Educational Policy and Practice (CDPPE), on the basis of the results achieved under their programme of activities and with a view to maintaining their long-term impact at Council of Europe level:

21.1 to establish a Council of Europe platform of exchange of information and best practices on ethics and integrity in education with special attention to the fight against corruption and fraud in education and research with a view to furthering the 'Helsinki agenda for quality education in Europe';

More specifically, such a platform would focus on:

- a. positive codes of conduct as a complement to anti-corruption and anti-fraud legislation for professionals who are active in education and research;
- b. capacity-building for all actors;
- c. support structures (agencies for accreditation or quality assurance);
- d. sharing of best practices concerning fairness and transparency;
- e. developing a culture of democracy and participation based on transparency, fairness and equity."

...

"21.3 to study the possibility of developing a framework instrument on the ethical principles of good conduct and professionalism for teachers (...)."

The origins of this Council of Europe initiative should also be linked closely to their emphasis on the importance of quality in education.

For example, there was considerable discussion of the meaning of the term "quality education" at the Prague Forum on Governance and Quality Education in October 2012, and relevant definitions seem to have been revisited at the meeting of Ministers' Deputies on 12 and 13 December 2012.

In general terms, the Council of Europe background note for the Prague Forum emphasised quality of education as based on democratic governance, the promotion of democracy, and respect for human rights and social justice (Council of Europe 2012a). The appendix to the Committee of Ministers "Recommendation CM/Rec(2012)13 on ensuring quality education" (Council of Europe 2012b) expanded on

a definition of quality education involving nine features (paragraph 6). One of these is that quality education is “free of corruption” (paragraph 6.i).

This Council of Europe initiative should also be placed in the broad context of the current worldwide concern with corruption in education, and the need for positive responses to the contemporary challenges which this presents (for example see Transparency International’s *Global corruption report: education* (2013) and other very recent initiatives, such as the Compostela Group of Universities Poznan Declaration (2014) on “Whole-of-university promotion of social capital, health and development”).

In presenting this Council of Europe Platform on Ethics, Transparency and Integrity in Education, it will be important to emphasise to all member states that the Council of Europe wishes to enter a high-level Council of Europe conversation about potential general issues and ways forward, avoiding suggestions that issues only exist in particular member states. This should be a genuinely European-wide conversation, as the relevant issues do not only affect developing and “transition” societies, but can also affect “mature” societies.

As Vukasovic (2008: 38-39) has emphasised, organisations such as the Higher Education Corruption Monitor, organised by the Boston College Center for International Higher Education (CIHE), present evidence of threats to the transparency and integrity of education which can be found worldwide, including in “mature” societies throughout the world.

The development of the Council of Europe initiative

There has been ongoing work on this initiative since September 2013 and a skeleton feasibility study was completed in November 2013. Particularly important was the distribution of an online questionnaire to all members of the CDPPE in December 2013. Analysis of the questionnaire responses was incorporated in the full feasibility study on “Establishing a Council of Europe Platform on Ethics and Integrity in Education”, which was completed in February 2014 (Smith and Hamilton 2014). Much of the structure of the full feasibility study was framed around the questions and responses from the questionnaire. It was judged important to give full emphasis to the questionnaire responses, as these provided new, direct evidence of the perspectives of CDPPE members, which should be central to establishing the basis for Council of Europe policy in this area.

The full feasibility study was endorsed at a formal CDPPE meeting in March 2014. A working group was then established to progress the initiative – now named the Council of Europe Platform on Ethics, Transparency and Integrity in Education (ETINED).

The working group decided that the emphasis, at least initially, should be on a “human” and “real world” platform, in other words the platform should be progressed at first through meetings, rather than as a major web-based initiative. Some of these details about the platform will be covered in a separate “terms of reference” document.

In addition to the “terms of reference” document, two other documents are envisaged for the initial development of the platform: an overarching “Ethical principles” paper (the present document, ETINED Volume 2), with further work on an “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education”(ETINED Volume 3) .The platform was officially launched at the Prague Forum on 1 and 2 October 2015 (see ETINED Volume 1).



2. Discussion of the methodological approach to the initial documents for the platform

This section discusses the general methodological approach which has been taken to produce the current initial document on “Ethical principles” for the platform, and which also anticipates the approach to be taken to the second document on “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education”.

As mentioned above, it was judged important to reflect fully the views of the Steering Committee for Educational Policy and Practice, as obtained from the responses given by members to the questionnaire. One particularly significant theme among these responses emphasised the importance of referring to the existing expertise, resources and research on anti-corruption which lies with other organisations working in this field, such as the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP – part of UNESCO), Transparency International and the U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre.

This led to the use of key publications from these organisations in the initial classification of underlying concepts, especially on forms of corruption. These publications included: Transparency International (2009); U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre (2006).

Drawing on such sources, the initial classification of forms of corruption in the platform can be short and precise, as requested in particularly significant responses to the CDPPE questionnaire. For example, Transparency International’s *The anti-corruption plain language guide* (2009) offers definitions of a range of relevant general terms, including:

- ▶ corruption: “the abuse of entrusted power for private gain. Corruption can be classified as grand, petty and political, depending on the amounts of money lost and the sector where it occurs” (ibid.: 14);
- ▶ grand corruption: “acts committed at a high level of government that distort policies or the central functioning of the state, enabling leaders to benefit at the expense of the public good” (ibid.: 23);
- ▶ petty corruption: “everyday abuse of entrusted power by low- and mid-level public officials in their interactions with ordinary citizens, who are often trying to access basic goods or services in places like hospitals, schools, police departments and other agencies” (ibid.: 33);

- ▶ political corruption: “manipulation of policies, institutions and rules of procedure in the allocation of resources and financing by political decision makers, who abuse their position to sustain their power, status and wealth” (ibid.: 35);
- ▶ bribery: “the offering, promising, giving, accepting or soliciting of an advantage as an inducement for an action which is illegal, unethical or a breach of trust. Inducements can take the form of gifts, loans, fees, rewards or other advantages (taxes, services, donations, etc.)” (ibid.: 5).

Another useful underlying term is “academic malpractice”, used to describe corrupt practices in higher education specifically (see Magna Charta Observatory and the National Unions of Students in Europe Ivosevic, (ESIB), 2007).

Although the above definitions of “corruption”, “grand corruption”, “petty corruption” and “political corruption” are intended for wider use than simply the educational context, these types of definition of the “underlying concepts” for corruption can provide basic points of reference for the platform. Where required, these can also be supplemented by definitions of associated terms, such as “bribery”, as provided above.

The sources used to identify such underlying overall definitions of corruption generally move on to produce very full lists of the specific forms of corruption in education. The working group advising on the current documents for the platform judges it is important to return to these more specific lists only after overall positive responses to corruption have been discussed. This is to avoid excessive early concentration simply on the “negatives” associated with corruption. Therefore, analysis of lists of specific forms of corruption in education will be found in Section 6 below. This will be preceded by three sections developing the positive case for ethics, transparency and integrity in education being ultimately achieved not only by “mechanistic” anti-corruption measures but rather by the commitment of all actors in education to positive ethical principles for public and professional life (Sections 3-5).

As discussed in paragraphs above, the methodology for identifying forms of corruption and similar concepts has been based upon a review of literature produced by key organisations working in this field. The consideration of how the positive case for an “ethical principles” approach can be developed will also be based upon an extensive review of existing literature in this area, and the sources used will be identified and discussed fully in Sections 3-5 below.



3. Ethics, integrity and quality education: not a mechanistic but a principles approach

A number of the sources which can be used for definitions and classification lists of corruption then proceed to take fairly “mechanistic” approaches to anti-corruption, with a heavy emphasis on the administrative, business and economic aspects.

In Transparency International’s *The anti-corruption plain language guide* (2009), emphasis is given to the importance of such approaches as “access to information”, “accountability”, “audit”, “compliance” and similar. Transparency International’s *Global corruption report: education* (2013) develops a range of examples of these specific approaches, for example the chapter by Mihaylo Milovanovitch (2013: Chapter 4.2) on the use of INTES methodology for assessing the integrity of education systems.

Again, this emphasis on “mechanistic” approaches can be found in the U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre document *Corruption in the education sector* (2006), which only presents codes of conduct as one approach among many on anti-corruption (Section 5) and spends most of the document (Sections 6-10) on the economic aspects of anti-corruption. These economic aspects include “budgetary transparency”, “procurement”, “PETS (public expenditure tracking surveys)” and “formula funding”.

For the IIEP, Muriel Poisson’s *Corruption and education* (2010) takes a fairly mechanistic approach to essentially administrative, economic and financial aspects of anti-corruption for most of the publication (see Sections 3-6 and 8), with only one section (Section 7) devoted to “Teacher codes of conduct”, and even in that section much emphasis is on areas outside Europe and on the limitations around codes of conduct.

The final stress in this publication on the “virtuous triangle”, described as necessary to address corruption in education, also gives heavy emphasis to administrative and management systems, and “social scrutiny” (Section 9). Examples of specific administrative, economic and financial aspects covered include approaches to achieve transparency of standards and procedures, effective use of automated systems and compliance on rights to information.

Also for the IIEP, in the 2007 publication *Corrupt schools, corrupt universities: What can be done?*, Jacques Hallak and Muriel Poisson do suggest that “in different areas it may be more appropriate to talk of ethical and non-ethical behaviour rather than of corrupt and non-corrupt behaviour” (ibid.: 32). However, within “ethics in education”, much of their analysis is in administrative, economic and financial terms. For example, within this discussion they emphasise “transparency” as relating to the “visibility, predictability and understandability of the flows of resources” within an education system (ibid.: 33). They highlight four possible accountability models: bureaucratic; professional; performance-based; and market accountability (ibid.: 35-6). These models are generally presented as essentially administrative and/or financial and economic, with even the professional accountability model emphasising “enforcement” and “sanctions”.

As this publication develops, much time is spent on good practices for funding procedures (ibid.: 128-154) and on procurement and contracting (ibid.: 200-230). Even when strategies are considered to address teachers’ general codes (ibid.: 168-180), much emphasis is on the enforcement of codes. Similar enforcement approaches are emphasised heavily in strategies to combat academic fraud (ibid.: 245-253) and inappropriate private tutoring (ibid.: 267-270).

Again, in the final summary of the “virtuous triangle”, two of the “major strategic axes” are clearly “mechanistic”, namely, “the creation and maintenance of regulatory systems” and “the strengthening of management capacities”, while the third, “encouraging ownership of the management process”, refers explicitly to the “management” process and includes emphasis on “increasing access to information, particularly with the use of ICTs” and on “social control” by communities (see ibid.: 279-282). Of the twelve final “recommendations to policy-makers and educational managers”, at least eight take an essentially “mechanistic” approach (recommendations 1-3, 5-8 and 10) (see ibid.: 287-289).

Drawing from general literature on higher education, a similar emphasis on “mechanistic” approaches can be found, for example an emphasis on:

- ▶ mechanistic responses at individual and institutional level, such as issues with student assessment (e.g. use of computerised methods to underpin anonymous marking; different staff setting and marking assessments);
- ▶ the link with overall quality assurance and enhancement at system level, for example, as Vukasovic has emphasised, “the issue of integrity of higher education cannot be discussed separately from (a) quality of higher education and (b) higher education governance” (Vukasovic 2008: p. 42), which therefore highlights:
 - the need for strong, independent national agencies for quality assurance and enhancement, including external reviews of institutions;
 - the need for such reviews to include criteria directly addressing aspects such as: demonstrating independent and external participation in the management of academic standards, including appropriate external examiner processes; requirements for higher education institutions to provide public information which is fit for purpose (full and sufficient), accessible and trustworthy;

- ▶ recognition that there may be particular issues with private higher education institutions, with consequent need for fully robust initial accreditation and ongoing quality assurance and enhancement review of these institutions.

In other work for the Council of Europe, Smith and Hamilton have emphasised their strong view that it is essential to move beyond such “mechanistic” approaches to combating corruption in education. For example, in their recent work for the Council of Europe/European Union on the Project against Corruption in Albania (PACA), they summarised their “general approach to tackling corruption” in the following terms:

“There is a considerable literature which addresses issues of corruption by taking a mechanistic approach, in which the emphasis is largely on top-down accountability systems and the use of prohibitive, disciplinary and punitive measures. This approach tends to focus on the elimination of negative behaviour, such as bribery. Even a wider and most fully developed analysis, such as Hallak and Poisson’s *Corrupt schools, corrupt universities: What can be done?*, contains much of this approach (Hallak and Poisson 2007). Such an approach is rigorous and systematic in categorising types of corrupt activity, and comprehensive in much of its analysis on mechanistic measures for dealing with it. However, its first emphasis tends to be on establishing norms and regulations, with the principles of ethical and professional behaviour merely reduced to one set of norms within a wider list of norms, and with more emphasis on the enforcement mechanisms for ‘professional norms’ than on the underlying positive principles of ethical and professional behaviour. This approach risks tackling the symptoms rather than the causes of corruption (Smith and Hamilton 2011: pp.12-13; 2013: 27-28).”

In contrast to this approach, they have emphasised that:

“In seeking to create high quality education systems which are free from corruption ... all relevant sectors of society must commit fully to fundamental positive ethical principles for public and professional life” (Smith and Hamilton 2013: 316).

In summary, it follows from this that the new platform should be based on the overall approach that quality education will only be achieved and corruption effectively addressed, if all relevant sections of society commit fully to fundamental positive ethical principles for public and professional life, rather than relying upon top-down mechanistic regulatory measures (with integrity seen as the connection between positive ethical principles and quality in education).

As discussed earlier in Section 1 above, it is this approach to corruption which connects to the emphasis on ethics, integrity and quality education being sought by the Council of Europe. For example, the appendix to Recommendation CM/Rec (2012)¹³ emphasised that combating corruption in education does not only involve the enforcement of “top-down” mechanistic anti-corruption measures in relevant national legislation but should also include “the development of an environment in which corruption is considered unacceptable by stakeholders and the public at large” (paragraph 31).

Smith and Hamilton attempted to emphasise the connections between these Council of Europe approaches and their own preferred approaches in their contributions to the Prague Forum (see Smith 2012: 26, in particular; Hamilton and Reed 2012: 65-66, in particular).

For higher education specifically, Vukasovic takes a similar approach, arguing that, while solutions must be progressed at system level, institutional level and individual level, they must include cultures, as well as structures and policies (Vukasovic 2008: 32-37). Emphasis on the importance of cultures involves reflecting on the shared beliefs and values appropriate within higher education, leading to consideration of fundamental positive ethical principles and codes of ethics.



4. Developing the platform: statements of ethical principles and documents on ethical behaviour of all actors in education

In developing an overall approach based on positive ethical principles, the request for the current document was to focus on producing a paper on the overarching “Ethical principles” for achieving transparency and integrity in education. The intention is then to move to further work on an “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document. It will now be suggested that there may be some complexities in defining what should be included in these respective documents and in the potential relationship between these two documents.

Views from general literature on the relationship between “statements of ethical principles” and “documents on ethical behaviour of all actors in education”

In approaching this issue, reference will be made to the following publications of the IIEP: van Nuland (2009); Poisson (2009); and McKelvie-Sebileau (2011).

Van Nuland (2009: 19-23) discusses definitions of codes of ethics/codes of conduct, and also considers the elements of codes (van Nuland 2009: 31-43).

Then, drawing on Banks (2003), van Nuland distinguishes between ethical principles, ethical rules, principles of professional practice and rules of professional practice, as follows:

- ▶ *Ethical principles* are “general statements of ethical principles underpinning the work” (Banks, 2003: 134). As applied to teachers, “respect for the student” could be considered such a principle.
- ▶ *Ethical rules* are general rules about what to do or not to do in practice. “Information known about the student is considered confidential” is applicable to teaching, in this case, implying that information about a student is not to be divulged.

- ▶ *Principles of professional practice* are described as “general statements about how to achieve what is intended for the good of the service user” (Banks, 2003: 134). Such a principle is practised when teachers and principals report to the parent, at appropriate intervals, on the progress of the student.
- ▶ This is contrasted with a *rule of professional practice*: “very specific guidance relating to professional practice” (Banks, 2003: 134). As an example, “teachers will maintain, under the direction of the principal, proper order and discipline in the teacher’s classroom and while on duty in the school and on the school ground” (van Nuland, 2009: 40-41).

In talking earlier of codes of ethics, van Nuland states that “[p]rofessional ethics can best be synthesised (and simplified) as a set of beliefs that a teacher accepts concerning relationships with students, colleagues, employers, and parents (or guardians and caregivers of children), all of whom are stakeholders in the life of the teacher” (ibid.: 19). Van Nuland moves on to describe a “code of conduct” as setting out “principles of action and standards of behaviour, how the members of the group will operate or work” (ibid.: 20). She emphasises that “[c]odes of ethics or conduct are not to be confused with standards of practice” (ibid.: 23). Generally, she argues that “an effective approach to the ethics of a profession must focus not only on specific rules or regulations, but also on raising collective and individual consciousness of the potential ethical issues that may be encountered” (ibid.: 21).

These various analyses of van Nuland raise a number of issues for the current document. For example, in van Nuland’s terms, it could be suggested that her definition of “ethical principles” corresponds to what should be included in an “Ethical principles” document, with an “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document including a combination of what she describes as “ethical rules”, “principles of professional practice” and “rules of professional practice”. Equally, her description of “professional ethics ... as a set of beliefs” perhaps corresponds to the content of an “Ethical principles” document, with her description of “codes” corresponding to an “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document.

Poisson (2009) also approaches similar issues. She discusses basic definitions for codes of conduct, and the content of codes (ibid.: 19-24).

Poisson focuses on codes of conduct, which she defines as:

“a set of guidelines – a written document – produced by public authorities or by professional organizations, which details the set of recognized ethical norms (or values) and professional standards of conduct to which all members of a profession must adhere (ibid.: 16).”

She describes ethical norms (or values) as “concepts such as integrity, honesty, truth, fairness and respect for others” which “should underpin the work of the members of the profession” (ibid.: 20). These should “serve as inspiration for the development of professional standards” (ibid.: 51).

Standards of professional conduct are defined as “very specific guidance about the professional practice that the profession expects from its members. These standards should guide the members of the profession in their daily activities in working with various stakeholders, such as pupils, parents, colleagues, school principals, administrative authorities, etc.” (ibid.: 51). Poisson produces a comprehensive set of examples

of what can then be included in “standards of professional conduct” within a code, organised under the headings “Towards pupils”, “Towards parents and the community”, “Towards colleagues”, “Towards employers”, and “Towards the profession” (ibid.: 22-23). Interestingly, Poisson adds that “[t]he code should also clarify the general rights of teachers as professionals and employees, and the legal grounds for those rights”, and she gives examples of these general rights (ibid.: 24).

In terms of the current document, Poisson’s reference to “ethical norms (or values)” could be seen as corresponding to van Nuland’s “ethical principles”, and therefore to “ethical principles” for the current document. On the other hand, while her uses of the terms “standards of professional conduct” and “codes of conduct” can seem to run these two terms together at times, and do not correspond neatly to van Nuland’s distinctions between “ethical rules”, “principles of professional practice” and “rules of professional practice”, her set of examples of what can be included in “standards of professional conduct” could provide a very helpful basis for an “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document.

Finally, in terms of IIEP sources, McKelvie-Sebileau (2011) again explores similar issues.

Based on a survey of codes of conduct for teachers carried out in 24 countries, McKelvie-Sebileau identifies the most commonly selected principal themes of codes as values (integrity, respect, commitment, equity, etc.), professional competences (knowledge, pedagogy etc.), relationships with others (colleagues, students, parents, etc.), and gender issues (sexual discrimination, harassment, etc.) (McKelvie-Sebileau 2011: 19).

In terms of documents for the platform, McKelvie-Sebileau does not provide enough detail within her identified themes to provide the basis of a full “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document. However, her “high level” overall descriptions of principal themes could be a useful point of reference for an “Ethical principles” document. (Indeed, the same use could probably also be made of the organising headings produced by Poisson for “standards of professional conduct” – see above.)

There are perhaps two main points for the current document which emerge from an analysis of these IIEP sources. It may be appropriate to distinguish between content for an “Ethical principles” document and content for an “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document. However, while “ethical principles” are about “norms and values” (e.g. Poisson), these may well be quite briefly expressed. “Ethical principles” may also possibly be seen as the “headline summary categories” subsequently developed more fully into “ethical behaviour” documents (e.g., McKelvie-Sebileau; Poisson).

This makes the point that there is a close connection between “high-level ethical principles” and subsequent development into “ethical behaviour” documents.

Indeed, for some authors and organisations, the same document may effectively incorporate both the “principles” and their elaboration into “behaviour codes” (e.g. see Poisson).

While terminology around “ethical behaviour” documents may not always be consistent (e.g. see van Nuland 2009; Poisson 2009), it also seems clear that very fully

developed examples of “ethical behaviour” documents already exist (e.g. see Poisson 2012 for general examples).

However, while the next section explores documents which may combine material on both “ethical principles” and “ethical behaviour”, the intention for the platform remains to produce two separate documents, one for “ethical principles”, and one for “ethical behaviour”.

Existing documents covering both “statements of ethical principles” and material relating to “ethical behaviour of all actors in education”

Developing on this point about documents which already exist, a number of these documents have been considered in detail. In particular, the following have been reviewed:

- ▶ Education International (2004), “Declaration on Professional Ethics”;
- ▶ The International Association of Universities and Magna Charta Observatory (IAU-MCO) (2012), “IAU-MCO guidelines for an Institutional Code of Ethics in Higher Education”;
- ▶ UNESCO-CEPES (2004), “The Bucharest Declaration on Ethical Values and Principles of Higher Education in the Europe Region”, adopted at the International Conference on Ethical and Moral Dimensions for Higher Education and Science in Europe, September 2004;
- ▶ UNESCO (1997), “Recommendation concerning the status of higher-education teaching personnel”;
- ▶ European Commission (2005), “The European Charter for Researchers” and “The Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers”.

The above documents are explicitly international in nature, in other words they have been produced by organisations with responsibilities which cross national boundaries. It is also proposed to consider two documents which have been produced by an organisation with responsibilities specific to one country (the General Teaching Council for Scotland – GTCS). These can be used to illustrate approaches which may have wider significance as examples of good practice (but, of course, this is not to suggest that such examples could not also be drawn from organisations operating in other countries). These two documents (which are linked) are:

- ▶ The General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS) (2012a), “Code of Professionalism and Conduct”, GTCS;
- ▶ The General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS) (2012b), “The standards for registration: mandatory requirements for registration with the General Teaching Council for Scotland”, GTCS.

Each of these documents will now be considered in turn. The intention is to indicate that each document refers to “ethical principles” but also contains very full content relevant to “ethical behaviour of all actors in education” (on this last point, clearly, four of the documents relate specifically to higher education, but the current paper

has already given some specific emphasis to higher education and “all actors in education” will certainly involve staff in higher education).

Educational International Declaration on Professional Ethics (2004)

In contextual remarks on its website, Education International (EI) states that “The El Declaration on Professional Ethics represents the core values of the teaching profession itself”, namely “fundamental values that the worldwide teaching community recognises as core components of its professional ethics”, although “its aim is not to impose a set of fundamental rules but to provide a basis for EI affiliates to develop their own guidelines or professional codes of ethics” (Education International 2004).

In the preamble to the EI declaration, a list of what EI member organisations should generally do includes such phrases as “combat all forms of racism, bias or discrimination in education due to gender, marital status, sexual orientation, age, religion, political opinion, social or economic status, national or ethnic origin; ... cooperate at the national level to promote quality government funded education for all children, to enhance the status and to protect the rights of education personnel”.

These parts of the declaration can certainly be seen as relating to “ethical principles”.

The actual EI declaration itself contains six articles:

1. Commitment to the profession
2. Commitment to students
3. Commitment to colleagues
4. Commitment to management personnel
5. Commitment to parents
6. Commitment to the teacher.

Each article begins with the stem “[e]ducation personnel shall”, except for Article 6, which begins “[t]he community shall”. For example, Article 1.a from “Commitment to the profession” states that education personnel shall “justify public trust and confidence and enhance the esteem in which the profession is held by providing quality education for all students”.

The headings for the six articles could provide a basis for summarising “Ethical principles”, and the detail within the articles could be seen as approaching a full “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document.

IAU-MCO guidelines for an Institutional Code of Ethics in higher education and research (2012)

In the preamble to these guidelines, it is emphasised that “there are certain fundamental and universal core values and principles that guide higher education and academic work”, which “need to be made explicit by higher education institutions in

an Institutional Code of Ethics". These institutional codes of ethics "serve to complement codes of conduct defined by national or international learned or professional societies" and "exist alongside, but do not replace, national and international legislation pertaining to the protection of human rights or other rights and obligations affecting higher education" (IAU-MCO 2012: paragraphs 1.4 and 1.5).

The guidelines discuss underlying values and principles. On underlying values, the key passage is probably the description of

"academic freedom, institutional autonomy and the related responsibilities to society as the *condicio sine qua non* for the unfettered pursuit of truth and the free dissemination of knowledge by and within higher education institutions" (ibid.: paragraph 2.1).

On principles, it is argued that the Institutional Code of Ethics must promote:

- ▶ Academic integrity and ethical conduct of research;
- ▶ Equity, justice and non-discrimination;
- ▶ Accountability, transparency and independence;
- ▶ Critical analysis and respect for reasoned opinions;
- ▶ Responsibility for the stewardship of assets, resources and the environment;
- ▶ Free and open dissemination of knowledge and information;
- ▶ Solidarity with and fair treatment of international partners (ibid.: paragraph 2.2).

The guidelines then proceed to detail 11 aspects which the institutional code should give specific focus to:

- ▶ promoting academic integrity;
- ▶ development of educational programmes to uphold ethical values and academic integrity;
- ▶ upholding equity, justice, equal opportunity, fairness and non-discrimination;
- ▶ obligation of accountability and transparency;
- ▶ pursuit of individual and/or institutional reputation and publicity;
- ▶ avoidance of all abuse of power;
- ▶ promoting critical analysis, freedom of speech and reasoned debate;
- ▶ encouraging social responsibility at the institutional and individual level;
- ▶ exercising vigilance with regard to applications for and receipt of external funds;
- ▶ fair management of intellectual property;
- ▶ promoting solidarity, respect for diversity and equitable international partnerships and collaboration (ibid.: paragraph 3.2).

The guidelines then go on to list the personal responsibilities which follow for "all members of the academic community, including institutional leadership, faculty members, administrative staff and students". There are 13 personal responsibilities detailed (ibid.: paragraph 3.3). These personal responsibilities tend to follow on from the areas covered in the principles and aspects for specific focus, for example the first responsibility relates to academic integrity. However, there is not a mechanistic

relationship from each principle to an aspect for specific focus and then to a personal responsibility.

This summary should make the comprehensive nature of this document clear. While the focus is on higher education, the sections on underlying values and principles are very relevant to any “Ethical principles” document, and the development into aspects for “specific focus” and personal responsibilities are equally relevant to an “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document.

The Bucharest Declaration on Ethical Values and Principles of Higher Education in the Europe Region (UNESCO-CEPES, 2004)

This declaration calls upon “policy makers, academics, researchers, managers and students to strive for applying in their academic pursuits” a range of values and principles. These cover four main areas:

1. academic ethos, culture and community;
2. academic integrity in the teaching and learning processes;
3. democratic and ethical governance and management;
4. research based on academic integrity and social responsiveness.

Separate numbered points (ranging from three to seven) are presented under each of these four main headings. Some of these points take the form of more general statements on desirable aspects of the higher education system, and only some are more specifically expressed as “responsibilities” of particular individuals or groups. However, there are important expansions on such “key values” as honesty, trust, fairness, respect and accountability (ibid.: Section 2).

Again, although the focus is on higher education, as a statement of “values and principles” this declaration is very relevant to any “ethical principles” document. Beyond this, the details within those separate numbered points which express “responsibilities” of particular individuals and groups are also sufficient to relate usefully to an “ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document.

“Recommendation concerning the status of higher-education teaching personnel” (UNESCO 1997)

Although large parts of this document relate to the terms and conditions of employment (Section IX), and are not so relevant to the issues being discussed in the current paper, other parts are much more significant and relate to relevant issues.

This applies to Section III, “Guiding principles”. For example, within this section, paragraph 6 emphasises that “[t]eaching in higher education is a profession ... it ... calls for a sense of personal and institutional responsibility for the education and welfare of students and of the community at large and for a commitment to high professional standards in scholarship and research” (ibid.: paragraph 6).

There are then major relevant sections. Section V on “Institutional rights, duties and responsibilities” includes subsections on “Institutional autonomy” and “Institutional accountability”. Section VI on “Rights and freedoms of higher-education teaching personnel” includes subsections on “Individual rights and freedoms: civil rights, academic freedom, publication rights, and the international exchange of information” and “Self-governance and collegiality”. Section VII is on “Duties and responsibilities of higher education teaching personnel”.

All of these sections contain relevant “statements” of principles, for example on:

- ▶ institutional autonomy: “Self-governance, collegiality and appropriate academic leadership are essential components of meaningful autonomy for institutions of higher education” (paragraph 21);
- ▶ institutional accountability: there is the more general statement that “[s]ystems of institutional accountability should be based on a scientific methodology and be clear, realistic, cost-effective and simple. In their operation, they should be fair, just and equitable. Both the methodology and the results should be open” (paragraph 23). There are also a number of more specific aspects highlighted such as a “commitment to the provision of opportunities for lifelong learning” and similar (paragraph 22);
- ▶ individual rights and freedoms of higher-education teaching personnel: “Access to the higher education profession should be based solely on appropriate academic qualifications, competence and experience and be equal for all members of society without any discrimination” (paragraph 25);
- ▶ self-governance and collegiality for higher-education teaching personnel: “The principles of collegiality include academic freedom, shared responsibility, the policy of participation of all concerned in the internal decision making structures and practices, and the development of consultative mechanisms” (paragraph 32);
- ▶ duties and responsibilities of higher education teaching personnel: “the individual duties of higher education teaching personnel inherent in their academic freedom” include “to be fair and impartial when presenting a professional appraisal of academic colleagues and students” (paragraph 34.j).

Once more, the focus of this document is on higher education. However, Sections V and VI certainly relate to important “Ethical principles” to be observed in developing and sustaining any higher education system, and Section VII clearly moves into detail relevant to a document on “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education”.

The European Charter for Researchers and The Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers (European Commission 2005)

In the European Charter for Researchers, there are statements of “General principles and requirements”, firstly “applicable to researchers” then, secondly, “applicable to employers and funders” (ibid.: 16).

For researchers, these cover: research freedom; ethical principles; professional responsibility; professional attitude; contractual and legal obligations; accountability; good practice in research; dissemination, exploitation of results; public engagement; relation with supervisors; supervision and managerial duties; and continuing professional development.

For employers and funders, these cover: recognition of the profession; non-discrimination; research environment; working conditions; stability and permanence of employment; funding and salaries; gender balance; career development; value of mobility; access to research training and continuous development; access to career advice; intellectual property rights; co-authorship; supervision; teaching; evaluation/appraisal systems; complaints/appeals; participation in decision-making bodies; and recruitment.

For example, on “ethical principles for researchers”, “[r]esearchers should adhere to the recognised ethical practices and fundamental ethical principles appropriate to their discipline(s) as well as to ethical standards as documented in the different national, sectoral or institutional Codes of Ethics” (ibid.: 11).

On “Non-discrimination” for employers and funders, “employers and/or funders of researchers will not discriminate against researchers in any way on the basis of gender, age, ethnic, national or social origin, religion or belief, sexual orientation, language, disability, political opinion, social or economic condition” (ibid.: 16).

The Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers then further develops “a set of general principles that should be followed by employers and/or funders when appointing or recruiting researchers”, which “should ensure observance of values such as transparency of the recruitment process and equal treatment of all applicants” (ibid.: 24).

The code covers recruitment; selection; transparency; judging merit; variations in the chronological order of CVs; recognition of mobility experience; recognition of qualifications; seniority; and postdoctoral appointments.

In focusing on research, these European Commission documents once more relate to higher education, but to a very important dimension of this sector. The “employers and funders” aspects of the charter, and the Code of Conduct for the Recruitment of Researchers, combine to provide a comprehensive set of “ethical principles” to be observed by those responsible for leading the higher education research sector, while the “researchers” aspects of the charter are certainly relevant to the research activities within the “ethical behaviour of actors” who teach and research in the higher education sector.

The General Teaching Council for Scotland (GTCS) Code of Professionalism and Conduct (GCTS 2012a) and “The standards for registration: mandatory requirements for registration with the General Teaching Council for Scotland” (GCTS 2012b)

These two GTCS documents are closely linked. The Code of Professionalism and Conduct embeds “key principles and values” (4), and aspects of these can then

be found within Part 1: “Professionalism and maintaining trust in the profession” (e.g. “honesty” and “integrity”, *ibid.*: 6); Part 2: “Professional responsibilities towards pupils” (e.g. being “truthful, honest and fair”, *ibid.*: 9); Part 3: “Professional competence” (e.g. overall reference to “professional values and personal commitment”, *ibid.*: 11); Part 4: “Professionalism towards colleagues, parents, and carers” (e.g. working “in a collegiate and co-operative manner”, *ibid.*: 12).

The standards for registration contain a full statement of “Professional values and personal commitment”, covering social justice, integrity, trust and respect, and professional commitment (*ibid.*: 5-6).

As indicated earlier, the purpose in providing quite detailed summaries of these seven documents was to illustrate that each document refers to “ethical principles” and also contains very full content relevant to “ethical behaviour of all actors in education” (even if some of the documents relate specifically to higher education). In particular, it is appropriate to convey how fully such documents already cover these aspects. Of course, as already mentioned, the intention for the platform remains to produce two separate documents, one for “ethical principles”, and one for “ethical behaviour”.

As attempted in the current document (see Chapter 5, as follows), it is important that the Council of Europe should look to generate its own new text on such matters. In particular, the Organisation would wish to give a distinctive emphasis to the “public responsibility” which rests on various actors to adhere to, and progress, “ethical principles” in education.

On the other hand, it is important that the Council of Europe recognises the valuable work in this field which has already been undertaken by other organisations, and builds on this work in producing its own documents. In the statements of “ethical principles” which follow, specific references will be made to the documents produced by other organisations (and analysed in paragraphs above).



5. Ethical principles

As discussed earlier, relevant literature uses a number of terms relating to “ethical principles”. Van Nuland (2009) refers to ethical principles/professional ethics/set of beliefs. Poisson (2009) refers to ethical norms/values. McKelvie-Sebileau (2009) refers to values. Education International (2004) refers to core values/fundamental values. The IAU-MCO (2012) refers to underlying values/principles. The European Commission (2005) refers to principles. The GTCS (2012b) refers to professional values and personal commitment. The term used here for the Council of Europe will be “ethical principles”.

Various “stem verbs” are used by other organisations to introduce their “principles”, for example “shall” (Educational International 2004), “promote” (IAU-MCO 2012), “strive for applying” (UNESCO-CEPES 2004), “should adhere to” (European Commission 2005). The GTCS uses a particularly powerful phrase, “unswerving personal commitment” (GTCS 2012b: 5), and the use of this phrase is recommended.

Therefore, the Council of Europe should state that: all actors involved in education should show an unswerving personal commitment to the following ethical principles.

Integrity

The principle of “integrity” can be defined as “[b]ehaviours and actions consistent with a set of moral and ethical principles and standards, embraced by individuals as well as institutions, that create a barrier to corruption” (Transparency International 2009: 24).

This principle therefore links with the concept of “ethics”, namely “[b]ased on core values, a set of standards for conduct in government, companies and society that guides decisions, choices and actions” (Transparency International 2009: 18).

In addition to the general term, the more specific term “academic integrity” can be used to discuss the particular application of this principle in the context of higher education (e.g., see IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.2).

In an interesting expansion on the features of integrity, the GTCS includes that the principle involves “demonstrating openness ... courage and wisdom”, and “critically examining personal and professional attitudes and beliefs and challenging assumptions and professional practice” (GTCS 2012b: 6).

Essentially, as discussed earlier, integrity can be seen as the connection between positive ethical principles and quality in education, and applies to all actors involved in education.

Honesty

This principle involves being “honest and trustworthy” (GTCS 2012a: 8). It means systematically avoiding any form of cheating, lying, fraud, theft, extortion or other dishonest behaviours.

This can include a particular emphasis on “honest and open accounting” (UNESCO 1997: paragraph 22.i).

In higher education, the principle can include a specific connection with avoiding behaviours which “affect negatively the quality status of academic degrees” (UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 2.3).

Clearly, the principle also involves not engaging in behaviour of an actual criminal nature, for example schoolteachers, “especially related to sex, dishonesty, firearms, misuse of drugs and violence against a person or property or serious public order offences, which would be of particular concern in regard to a teacher’s professional status and fitness to teach” (GTCS 2012a: 8).

Of course, these are only examples for higher education and schoolteachers, and the principle of honesty applies to all actors in education.

Truth

This principle involves the “unfettered pursuit of truth” (IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.1), and associated with this is the “free and open dissemination of knowledge” (IAU-MCO 2012: paragraphs 2.1 and 2.2) and “knowledge advancement” (UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 1.1).

The principle also involves “critical analysis and respect for reasoned opinions” (IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.2) and respect for “free exchange of ideas and ... freedom of expression” (UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 2.6). This can be linked to the European Convention on Human Rights, Article 9 on freedom of thought, conscience and religion, and Article 10 on freedom of expression (Council of Europe 1950).

In the context of higher education, the principle of “truth” also relates to research specifically, involving the ethical conduct of research (IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.2), with clear ethical principles and responsibilities for research, including research rights for higher education teaching staff (UNESCO 1997: paragraphs 34 and 29). Research should be based on academic integrity and social responsiveness (UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 4), and involve an obligation to disseminate research (European Commission 2005: 13).

Of course, the principle of truth does not only apply to the higher education research context, but to all aspects of education and to all actors in education. For example, as the GTCS emphasises for schoolteachers, “you must be truthful, honest and fair in relation to information you provide about pupils” (GTCS 2012a: 9).

Transparency

The principle of “transparency” can be defined as the “[c]haracteristic of governments, companies, organisations, and individuals of being open in the clear disclosure of information, rules, plans, processes, and actions. As a principle, public officials, civil servants, the managers and directors of companies, and board trustees have a duty to act visibly, predictably and understandably to promote participation and accountability” (Transparency International 2009: 44).

The principle of transparency can be applied specifically in an institutional context. For example, there can be a stress on the free and open dissemination of information in the running of higher education institutions (IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.2).

However, it is important to emphasise that the principle of transparency places a requirement for the open disclosure of information on all actors within the education system as individuals, not just on organisations.

Respect for others

The principle of “respect for others” is wide-ranging, but can also usefully be subdivided in a number of ways.

The overall phrase “respect for human beings” is used by UNESCO-CEPES, with an emphasis on “respect for the dignity and for the physical and psychic integrity of human beings” (UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 1.1), and McKelvie-Sebileau refers to “relationship with others” to include colleagues, students, parents and similar (McKelvie-Sebileau 2011: 19).

The GTCS emphasises that teachers “must treat all colleagues and parents and carers fairly and with respect, without discrimination” (GTCS 2012a: 12), but also talks specifically of respect for pupils; for example, teachers “must treat sensitive, personal information about pupils with respect and confidentiality” (GTCS 2012a: 9).

A particular extension of the principle of respect for others in relation to colleagues is the importance of collegiality in working.

For example, for higher education UNESCO highlights “principles of collegiality”, such as “shared responsibility, the policy of participation of all concerned in internal decision making structures” (UNESCO 1997: paragraph 32).

For schoolteachers, GTCS emphasises that teachers “should work in a collegiate ... manner with colleagues and members of other relevant professions” (GTCS 2012a: 12), and this is also specifically described as a “professional commitment” to “working collegiately with all members of our educational communities with enthusiasm, adaptability and constructive criticality” (GTCS 2012b: 6).

The principle of respect for others can be extended in higher education to include the concept of “academic freedom” (IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.1; UNESCO 1997: paragraph 27; and also underpinned by Articles 9 and 10 of the European Convention on Human Rights).

This can be expanded to the elements associated with supporting academic freedom and human rights of HE personnel, including civil, political, social and cultural rights; ensuring HE personnel are not subjected to violence, intimidation or harassment in their work; recognising HE teaching personnel have the right to teach without inappropriate interference (UNESCO 1997: paragraphs 22, 26, 28).

For researchers specifically, the principle of respect for others can also be expanded to require employers and funders of researchers to demonstrate non-discrimination, transparency and equal treatment in recruitment of researchers, and in the evaluation and appraisal systems of researchers (European Commission 2005: 16, 21).

The principle of respect for others can also be extended specifically to recognise the “general rights of teachers” (Poisson 2009: 24), and “commitment to teachers by the community” (Education International 2004: Article 6).

Of course, these expanded extensions of the principle of respect for others to HE staff and schoolteachers are only specific examples. The principle applies to all actors in education.

Trust

In an environment where all actors demonstrate respect for others, the principle of “trust” is also very important. This principle means that all actors in education can have a firm belief in the reliability of each other to be honest, truthful and to act with integrity. Therefore, actors can trust others and expect to be trusted by others.

The GTCS has expressed this for schoolteachers, teachers should be “trusting and respectful of others within the school, and with all those involved in influencing the lives of learners in and beyond the learning community” (GTCS 2012b: 6).

UNESCO-CEPES has expressed this for HE: “trust that is mutually shared by all members of an academic community is the backbone of that climate of work that fosters the free exchange of ideas, creativity and individual development” (UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 2.4).

Accountability

When all actors in education show respect for others and trust each other, the principle of “accountability” is much more securely based. This principle is “[t]he concept that individuals, agencies and organisations [public, private and civil society] are held responsible for executing their powers properly” (Transparency International 2009: 2).

While there may be a particular stress on accountability in the running of HE institutions (see IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.2; and UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 3.3), the principle of “accountability” applies to all actors (at the level of individuals and institutions) in education.

Fairness

“Fairness” is a basic principle which all actors in education must observe in their approach to others. This principle involves treating others with impartiality, free from discrimination or dishonesty.

For example, UNESCO-CEPES (2004: paragraph 2.5) has emphasised for HE that “ensuring fairness in teaching, student assessment, research, staff promotion and any activity related to the awards of degrees should be based on legitimate, transparent, equitable, predictable, consistent and objective criteria”.

As appropriate (e.g. with some adjustment from HE-related terms), the specifics of this example can be applied more generally to all aspects of education.

Equity, justice and social justice

The principle of “equity, justice and social justice” is wide-ranging, but can also usefully be subdivided in a number of ways.

The term “equity” is used by McKelvie-Sebileau (2011: 19) and certainly this term can be applied directly, for example to the equal treatment of all students in HE.

However, equity on its own perhaps stays relatively close in meaning to fairness, and can be more appropriately broadened to the term “justice”, or more particularly “social justice”.

For example, the GTCS has defined social justice to include “the educational and social values of sustainability, equality and justice and recognising the rights and responsibilities of future as well as current generations” and also to include “fair, transparent, inclusive and sustainable policies and practices in relation to: age, disability, gender and gender identity, race, ethnicity, religion and belief and sexual orientation” (GTCS 2012b: 5).

This definition of social justice can also be equated with education for “social democracy”, and education for “participative democracy/active citizenship” (e.g. see UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 1.1, for an emphasis on these aspects within HE).

The broader definition of social justice offered above also provides the basis for a particular emphasis on non-discrimination, and the combating of racism, bias and discrimination (see Education International 2004: paragraph 7.e; IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.2; UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 1.1; UNESCO 1997: paragraphs 22 and 25; also the European Convention on Human Rights (1950): Article 14 on prohibition of discrimination).

It also provides the basis for a particular emphasis on “access”. This includes that all children should have access to education (see Education International 2004: paragraph 7.g; and the Additional Protocol to the European Convention on Human Rights (1952): Article 2 on right to education). It also includes access to HE for as many academically qualified individuals as possible (see UNESCO

1997: paragraph 22). Access to HE also involves a commitment to meeting the needs for “lifelong learning” (see UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 1.1; and UNESCO 1997: paragraph 22).

The broader definition of social justice also covers the concept of “inclusion” (e.g., see GTCS 2012a: 11), in very much the same way as it covers access.

Finally, the reference in the broader definition of social justice to “sustainability” can be linked to educational actors having “responsibility for the stewardship of assets, resources and the environment” (as examples, see IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.2, for this responsibility in relation to HE generally; and European Commission 2005: 13, for researchers’ specific responsibilities for management of funds).

As appropriate to their particular contexts, all actors in education should see the principle of equity, justice and social justice as applying to them.

Democratic and ethical governance and management of the education system and educational institutions

The principle of the “democratic and ethical governance and management of the education system and educational institutions” involves all actors in education recognising that the governance and management of the overall education system, and individual educational institutions within it, should be based on the democratic involvement of all relevant actors and management by leaders who exercise their leadership in an ethical way.

For example, UNESCO-CEPES has emphasised the importance of the governance and management of HE institutions involving “the need to encourage participation by the members of the academic community, including students, teachers, researchers and administrators, in decision making”, and institutional leaders “providing ethical leadership” (UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraphs 3.2 and 3.3).

These points about participation and ethical leadership should be applied generally across the education system.

Quality education

The principle of “quality education” involves all actors in education recognising their unconditional commitment to achieving educational provision which is of the highest quality possible.

For example, the importance of this for the Council of Europe has already been emphasised in Section 1. A similar emphasis on quality education can also be found from Educational International (see Educational International 2004: paragraph 7.f), UNESCO-CEPES (see UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraph 1.1), and UNESCO (see UNESCO 1997: paragraph 22).

This principle of quality education applies to all aspects of the education system.

Personal and systems improvement

The principle of “personal and systems improvement” involves all actors in education recognising the importance of making the maximum contribution possible to the continuous improvement of the education system.

For education professionals, this can be described as a specific “professional commitment”, both in terms of a commitment to personal improvement through professional development, and in terms of a commitment to the overall improvement of the system which personal development in turn contributes to.

For example, the GTCS emphasises the importance for schoolteachers of “[c]ommitting to lifelong enquiry, learning, professional development ... as core aspects of professionalism” and “[c]ritically examining the connections between personal and professional attitudes and beliefs, values and practices to effect improvement and, when appropriate, bring about transformative change in practice” (GTCS 2012b: 6).

As appropriate to their particular contexts, all actors in education should see the principle of personal and systems improvement as calling for them to contribute as far as possible to the continuous improvement of the education system.

Institutional autonomy/institutional independence

Within the context of democratic and ethical governance and management of the education system and educational institutions, the principle of “institutional autonomy/institutional independence” is also very important. This involves recognising the need to give appropriate autonomy and independence to individual institutions within a national education system, so that an excessive centralised political control of education is avoided.

The case for institutional autonomy/institutional independence tends to be made particularly for HE institutions, where it is specifically linked to the importance of academic freedom (see IAU-MCO 2012: paragraphs 2.1 and 2.2; UNESCO 1997: paragraphs 17-20; and UNESCO-CEPES 2004: paragraphs 1.1 and 1.2).

However, all actors in education should reflect on how far other education institutions such as schools require institutional autonomy/institutional independence if they are to function within an overall context which truly embeds democratic and ethical governance and management of the education system and educational institutions.

International co-operation

The principle of “international co-operation” involves all actors in education recognising the importance of positive international collaboration in education activities.

For example, this principle is central to the European Cultural Convention, which advocates the study of “the languages, history and civilisation” of other countries (see European Cultural Convention 1954: Article 2).

In HE specifically, the IAU-MCO stresses the importance of “[s]olidarity with, and fair treatment of international partners” (IAU-MCO 2012: paragraph 2.2).

All actors in education should see the relevance of the principle of international co-operation.

Moving from this “Ethical principles” document to the next “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education” document

The next document will move from the above “Ethical principles” to expanding on what these involve for the “Ethical behaviour of all actors in education”.

For teachers at all levels (including HE lecturers), the “ethical principles” will need to be connected to “ethical behaviour” involving relationships with (the term used by van Nuland 2009), or commitment to (the term used by Educational international 2004), the following:

- ▶ pupils/students (e.g. Education International 2004; Poisson 2009; GTCS 2012a refers to school pupils; GTCS 2012b refers to learners; UNESCO-CEPES 2004 refers to students);
- ▶ colleagues/the profession (e.g. both terms are used by Education International 2004; Poisson 2009; and GTCS 2012a and b);
- ▶ employers (e.g. term used by Poisson 2009), management personnel (e.g. term used by Education International 2004), managers (e.g. term used by UNESCO-CEPES 2004) (NB these terms are referring here to employers, managers and management personnel within the education system);
- ▶ parents (guardians, care givers, carers) (e.g. related terms used by Education International 2004; GTCS 2012a; and van Nuland 2009), the community (e.g. term used by Poisson 2009).

The above indicates the actors who teachers/lecturers must relate to. In addition, this list contributes to identifying the other actors who should be covered when expanding on the ethical behaviour of all actors in education.

Such actors can certainly include school pupils and HE students (to differing degrees), and the parents/guardians/care givers of pupils and students.

Relevant actors also include employers and managers within the education system.

However, consistent with the Council of Europe’s particular emphasis on public responsibility within this area, this reference to employers and managers should be widened to include relevant public officials, and the political leaders and representatives of broader civil society more generally.



6. Forms of corruption

As discussed earlier (see Section 2), the intention in this document has been to discuss extensively the positive approaches to ethics, transparency and integrity in education, with only a relatively brief reference to general forms of corruption, before providing a more detailed analysis of the specific forms of corruption in education which the positive approaches can address. It is now proposed to detail these specific forms of corruption.

The platform can specify the main forms of corruption in education by providing details in two ways:

- ▶ views from general literature;
- ▶ overall collated lists.

Forms of corruption: views from general literature

As already discussed, publications from organisations such as the IIEP, Transparency International and the U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre provide very useful sources for lists of specific forms of corruption in education. While the work of these organisations ranges worldwide, their analyses of forms of corruption are certainly relevant to Europe.

Transparency International's *The anti-corruption plain language guide* has already been used to provide definitions of overall terms (see paragraph 2.3.1 above). Its publication "*Global corruption report: education*" (2013) details the more specific types of corruption in education as looking at "every stage of education, even before entering the school gates, and right through to doctoral graduation and academic research" (Transparency International 2013).

On corruption in schools, this includes "shadow schools' ... 'ghost teachers' and the diversion of resources intended for textbooks and supplies, bribery in access to education and the buying of grades, nepotism in teacher appointments and fake diplomas, the misuse of school grants for private gain, absenteeism, and private tutoring in place of formal teaching ... also includes such practices as sexual exploitation in the classroom as abuses of entrusted power and, therefore, as acts of corruption" (ibid.).

Moving to higher education, this publication states that “[c]orrupt acts in higher education institutions can mirror those of the school, but there are also distinct forms of corruption. These include illicit payments in recruitment and admissions, nepotism in tenured postings, bribery in on-campus accommodation and grading, political and corporate undue influence in research, plagiarism, ‘ghost authorship’ and editorial misconduct in academic journals ... also online diploma and accreditation mills, the manipulation of job placement data, and corruption in degree recognition in cross-border education” (ibid.).

This Transparency International publication can contribute to the platform’s classification of types of corruption in education, both generally and in higher education specifically.

Similar to the above Transparency International publications, IIEP sources can be drawn on for basic definitions of corruption and classification of types of corruption.

For example, in the 2007 publication *Corrupt schools, corrupt universities: What can be done?*, Jacques Hallak and Muriel Poisson provide some basic definitions of what is intended by corruption, transparency, accountability and ethics in the education sector (Hallak and Poisson 2007: Chapter 1). They discuss political, legislative, administrative and bureaucratic corruption (ibid.: 29-30). They emphasise that corruption can cover a wide range of activities, such as favouritism, nepotism, clientilism, soliciting or extortion of bribes, and embezzlement of public goods (ibid.: 30).

In Chapter 2, they provide further definitions of corruption, such as the following “10 major areas in which malpractices can be identified, namely: (i) finance; (ii) allocation of specific allowances (fellowships, subsidies, etc.); (iii) construction, maintenance and school repairs; (iv) distribution of equipment, furniture and materials (including transport, boarding, textbooks, canteens and school meals); (v) writing of textbooks; (vi) teacher appointment, management (transfer, promotion), payment and training; (vii) teacher behaviour (professional misconduct); (viii) information systems; (ix) examinations and diplomas; and (x) institution accreditation” (ibid.: 62).

Again, this IIEP publication can be used to contribute to the platform’s presentation of underlying concepts and classifications of forms of corruption in education, generally and including higher education.

The U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre document *Corruption in the education sector* (2006) produces a detailed list of the “various forms” which corruption in education can take. These include the following.

- ▶ Illegal charges levied on children’s school admission forms which are supposed to be free.
- ▶ School places “auctioned” out to the highest bidder.
- ▶ Children from certain communities favoured for admission, while others are subjected to extra payments.
- ▶ Good grades and exam passes obtained through bribes to teachers and public officials. The prices are often well known, and candidates can be expected to pay up-front.

- ▶ Examination results only released upon payment.
- ▶ Removing the consequences of failing exams by (re-)admitting students under false names.
- ▶ Embezzlement of funds intended for teaching materials, school buildings, etc.
- ▶ Sub-standard educational material purchased due to manufacturers' bribes, instructors' copyrights, etc.
- ▶ Schools monopolising meals and uniforms, resulting in low quality and high prices.
- ▶ Private tutoring outside school hours given to paying pupils, reducing teachers' motivation in ordinary classes, and reserving compulsory topics for the private sessions to the detriment of pupils who do not or cannot pay.
- ▶ School property used for private commercial purposes.
- ▶ Pupils carrying out unpaid labour for the benefit of the staff.
- ▶ Staff exploiting and abusing pupils in many different ways (physically, sexually, etc.).
- ▶ Teacher recruitment and postings influenced by bribes or sexual favours.
- ▶ Exam questions sold in advance.
- ▶ "Ghost teachers" – salaries drawn from staff who are no longer (or never were) employed for various reasons (including having passed away). This affects *de facto* student–teacher ratios, and prevents unemployed teachers from taking vacant positions.
- ▶ High absenteeism, with severe effects on *de facto* student–teacher ratios.
- ▶ Licences and authorisations for teaching obtained on false grounds via corrupt means.
- ▶ Inflated student numbers (including numbers of special-needs pupils) quoted to obtain better funding.
- ▶ Bribes to auditors for not disclosing the misuse of funds.
- ▶ Embezzlement of funds raised by local non-governmental organisations and parents' organisations.
- ▶ Politicians allocating resources to particular schools to gain support, especially during election times (U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre 2006: 3-4).

Once more, this U4 Anti-Corruption Resource Centre publication can be used to contribute to the platform's presentation of underlying concepts and classifications of forms of corruption in education, generally and including higher education.

On higher education specifically, particular issues have already been highlighted from Transparency International's *Global corruption report: education* (2013).

There is also other literature specifically relating to higher education, such as the work of the Magna Charta Observatory of Fundamental University Values and Rights (University of Bologna and European University Association). For example, in the chapter on "Academic alienation and exploitation", Vanja Ivosevic (2007) identifies examples of corruption/academic malpractice at:

- ▶ individual level: direct bribery; indirect bribery and rewards; gifts; nepotism and power groups; harassment and discrimination;
- ▶ institutional level: political influence; “old boys clubs”; lack of transparency in financing and accountability; conflict of interest; issues with staff employment, staff evaluation and advancement criteria;
- ▶ system level: distribution of the national budget to higher education institutions; power of the rectors’ conference.

This type of Magna Charta Observatory/ESIB publication can contribute to the platform’s presentation of underlying concepts and classifications of specific higher education forms of corruption.

Forms of corruption: overall collated lists

These types of list drawn from a variety of sources can then be collated into overall lists of forms of corruption in education. For example, there is even a summary version of such a list already in the CDPPE explanatory memorandum on “Recommendation CM/Rec(2012)13 of the Committee of Ministers to member states on ensuring quality education”. Beyond this, researchers within the Education Department of the Council of Europe have been able to compile such a list (see Council of Europe 2013b: Section 3 on “Main problems and corruption-sensitive areas in education and research – Overview of corruption-sensitive areas”). In presenting this list, some minor amendments have been made to the original wording of the researchers:

Overview of corruption-sensitive areas:

1. Pre-admissions:

“Targeted tutoring” when admission to a university is promised to those prospective students who agree to pay for a preparation course of a certain length with a professor (or several professors of different subjects) of the same university.

2. Admissions:

- a. examination fraud, bribery, favouritism, undue influence, discrimination;
- b. illegal payments for securing a place at all levels of education (including pre-school and compulsory education);
- c. exchange of money and gifts in return for admission to university;
- d. buying certificates for physical disability and diplomas for achievements in academic competitions that allow a student to enter university without admission tests.

3. Corruptive practices during the course of studies:

- a. parental informal payments in schools (for reconstruction of school buildings, for textbooks and necessary equipment, for cleaning services and security etc.);
- b. examination malpractice;

- c. payment for illegal and undocumented additional classes with the same professor who is teaching the course (either factual tutoring or pseudo-tutoring) with the effect of guaranteed grade inflation or “automatic pass” of the assessment;
- d. re-admission to a missed or failed exam/assessment for a payment;
- e. grade-inflation corruption, with students of highly competitive courses (law, medicine) protecting their grade point averages through inappropriate pressures placed upon faculty (e.g. utilising their status if they are a child of a donor/legacy family, plagiarism, cheating or fabricating essays, grade inflation in exchange for high student course evaluations).

4. Graduation:

- a. bribes for passing the exams/assessments and increasing the exam marks/assessment grades;
- b. illegal methods (aids) used by students during their study process and cheating during the exams;
- c. “final testing tourism” – when future graduates settle for the last half year in a region where results of the final school testing can be bought, and enrol into a school and “pass” their finals there; after that they return home with a certificate that can be used to secure a place at a university of their choice.

5. False credentials:

- a. bribery and undue influence in grading and degree conferral, fake/unearned degrees from legitimate institutions or from “degree mills”;
- b. trade in diplomas, from the simplest copies (including those with the use of official forms on watermark protected paper) to diplomas “with a lead” (the buyer not only receives a formal proof of qualification, but also all internal documentation of the educational institution reflects his or her full “participation” in the educational process – from presence in the classroom to passing the exams and coursework).

6. Personnel (recruitment, tenure, promotion, other):

- a. bribery, undue influence, use of false credentials, discrimination, harassment;
- b. non-transparent recruitment procedures (hiring and promoting are not based on the professional criteria and merits of the candidates);
- c. informal connections, protectionism, promotion of relatives (e.g. recruiting new lecturers from the graduates of the same university);
- d. nepotism and clientelistic networks.

7. Publications and plagiarism:

- a. cheating, plagiarism/theft of ideas or work, failure to follow standards, falsification of results, conflicts of interest;

- b. trade in theses and PhDs, buying ready-written papers, which are submitted and presented as original work;
 - c. poor quality of research with failure to comply with formal requirements; unauthorised use of the work of others; fabricated publications; some publications do not meet the established ethical research standards;
 - d. illegal payments for being published in peer-reviewed academic journals;
 - e. misrepresentation of author status on multi-authored publications; graduate student abuse (taking authorship credit for graduate student studies/work); abuse of academic freedom;
 - f. conflict of interest – personal financial interest in the results of academic research.
8. Research commissions: black market in academic degrees offers confidential services, such as preparation of the dissertation with the ensuing support, which would include taking care of publications and all the necessary paperwork, as well as ensuring a positive reaction by the members of the dissertation council to the work presented by the applicant.
9. Distribution of grants: a large percentage of research grants goes for “university administration costs” for the university’s part as the host site and support structure for research faculty who are awarded the grants.
10. Consulting: informal paid “consultations” with those students who want to secure a good grade for the exam/assessment.
11. Decision-making process:
influenced by personal relations or interests.
12. Violence-related corruption:
- a. sexual harassment, administrative and faculty misconduct, or hazing traditions for new members of a student organisation (fraternity and sorority);
 - b. blackmailing victims of violence, cover-up of acts of violence for payment, extortion of illegal payments to start or close the disciplinary proceedings, etc.
13. Other areas include but are not limited to:
- a. quality assurance, namely malpractice in supervision and control procedures when supervising authorities ignore and cover up inadequacies in licensing and accreditation requirements, and permit diploma mills for a share in the business, allowing misrepresentation and providing false data;
 - b. inappropriate use of budget funds (diversion for private purposes, renting out university premises without the owner’s explicit consent as required by the legislation);
 - c. abuse and exceeding of official capacity by heads of state and municipal educational institutions, as well as by officials of state authorities;

- d. combination of state and municipal education administration posts with positions in commercial organisations;
- e. creation of a fictional private educational institution that only exists on paper and does not in fact engage in educational activities.

This type of overall collated list can be used to contribute to the platform's presentation of underlying concepts and classifications of forms of corruption in education, generally and including higher education.

7. Conclusion

In considering a Council of Europe Platform on Ethics, Transparency and Integrity in Education, this document has argued for the importance of responding to issues of corruption in education not simply by adopting top-down, mechanistic measures, but by attempting to achieve transparency and integrity in education based upon a commitment to fundamental positive ethical principles in professional and public life.

The document has explored some of the complexities involved in attempting to distinguish between materials on “ethical principles” and associated materials on the “ethical behaviour of all actors in education”. A number of important documents produced by other organisations have been analysed to review existing coverage of relevant approaches to “ethical principles” and “ethical behaviour”.

The paper has then proposed a detailed list of relevant fundamental “ethical principles”, which it suggests can address the main forms of corruption likely to affect education systems (and the paper has classified these forms of corruption in a variety of ways).

The next task will be to develop fuller statements of what the “ethical principles” imply for the “ethical behaviour of all actors in education”.

These statements will cover how teachers and HE lecturers should behave towards pupils/students, professional colleagues, employers and managers within education, parents/guardians/care givers, and the general community.

However, the statements will also cover the behaviour of these other actors themselves, namely pupils/students, employers and managers in education, the broader categories of all relevant public officials, parents/guardians/care givers, and the political leaders and representatives of wider civil society more generally.

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There is today general recognition of the adverse effects of unethical behaviour in the field of education at all levels and in all countries. While the main stakeholders agree on the need to combat corruption in education, there are diverging opinions on how to achieve this.

What are the ethical principles on which education policy in Europe today should be based? How can we achieve genuine ethics, transparency and integrity in schools and universities? What approach should be adopted to counter the various forms of corruption that affect the education sector at various levels? This publication attempts to answer these questions, setting out the 14 ethical principles for education put forward by the Council of Europe Platform on Ethics, Transparency and Integrity in Education (ETINED), along with how they were developed and where they can be applied.

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