

The Effect of Culture on the Academic Honesty of Marketing and Business Students

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Abstract

Two trends in marketing higher education include (a) growing opportunities for intercultural encounters in the classroom and (b) a growing concern about student academic honesty. Research regarding the relationship between specific cultural measures and academic honesty is sparse in the context of marketing and business programs in higher education. This study surveys marketing and business college students from 13 different countries about their perceptions of questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty and measures Hofstede's commonly studied cultural dimension of individualism/collectivism as a direct test of the cultural hypotheses presented. As predicted, collectivist business students are more tolerant than individualist business students concerning questionable academic behaviors that are unilateral (e.g., copying material/papers from the Internet or looking at another student's exam without the knowledge of the other student), collaborative (e.g., getting exam questions/answers from others or free riding in a group), and delaying (e.g., requesting due date/exam date delays or assignment extensions with false information). In alignment with the theory of reasoned action, results also show that a positive attitude about the value of teamwork (relative to individual work) mediates the effect between collectivism and questionable academic behaviors that are collaborative. The results and recommendations are particularly relevant to marketing educators teaching beginners to advanced courses in a culturally diverse classroom.

Keywords

ethics, cheating, academic honesty, culture, pedagogy

Introduction

As the world becomes more global, there is growing opportunity for intercultural encounters in schools, including in business programs in higher education (Clarke & Flaherty, 2002; Lupton, Chapman, & Weiss, 2000). Marketing programs are not immune to this trend. An array of other business majors, nonbusiness majors, and foreign exchange students take basic marketing courses. Additionally, all of these types of students are sometimes interested in and/or are required to take more advanced marketing courses.

A further challenge to marketing professors is dealing with intercultural members in teams because of the heavy reliance on group projects, especially in upper-level marketing courses. Finally, marketing professors may take on permanent or temporary teaching assignments in other countries. Both home and foreign intercultural teaching experiences have increased to the point that some now consider education, including marketing education, to be a global product (Chapman & Lupton, 2004). For all these reasons, marketing professors cannot rely solely on the marketing pedagogical

literature or with curriculum targeted at teaching the local culture, in part, because as pointed out by Hofstede (2001), "Different cultural value patterns between teacher and student(s) are a regular source of problems [in the classroom]" (p. 451).

Another problem area in the classroom is the finding that cheating is commonplace with students (Broeckelman-Post, 2008), and is especially a problem with business students (Klein, Levensgurg, McKendall, & Motehrsell, 2007; McCabe & Trevino, 1995). This is important, in part, because recent research also shows that students who cheat in academic settings are more likely to demonstrate future professional misconduct (Atmeh & Al-Khadash, 2008; Harding, Carpernter, Finelli, & Passow, 2004; Lawson, 2004; Nonis & Swift, 2001; Sims, 1993). The relationship between the two topics (culture

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and academic honesty) is the focus of this study because research shows that students from different countries, and presumably different cultures, report different frequencies of cheating and have different perceptions about cheating (Cizek, 1999). It is critical that academics understand any cultural differences that exist to mitigate the growth of these questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty.

A review of the cross-national academic honesty literature with college subjects reveals that culture is rarely, if ever, measured directly. Instead, cultural differences are assumed to exist if the students are from different countries. This is an unfortunate assumption because there is some evidence that there are intranational cultural differences (e.g., ethnic differences) between students within a country that affect ethical decision making (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1999; Lopez, Rechner, & Olson-Buchanan, 2005; Rashid & Ibrahim, 2008). As a result, this study measures a commonly studied dimension of culture (individualism/collectivism) directly to confirm that students from the same country have scores that are comparable to Hofstede's (1980, 2001) scores in his classic cross-cultural studies of culture.

Beyond the contribution of directly measuring an aspect of culture, this study also makes additional contributions to the literature as follows. First, it tests a broader sample of college business students from more countries (13) than previous studies. Second, based on the literature review, it identifies specific ethically based educational situations (i.e., questionable academic behaviors that are unilateral, collaborative, and delaying) that are likely faced by business college students. Finally, and consistent with the theory of reasoned action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005), it tests if a positive attitude about the value of teamwork (relative to individual work) mediates the effect between collectivist students and collaborative questionable academic behaviors.

The objectives of this article are to (a) determine if perceptions of questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty differ across cultures, (b) understand if individualism/collectivism provides an explanation as to these potential differences, and (c) provide suggestions for dealing with these differences in an intercultural marketing/business classroom.

Literature Review

Academic Honesty of College Students

According to Nill, Schibrowsky, and Peltier (2004), "Although research on ethics from the perspective of the global business community is developing, there is a paucity of cross-cultural studies within the educational arena (Salter et al. 2001; Yoo and Donthu 2002)" (p. 63). Not surprisingly, this study's review of the literature reveals only 12 cross-national studies

that include the perceptions of college students about academic honesty (see Table 1). All the studies simply report if there are significant differences in college student views about academic honesty based on nationality and assume the differences are, in large part, caused by different cultures. These studies rely on a framework that assumes that all individuals in a given country are homogeneous in terms of their culture (Lopez et al., 2005), minimizing the necessity of measuring culture. Consequently, cultural differences are assumed to exist if the students are from different countries. This is unfortunate because there is some evidence that there are cultural differences between individuals within a country (e.g., ethnic differences) that affect ethical decision making (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1999; Lopez et al., 2005; Rashid & Ibrahim, 2008).

Despite the issue above, Table 1 shows that several studies report that U.S. college students appear to cheat less than college students from other countries including China (Rawlinson & Lupton, 2007; Rawwas, Al-Khatib, & Vitell, 2004), Israel (Enkar, 1987), Japan (Diekhoff, LaBeff, Shinohara, & Yasukawa, 1999), Poland (Lupton et al., 2000), and Russia (Lupton & Chapman, 2002; Magnus, Polterovich, Danilov, & Savvateev, 2002). A couple of studies report that U.S. college students appear to cheat more than college students from Australia (Diekhoff et al., 1999) and the United Kingdom (Salter, Guffey, & McMillan, 2001).

Table 1 also shows that there are numerous types of questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty reported by college students. Several studies identify cheating on an exam as a common behavior (Chapman & Lupton, 2004; Enkar, 1987; Lupton & Chapman, 2002; Lupton et al., 2000; Rawwas et al., 2004; Salter et al., 2001; Stanton, 1980). Interestingly, some researchers contrast cheating on an exam without the cooperation of others (unilateral cheating) to getting/giving information to others about an exam (collaborative cheating; Chapman & Lupton, 2004; Lupton & Chapman, 2002; Lupton et al., 2000).

Relative to the first type of cheating on exams (i.e., without the cooperation of others), other examples of unilateral questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty included plagiarism or copying from published materials (Enkar, 1987; Salter et al., 2001) and hacking into a computer (Rawlinson & Lupton, 2007). With regard to getting/giving information to others about an exam, one study places these behaviors under the category of receiving and abetting academic dishonesty (Rawwas et al., 2004). Two studies report additional examples of collaborative questionable behaviors including: (a) turning in work or a paper purchased or borrowed from a fellow student, (b) writing a paper or assignment for another student, and (c) contributing little to group work and projects, yet still receiving the same credit as the other members (Rawwas et al., 2004; Salter et al., 2001).

Table 1. Cross-National Responses of College Students About Academic Dishonesty

Reference	Countries and Types of Students	Variables	Findings
Chapman and Lupton (2004)	Hong Kong and U.S. business students	Cheating behaviors and perceptions between countries. Specific cheating behaviors include cheating on an exam, getting/giving exam information to others, using another's paper.	More than half of the American students and approximately a third of the Hong Kong business students reported cheating at some point during their university studies. There were statistically significant differences in what American students believed was cheating (in-class cheating) compared with their counterparts (out-of-class cheating). American students were more likely to cheat on an exam than their counterparts.
Davis, Noble, Zak, and Dreyer (1994)	Australia and U.S. undergraduate students	Frequency of cheating in high school and college, fear of being caught, improvement of grades via cheating, the influence of strict penalties, effective penalties, and reasons for cheating among different countries. Specific cheating behaviors were not measured.	A smaller percentage of Australian students admitted that had ever cheated compared with the U.S. students, who were more likely than Australian students to perceive cheating as improving their examination scores. Relative to the American sample, the Australian students are less grade oriented.
Diekhoff et al. (1999)	Japan and U.S. undergraduate students	Frequency of cheating, neutralizing (i.e., justification), reactions to observed cheating, and perceptions about deterrents to cheating between countries. Specific cheating behaviors were not measured.	Japanese students reported a higher incidence rate of cheating on exams, a greater tendency to neutralize (i.e., justify) cheating, and a greater passivity in their reactions to the observed cheating of others. Guilt and fear of punishment were viewed as the most effective deterrents by both sets of students.
Enkar (1987)	Israel and U.S. female education undergraduates	Frequency and perceptions about cheating between countries. Specific cheating behaviors included copying from another student during an exam, plagiarism (copying from published materials), giving answers to other students during an exam.	With regard to copying from others on exams and giving answers to others during an exam, the students from the two countries differed significantly. Israelis report more cheating and are less negative toward cheating than their American counterparts.
Lupton and Chapman (2002)	Russia and U.S. business students	Frequency and beliefs about cheating between countries. Specific cheating behaviors include cheating on an exam, getting/giving exam information to others, using another's paper.	Fifty-five percent of U.S. students reported they had cheated at some point in college compared with 64% of Russian students. Russian students felt that 69% of their colleagues cheat on exams, whereas American students reported only 24% of their colleagues cheated.
Lupton et al. (2000)	Polish and U.S. undergraduate business students	Frequency and beliefs about cheating between countries. Specific cheating behaviors include cheating on an exam, getting/giving exam information to others, using another's paper.	Fifty-five percent of U.S. students reported they had cheated in college compared with 84% of Polish students. More than 70% of all students reported had given or received information about earlier exam. Polish students felt that 61% of their fellow students cheat on exams compared with the U.S. students (24%).
Magnus et al. (2002)	Russian, Netherlands, Israel, and U.S. high school, undergraduate (mostly from economics departments) and economics postgraduates	A student's attitude about a cheating situation among countries. The situation described was Student C reports to the departmental office that Student A, while taking an exam, copied answers from Student B's paper with the consent of Student B.	The higher the level of education, the more negative the student was toward cheaters and the more positive the student was toward informers. Russian students were most positive and the U.S. students the most negative about cheaters; yet the attitude toward informers was the opposite.

(continued)

Table 1. (continued)

Reference	Countries and Types of Students	Variables	Findings
Rawlinson and Lupton (2007)	China and U.S. university students	Frequency of and attitude toward cheating between countries. Specific cheating behaviors include using unlicensed software, cheating on an exam or assignment, giving or receiving information about an exam, and hacking into a computer network.	Chinese students perceive significantly higher levels of software piracy than do American students. Chinese students reported a significantly higher percentage of cheating on exams and a somewhat higher percentage on what type of activity constitutes cheating. Finally Chinese students report more authority or control to the instructor of the class. Chinese students are also more likely to believe that cheating in the classroom leads to cheating in life.
Rawwas et al. (2004)	China and the United States	Individual beliefs and values (i.e., tolerance, achievement, negativism, behaviorism, detachment, nontheism, relativism, and opportunism) and academy dishonesty. Four factors of academic dishonesty were measured: receiving and abetting academic dishonesty (e.g., communicating answers in an exam), obtaining an unfair advantage (contributing little to group work or projects), fabricating information (e.g., using a fake illness as an excuse for missing an exam), and ignoring prevalent practices (e.g., visiting a professor's office frequently).	In both the United States and Chinese samples, opportunism and idealism have the greatest impact on attitudes toward academic dishonesty. Those who score high on opportunism and low on idealism are more likely to find academic dishonest to be more acceptable. Chinese students are more tolerant and detached than are the American students, and they are less sensitive to the acceptance of academic dishonesty than are the American students. The Chinese sample was more likely to believe that "receiving and abetting academic dishonestly" and "obtaining unfair advantage" were not wrong than the American sample. Americans were more likely to believe that "ignoring prevalent practices" was not wrong.
Salter et al. (2001)	U. K. and U.S. accounting students	Consideration of one of Hofstede's cultural dimensions (uncertainty avoidance) and scores. United Kingdom (low uncertainty avoidance society) and United States (high uncertainty avoidance society). Other variables include levels of cheating, cynicism, and tolerance. Students were asked about the severity of 23 cheating behaviors.	Students in the United Kingdom were more tolerant of cheating (rated 23 behaviors as less severe) and were more cynical but tended to cheat less (40%) than students in the United States (56%). The severity of cheating behaviors from most severe to less severe include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taking a test for a friend/cheating during an exam • Not contributing one's fair share during a group project this behavior • Lying to an instructor about illness when an exam or assignment is due • Copying homework
Stanton (1980)	England, Grenada, Jamaica, Mauritius, and Nigeria undergraduate education students	Belief about cheating on a test among countries.	Among all national groups there was consensus that cheating on a test was an "undesirable behavior."
Sumrain (1987)	Arab and U.S. university students	The behaviors that constitute cheating behaviors and appropriate punishment between countries.	There were no statistically significant differences about the cheating behaviors. Arabs thought punishment should be less severe than the U.S. students.

In addition to the unilateral and collaborative questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty described above, two studies reported another interesting dishonest academic

behavior described as fabricating information (e.g., lying to an instructor about illness, using false excuses to get out of taking exam or delaying when an assignment is due; Rawwas et al.,

2004; Salter et al., 2001). This is dishonest if the student uses false information to possibly obtain an unfair advantage in the classroom compared to other students (e.g., more time to study or prepare or to get more information about a missed exam or assignment). As a result of the review of the literature presented in Table 1, this study includes three types of questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty likely faced by marketing/business college students: unilateral, collaborative, and delaying.

Marketing Ethics Decision-Making Models

One conclusion about the academic honesty research above is that it is not steeped in theory. The same is not true of marketing ethics research concerning how marketers arrive at ethically relevant decisions. This may be because of marketing decision-making models developed in the 1980s known as the contingency model of ethical decision making in a marketing organization (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Ferrell, Gresham, & Fraedrich, 1989) and the general theory of marketing ethics (heretofore known as the H-V model; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; updated in 2006). The development of these models, especially the H-V model (Hunt & Vitell, 1986), were the catalyst for a substantial number of empirical studies over the next couple of decades (Nill & Schibrowsky, 2010). In support, a recent review of the marketing ethics literature (Schlegelmilch & Öberseder, 2010) shows that the theoretical models most cited are the general theory of marketing ethics (Hunt & Vitell, 1986, cited in 793 articles) and the contingency model of ethical decision making (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985, cited in 337 articles).

Both these models are considered positive theory because they are descriptive of “what exists” in regard to ethical decision making by marketers as opposed to normative theory, which prescribes how people should behave. Not surprisingly, reviews of the marketing ethics literature reveals that the decision making positive approach is the most commonly tested approach from 1981 to 2005 (Nill & Schibrowsky, 2010). This study also relies on positive theories because it takes a descriptive approach with reports of questionable behaviors concerning the academic honesty by college students. These positive marketing ethics models are described as follows.

The contingency model of ethics describes “. . . the nature of the ethical situation and the characteristics of the individual, significant others, and the opportunity to engage in unethical behavior” (Ferrell et al., 1989, p. 58). In this model, the social and cultural environment is a precursor to the ethical issue or dilemma at the very beginning of the process (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985). These authors propose that the cultural backgrounds of individuals will influence ethical/unethical behaviors.

According to the H-V model in marketing ethics (Hunt & Vitell, 1986, 2006), if an individual perceives an ethical

problem, the individual informally weighs the available alternatives based on normative values (i.e., deontological evaluation) and the consequences of the available alternatives/importance to stakeholders (i.e., teleological evaluation). The H-V model positions the environment, including culture, as a precursor to the identification of the ethical problem, perceived alternatives, and perceived consequences. Hunt and Vitell (2006) state, “Since the work of Bartels (1967), marketing has stressed the role of culture in influencing ethics. Likewise, the H-V model stresses the importance of cultural environment in influencing the process of ethical decision making” (p. 147). Not surprisingly, Cohen, Pant, and Sharp (1993) note that several researchers have found differences among cultures in ethical reasoning in business contexts. Furthermore, according to Ho (2010), there is a significant amount of research that shows the cultural environment has a major impact on the ethical perception of individuals.

Hofstede’s Individualism/Collectivism

Most pertinent to this study, Vitell, Nwachukwu, and Barnes (1993) suggest that Hofstede’s conceptualization of culture be used to predict the impact of culture on ethical decision making in the H-V model. Although clearly relevant to marketing practitioners, the H-V model can be generalized to all business situations and also has relevance to the decision making of students in marketing classes (as future business people) when faced with an ethical problem or dilemma. As noted by Nill et al. (2004),

Students often have similar motives [to the competitive motivations of business people] when engaging in unethical behaviors, namely, the desire to obtain a competitive advantage in the form of better grades or reduce academic pressures (Schibrowsky and Peltier 1995, p. 62). (p. 62)

Furthermore, business students and practicing managers exhibit a similar degree of sensitivity to ethical dimensions of business decision-making (Lysonski & Gaidis, 1991).

Hofstede’s research (e.g., 1980, 2001) identifies five dimensions of culture (power distance, individualism–collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity–femininity, long- vs. short-term orientation). Hofstede’s model of culture has been the most widely adopted and applied framework in cross-cultural consumer research (Mooradian & Stern, 2006). Furthermore, most research in cross-cultural psychology has focused on the individualism–collectivism construct (Schimmack, Oishi, & Diener, 2005). Additionally, Ge and Thomas (2008) note that “Individualism is perhaps the most important dimension in studying cultural differences” (p. 192). And, Cohen et al. (1993) report that

Table 2. Key Differences Between Collectivist and Individualist Societies in Education

Collectivist Societies	Individualist Societies
Teachers deal with students as a group	Teachers deal with individual students
Students' individual initiatives discouraged	Students' individual initiatives encouraged
Students report ethnocentric, traditional views	Students report "modern" views
Students associate according to preexisting in-group ties	Students associate according to tasks and current needs
Students expect preferential treatment by teachers from their in-group	In-group membership no reason to expect preferential treatment
Harmony, face, and shaming in class	Students' selves to be respected
Students will not speak up in class or large groups	Students expected to speak up in class or large groups
Students' aggressive behavior bad for academic performance	Students' self-esteem good for academic performance
Purpose of education is learning how to do	Purpose of education is learning how to learn
Diplomas provide entry to higher status groups	Diplomas increase economic worth and/or self respect

Source: Hofstede (2001).

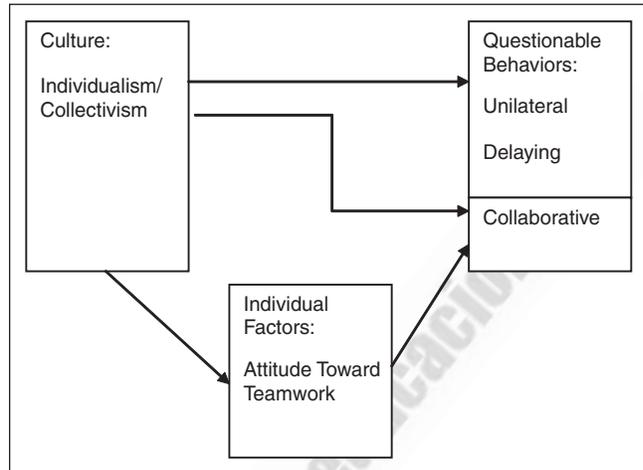
individualism is the most highly associated dimension of culture with moral values in American society. More suitable for consideration in this study, Brymer et al. (2005) suggest that Hofstede's cultural dimensions specifically affect students' ethical decisions.

Hofstede (2001) refers to individualism and collectivism as two poles of the same cultural dimension. Individualists look after themselves and their immediate family only (Hofstede, 2001), whereas collectivists value strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 2001). Hofstede (2001) suggests there are key differences between collectivist and individualist societies in education as outlined in Table 2.

As reported by Ge and Thomas (2008),

The individualistic dimension is highly relevant to ethical values (Cohen et al., 1992). High individualism emphasizes personally held principles and personal values. According to Kohlberg's (1969) theory of [Cognitive Moral Development] CMD, high levels of ethical reasoning also focus on personally held principles. Therefore, high individualism is consistent with high levels of ethical reasoning. (p. 192)

In support, some studies find that individualists tend to rely on their own independent judgment rather than the reliance

**Figure 1.** A conceptual model for academic dishonesty

of in-group or interdependent assessments by collectivists (Arnold, Bernardi, & Neidermeyer, 1999; Teoh, Serang, & Lim, 1999).

For all of these reasons, and as presented in Figure 1, the focus of this study is about the direct effects of culture using Hofstede's (2001) dimension of individualism/collectivism on the questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty and suggests there is a mediating effects of attitude toward teamwork (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005) on questionable behaviors that are collaborative.

There are several empirical studies that actually measure and associate Hofstede's individualism dimension of culture with different aspects of ethical decision making. A recent review of this research indicates mixed results concerning the relationship between individualism/collectivism and marketing ethics. For example, some studies show that collectivists (individualists) appear to be less (more) ethical as follows: Smith (2009) shows that collectivist students in marketing classes from one mid-Western university in the United States had an inclination toward less ethical behaviors. Williams and Zinkin (2008) find that in countries with high individualist ratings, the respondents are more likely to punish bad corporate behavior.

On the other hand, other studies show that collectivists (individualists) appear to be more (less) ethical as follows. Paul, Roy, and Mukhopadhyay (2006) find that collectivism in both the United States and India had a significant and positive effect on marketing ethical norms (i.e., information and contract, product and promotion, obligation and disclosure, and general honesty and integrity) except for price and distribution. Yoo and Donthu (2002) find that collectivist students in marketing classes in one university in the United States had higher marketing ethics (i.e., marketing norms). Swaidan, Rawwas, and Vitell (2008) found that, in the United States, African American consumers who rated higher on collectivism

had a positive association with the personal moral philosophies of both idealism and relativism. Finally, Blodgett, Lu, Rose, and Vitell (2001) find that U.S. and Taiwanese sales agents who rated high on individualism had a negative association with ethical sensitivity.

Despite the mixed results above, this study relies on theoretical arguments that suggest individualists will be more sensitive to ethical problems than collectivists (Swaidan & Hayes, 2005; Vitell et al., 1993). For example, Vitell et al. (1993) suggest that collectivists are more susceptible to group influence than individualists and cannot easily distance themselves from groups to which they belong. Accordingly, they are more likely to be influenced by group norms and the interests of the group in their ethical decision-making process, whereas individualists tend to question group norms, including formalized codes of conduct. In support, Swaidan and Hayes (2005) note that individualists question the ethical standards established in their societies, whereas collectivists accept these standards blindly. Likewise, collectivists may be more willing to cover up to protect the reputation of the group (Cohen, Pant, & Sharp, 1993), which may lead to increased levels of lying if it benefits the group (Swaidan & Hayes, 2005).

Hypotheses

Different levels of individualism/collectivism are expected to be associated with different levels of questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty in specific circumstances. Based on a review of the literature as validated with business faculty, the ethics-based educational situations that are likely to be faced by students in their business college experience include unilateral, collaborative, and delaying questionable behaviors.

Unilateral Questionable Behaviors

Unilateral questionable behaviors take place when a student cheats without the cooperation of another student or group of students. Research shows that this is one of the most common types of cheating. In support, Atmeh and Al-Khadash (2008) note that, "Copying in examinations is one form of cheating widely alluded to in studies dealing with cheating" (p. 110). Dordoy (2002) found that students thought that cheating in an exam was common, and Lupton et al. (2000) found that more than 60% of both Polish and U.S. undergraduate business students had reported they had seen another student cheat on an exam at the university.

A related form of unilateral cheating is plagiarism (e.g., downloading materials or papers from the Internet without proper paraphrasing or citation). In support of the similarities, Dordoy (2002) found that cheating in an exam is viewed as similar to the act of buying and downloading a *whole*

essay from the Internet. There is growing evidence of plagiarism that may be because of widespread access to the World Wide Web (Duggan, 2006). One study found that 74% of students believe that copying from a book or the Internet without citation (in contrast to downloading a whole essay) is a common activity among students and that this was the least serious form of cheating (Dordoy, 2002); and another study found 83% of students thought cutting and pasting from the Internet was acceptable (Sutherland-Smith, 2005). When analyzing why students copy from the Internet, the following reasons surfaced: (a) problems with time management and desire for a higher grade and (b) misunderstanding and confusion with the proper ways of quoting, paraphrasing, citing, and referencing material from the internet (Parks, 2003). These pressures may be especially problematic with international students struggling to adapt to a different academic culture (Ha, 2006; Parks, 2003) or differences in understandings of plagiarism, ownership of ideas and text, and expectations for source citation among different cultures (see Broeckelman-Post, 2008).

Students in collectivist cultures tend to value in-group membership and tend to be less likely to have esteem for the individual work of someone else, whether or not it is copyrighted. All collected information (in a library or on the World Wide Web) tends to be viewed by collectivists as public property and is rationalized as material that can be integrated into a student's work. Therefore,

Hypothesis 1: Collectivist business students will participate in unilateral questionable behaviors more than individualist business students.

Collaborative Questionable Behaviors

Cizek (1999) reports that cheating by students include a long list of possible behaviors including collaborative questionable behaviors between students such as: (a) allowing your own coursework to be copied by another student, (b) premeditated collusion between two or more students to cheat during an examination, (c) obtaining test information from other students, and (d) even taking an examination for someone else or having someone else take an examination for you.

Beyond the review by Cizek (1999), there is evidence that collaborative questionable behaviors are common and viewed as acceptable by the majority of students. Evans, Craig, and Mietzel (1993) found that more than 90% of high school students in Costa Rica, Germany, and the United States agreed that collusive behaviors between students was common (i.e., handing in as your own work an assignment done by someone else and copying other students' assignments to turn in as your own work). Likewise, Lupton et al. (2000) found that more than 52% of both Polish and U.S.

undergraduate business students received exam information from a student in an earlier section or had given exam information to a student in a later section. Furthermore, Dordoy (2002) found that students that worked with another student on work that is meant to be individual work did not see this activity to be a serious ethical breach.

As outlined in Table 2, the importance of the group is the essential ingredient in collectivist educational environments. Collectivist students have a strong association with their in-groups (Hofstede, 2001). The collectivist culture, including its focus on team and group orientation, may apply social pressure to cheat or assist others in cheating (Lin & Wen, 2007). Lin and Wen (2007) found that that social pressure was evident in the top dishonest practices of Taiwanese students, a collectivist culture. Three out of the top five dishonest practices revolved around helping other students on exams and assignments. In contrast, individualist students tend to concentrate on self-performance in a competitive atmosphere and are not as likely as collectivist students to share questions/answers to exams with other students. As explained by Magnus et al. (2002), individualists see competition among students as an important intrinsic value of the educational system that affects interaction between students resulting in the view that cheating is seen as an unfair instrument of competition.

Some describe a cheater of any type as a free rider because the cheating student gets higher marks than he or she deserves (Magnus et al., 2002). Yet this study uses the common definition of free riding as the situation whereby a student derives more benefit from a group and contributes very little to the group. This study also positions free riding in a group project as a collaborative questionable behavior because students in a group are often very aware of the nonparticipation by other students. Even though students may not approve of the free riding of others, if they do not report others' nonparticipation, they indirectly collaborate with the free rider. In partial support for grouping collaborative cheating and free riding together, Iyer and Eastman (2008) found that the items of "taken credit for full participation in a group project without doing a fair share of the work" and "received substantial, unprecedented help on an assignment" loaded on the same factor.

Collectivist students may be reticent to report the free riding of other students in a group project because of the social pressure in collectivist societies to cheat or assist others in cheating (Lin & Wen, 2007), or because not treating an in-group member better than someone from an out-group would be considered immoral by collectivists (Cohen et al., 1993). Consequently, Cohen et al. predict that collectivists would fail to "blow the whistle" on a member of an in-group for communitarian motives—to protect the reputation of their group.

Because the individualist students are more likely than collectivist students to apply high levels of cognitive reasoning to the benefits and consequences of certain unethical behaviors (Ge & Thomas, 2008), they may be more reluctant

to free ride in a group after careful consideration of the negative consequences associated with free riding (McCorkle et al., 1999; Strong & Anderson, 1990). Examples of negative consequences of free riding commonly include the possibility that a student may be fired from a group (Abernathy & Lett, 2005) or receive a lower grade as a result of peer evaluations (Clark, 1989). As a result of the discussion above:

Hypothesis 2: Collectivist business students will collaborate in questionable behaviors more often than individualist business students.

Delaying Questionable Behaviors

Several studies report behaviors associated with requesting due date and/or exam date extensions including: (a) giving a false excuse to miss class, exam, or assignment (Bisping, Patron, & Roskelley, 2008); (b) lying in the form of a false excuse to get out of taking a test or turning in an assignment on time (Beck & Ajzen, 1991); (c) requesting special consideration (e.g., illness) knowing that the conditions are not genuinely met (de Lambert, Ellen, & Taylor, 2006), and making a fraudulent excuse to postpone exams or assignments (Lin & Wen, 2007). This is important because it occurs frequently. For example, Roig and Caso (2005) reported that 72% of students use a fraudulent excuse at least once in college.

Rawwas et al. (2004) note people in collectivist societies have a strong sense of group identification affecting their loyalty. Collectivist students therefore are expected to be loyal without question and any misconduct by individuals is considered the responsibility of the group. Also Collectivists tend to be relativists; they focus on the consequences (results) of actions. The Chinese, for example, believe there is no strict good-bad dichotomy but a sense of a balance of forces. In other words, most things are allowable in themselves, if they do not do damage in other ways. This may explain, in part, Rawwas et al.'s (2004) findings that "Chinese [a collectivist society] are more tolerant and detached than Americans [an individualist society]. Thus, the Chinese are more likely to engage in academically dishonest behavior" (p. 99). It is conceivable that Collectivist business students will be more likely to fabricate information than their counterparts.

Hypothesis 3: Collectivist business students will participate in delaying questionable behaviors more than individualist business students.

Attitude Toward Teamwork and Free Riding

With the exception of Enkar (1987), cross-national academic dishonesty studies in college do not take into account that some models (e.g., the theory of reasoned action; Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005) predict culture as a precursor to attitudes and

attitudes that in turn are precursors to actual behaviors. Enkar's (1987) study found attitude-behavior correlations for three academic dishonesty categories (copying from another student during an exam, plagiarism, and giving answers to other students about an exam) ranged between .35 and .47 for the American college students and between .17 and .38 for the Israeli students. Beck and Ajzen (1991) also show that attitudes are precursors to two academic dishonesty behaviors (cheating on a test and lying to get out of assignments) using a survey of college students in the United States. This study examines the attitude about teamwork relative to individual work. It is conceivable that attitude about teamwork would mediate the effect of collectivist cultures and the academic activity of collaborative questionable behaviors. As mentioned previously, collectivists value in-group membership above all else. This would result in a high value placed on teamwork relative to individual work. The strong value placed on teamwork will, in turn, affect collaborative questionable behaviors. Therefore, we propose the following:

Hypothesis 4: Attitude toward teamwork will mediate the effect between collectivism and collaborative questionable behaviors.

Method

Measures

Measures were developed using Churchill's (1979) suggestions about reliability and validity. A sample of items was derived from previous studies that measured individualism/collectivism. The measures used to represent the "questionable behaviors" in this study were derived from the authors' experiences and many discussions with colleagues (see Table 3).

The title "questionable behaviors" does not specifically denote cheating behaviors, which by most policies could be sanctioned, but, rather, issues that some professors believe may involve cheating or are behaviors that others may see as unprofessional. It should be noted that two items in particular may be unspecific: Item 1 under Unilateral Questionable Behaviors (in Table 3) could potentially be a positive or acceptable behavior in the opinion of some professors, if the material was properly cited. However, its high correlation with the other two items on the scale suggest that the respondents interpreted it more in line with "copying others' answers" and "buying . . . papers online." A discussion with colleagues indicated that any "copying and pasting" is undesirable, rather they prefer to see students integrate and summarize information. Additionally, Item 2 of Delaying Questionable Behaviors (in Table 3) could potentially be interpreted as having a valid reason for requesting an extension (e.g., medical). However, it appears that the item's high correlation ($\alpha = .895$) with the other two items suggest that respondents interpreted the item more in line with "making up excuses . . ." and "turning in

Table 3. Measures

Construct/Items	α
Individualism/collectivism (<i>strongly disagree/strongly agree</i> ; Dorfman & Howell, 1988; House et al., 2004)	.810
1. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards	
2. Individuals should pursue their goals only after considering the welfare of the group	
3. I focus on achieving societal goals more than individual accomplishments	
4. Group rewards should take priority over individual rewards	
Attitude toward teamwork (<i>strongly disagree/strongly agree</i>)	.775
1. The ability to solve problems within a team is more important than as an individual	
2. I prefer to be graded as a team member rather than individually	
3. Teamwork enhances my learning	
Unilateral questionable behaviors (copying; <i>strongly disagree/strongly agree</i>). This happens a lot at our school828
1. Copying and pasting material from the Internet for papers or projects	
2. Copying others' answers in class during an exam	
3. Buying or downloading papers online	
Collaborative questionable behaviors (Freeload; <i>strongly disagree/strongly agree</i>). This happens a lot at our school765
1. People rely on group partners to do work without putting in effort of their own	
2. Getting questions/answers from an exam given in an earlier class	
3. Get help from a friend to complete an individual assignment	
Delaying questionable behaviors (Delay' <i>strongly disagree/strongly agree</i>). This happens a lot at our school895
1. Making up excuses to delay completing a test or assignment	
2. Requesting extension of the deadline	
3. Turning in assignments late	

assignments late." Although some professors may not describe these behaviors as undesirable, discussions with colleagues suggest that most do.

The measures were pretested in the United States ($N = 247$) and Belgium ($N = 73$) based on a convenience sample and the scores on individualism in these countries (United States: 90, Belgium: 73) according to Hofstede (1980). In the process of translation and cross-cultural adaptation of the research stimuli and questionnaire (scale items), the guidelines for conducting international consumer research by Craig and Douglas (1999) and by Douglas and Nijssen (2003) were followed. Exploratory factor analysis, reliability calculations, and invariance analysis were used to determine the final scales (shown in Table 3). Reliability was calculated using Cronbach's alpha (see Table 3). The scales were tested with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using LISREL 8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). The results indicate a good fit

Table 4. Country Description of Sample

Country	Language Root	PPP Per Capita	Hofstede's Measures	
			Individualism	Uncertainty Avoidance
Belgium (BEL)	Germanic	35,388	75	94
Croatia (CRO)	Slavic	16,754		
Finland (FIN)	Finno-Ugric	35,349	63	59
Italy (ITA)	Romance	30,365	76	75
Lithuania (LIT)	Baltic	17,733		
Russia (RUS)	Slavic	14,705	39	95
Slovenia (SLO)	Slavic	27,227		
United Kingdom (UK)	Germanic	35,634	89	35
United States (US)	Germanic	45,725	91	46
China (PRC)	Sinitic	5,325	20	30
India (IND)	Indo-Iranian	2,563	48	40
Philippines (PHI)	Indonesian	3,383	32	44
Total range	Eight groups	2,600-45,700	32-91	30-94

Note: PPP = purchasing power parity. PPP per capita figures from International Monetary Fund.
Source: Hofstede (2001).

of the CFA models. Discriminant validity was tested by setting the individual paths of the phi matrix to one and testing the resultant models against the originals (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988) using the D-squared statistic (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). From the final model, convergent validity was tested by examining the *t* values of the Lambda-X Matrix (Bagozzi, 1981).

Sample

The survey instrument was formalized and translated (again according to the guidelines of Craig & Douglas, 1999; and Douglas & Nijssen, 2003), then administered to students in 13 countries as part of a larger collaborative study. Primary investigators or close colleagues collected the data in each country. All data collectors were marketing or business professors with both formal training and practical experience in cross-national data collection and scale development. Regardless, as a matter of standardization, complete instructions regarding translation, back-translation, and examination for meaning equivalence were distributed with the final survey. Given the training and experience of the data collectors, formal post hoc examinations of translation issues were not conducted.

Countries were chosen based on Douglas and Craig's (2006) suggestion of obtaining a diverse set of countries to achieve "purposive selection" to ensure variance on characteristics of interest. With this list in mind, the authors chose 13 nations. A conscious effort was made to include a few emerging economies, as their role in international trade is rapidly expanding in importance and their study in previous research has been relatively sparse (Burgess & Steenkamp, 2006). As presented in Table 4, a good diversity on the standard metrics of culture and economic status was achieved.

The demographics between countries were not significantly different (all traditional-aged business college students). For descriptive purposes, measures were standardized using exploratory factor analysis and are shown in Table 5. The

Table 5. Factor Scores

Country	N	IndCol Factor Scores				
		AttTeam	Copying	Freeload	Delay	
Collectivist						
India	193	.535	.432	-.196	-.377	-.116
Croatia	206	.453	-.071	1.05	.634	.697
Belgium	249	.408	-.211	-.015	.657	.057
China	207	.360	.700	.185	-.499	-.463
Philippines	379	.346	.293	.358	.074	.200
Finland	223	.206	-.310	-.729	.099	.128
Individualist						
Russia	301	-.054	-.041	.718	.340	.673
United States	446	-.109	-.219	-.340	-.214	-.014
United Kingdom	204	-.133	-.216	-.566	-.484	-.454
Kazakhstan	372	-.188	-.228	.302	.271	.274
Italy	409	-.346	-.194	.292	.523	.167
Lithuania	195	-.378	.214	-.792	-.677	-.634
Slovenia	291	-.382	.413	.335	-.057	.105

Note: IndCol = individualism/collectivism; AttTeam = attitude toward team.

overall ranking between the IndCol scores on the survey in Table 5 and Hofstede's are relatively similar. Both suggest that the United States and United Kingdom should be individualist, Russia and Finland should be toward the middle, and India, China, and the Philippines should be collectivist. The only differences between our scores and Hofstede's were with Belgium and Italy. A few differences were to be suspected given the differences in sample frames (e.g., students versus general population). Scores for the other measures are also shown in Table 5.

Analysis and Results

Measure invariance was tested with CFA using multigroup analysis in LISREL 8. Configural invariance was established by the consistent pattern of significant loadings between

countries and the fit of the CFA. All of the CFA loadings were significant and in the same direction for each country data set. Full metric invariance was not established, nor expected, in a model of this magnitude (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). As suggested by Horn (1991) and Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998), metric invariance is “a condition to be striven for, not one expected to be fully realized” (Horn, 1991, p. 125). In fact, Horn, McArdle, and Mason (1983) and Steenkamp and Baumgartner (1998) consider metric invariance as scientifically unrealistic. In academic research, the inability to specify full metric invariance occurs even in relatively limited two- and three-country groups (Laroche, Ueltschy, Abe, Cleveland, & Yannopoulos, 2004; Mavondo, Gabbott, & Tsarenko, 2003). Because the object of this research is not to compare means of measures across countries, scalar invariance was not assessed (Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). Finally, a structural equation model was run using LISREL 8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1993). As would be expected given the sample size and model complexity, the overall chi-squared statistic was significant. However, the rest of the overall model fit measures show a good conformance of the data to the model. The root mean square error of approximation (0.044) was well below the 0.08 cutoff values suggested by Browne and Cudeck (1993) and insignificant (supportive) of the test of a good fit ($p = 1.00$, root mean square error of approximation $< .05$). Additionally, the goodness of fit (.97) as well as the comparative fit index, normed fit index, and relative fit index (all .98) were above the commonly recommended .90 limit (Lichtenstein et al., 1992). Using this model, the results indicate support for all of the hypotheses including the moderating effect of attitudes toward teamwork on collaborative questionable behaviors as shown in Table 6.

Discussion and Recommendations

As presented in Table 6, all four hypotheses were accepted. Questionable behaviors that are unilateral (including copying), collaborative (including freeloading) and delaying were found more frequently with collectivist than individualist business college students. And as hypothesized, students' attitude toward teamwork was found to mediate the effect between collectivism and collaborative questionable behaviors.

As the classroom mix of business students become more intercultural and concerns for academic honesty increase, pedagogical recommendations are needed. The results of this study and its reviewed literature prescribe pedagogical recommendations and the need for additional research. Pedagogically, the first step is to recognize the potential and growing problems concerning academic dishonesty. Second, as faculty are faced with increased pressures to globalize programs and experiences, such problems are magnified. Whether teaching at home or abroad, academic

Table 6. Hypotheses Results

Hypothesis/Path	Estimate/p Value	Results
Hypothesis 1: IndCol → Unilateral questionable behaviors (copying)	0.07/ $p < .001$	Supported
Hypothesis 2: IndCol → Collaborative questionable behaviors (freeload)	0.04/ $p = .017$	Supported
Hypothesis 3: IndCol → Delaying questionable behaviors (delay)	0.03/ $p = .029$	Supported
Hypothesis 4: AttTeam → IndCol → Freeload	Total effect: -0.13/ $p < .0001$	Supported

Note: IndCol = individualism/collectivism; AttTeam = attitude toward team.

honesty and its ethical repercussions should be of high concern. And whatever pedagogical solutions are considered should be adapted for the home or overseas environment and its norms and rules of behavior and expected classroom conduct.

Unilateral Questionable Behaviors

Because unilateral questionable behaviors are becoming more common among domestic and foreign students (Dordoy, 2002; Lupton, Chapman, & Weiss, 2000), and may be even more prevalent with collectivist students (Hypothesis 1), all students should be regularly and formally informed or reminded of the definition of plagiarism and of other specific behaviors that are considered dishonest or questionable behaviors in and out of the classroom. This is especially important concerning the use of the Internet for completing assignments, papers, and projects (Duggan, 2006; Ha, 2006; Parks, 2003; Sutherland-Smith, 2005). All students, whether domestic or foreign, need to fully understand that anything taken from the Internet (or any secondary source) should be adequately paraphrased and cited completely and properly. The use of American Psychological Association, Modern Language Association, or other citation styles should be addressed in classroom discussions and supported with examples, handouts, and/or recommended websites (e.g., <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/>). Previous research indicated that the lack of knowledge of how to cite sources contributed to the copying problem (Parks, 2003).

All marketing and business professors should also be educated about the potential of unilateral questionable behaviors from their students. Newer faculty may not have the experiences to set and reinforce proper expectations. Older faculty may not have the knowledge concerning the student use of technology involved in plagiarism and cheating. Ideally, training materials should be formally prepared and shared

with all business faculty to reduce redundancy of effort and to ensure that a repeated and consistent message is shared with all students.

Assistance and reference materials (e.g., websites and handouts) concerning the proper citing of sources are likely obtained from the university's English department or reference librarians. Formal College of Business policies about this and all other unacceptable behaviors should be standardized and required content on every course syllabi. Alternatively, such policies can be placed on the College of Business website with the link provided in each professor's syllabi. Faculty should also set a good example and follow these same expectations concerning the citation of secondary research sources in their own lectures, slideshows, handouts, and other course materials.

As indicated in the literature (Ferrell et al., 1989; Ferrell & Gresham, 1985), ethical behavior is influenced by significant others such as students and professors and their consistent expectations and policies. In an intercultural setting, educators should not rely on the students to set such norms of behavior. All professors should be educated and encouraged to reinforce these expectations and standards concerning the potential of unilateral questionable behaviors. Safe Assignment by Blackboard (<http://www.mydropbox.com/>) and TurnItIn (<http://www.turnitin.com/>) are popularly used web services to assist academics in checking for originality and plagiarism. Tutorials and/or workshops should be made available to faculty to promote proper and prolific use of these measurement tools.

Students should also be informed about how the appropriate measurement tools work to reinforce the serious efforts of their professors to address, measure, and deal with academic dishonesty. Through a web tutorial or a printed handout, students should be provided a demonstration of a report from these web services. If suspected of academic dishonesty based on the use of these services, a copy of the report along with the appropriate policies from the syllabi should be sent to the student. Then, without accusation, an explanation should be requested from the student. Because the interpretation of the results from these web services can be complicated and sometimes difficult to understand, it is important for the professor to receive training in doing so and to carefully review the report results before any accusations of student dishonesty.

Collaborative Questionable Behaviors

Sharing information about exams may be the most difficult type of academic dishonesty to address. According to the results of this study (Hypothesis 2), the more collectivist students in the business classes, the more likely that exam sharing could become a problem. Many marketing and business classes have multiple sections and most professors do not

like the idea of creating alternative exams for each section. To reduce collaborative questionable behaviors of this type, the authors have considered: (a) back-to-back sections giving limited time for exam sharing, (b) creating alternate discussion questions while keeping the same objective type questions, (c) strictly enforcing a policy that all exams must be returned after the in-class review session (or receive a 0 grade), and (d) making sure that exam results are not shared with any class until all sections and make-ups are completed. Most certainly, more research and pedagogical solutions are needed.

Another type of collaborative questionable behavior concerns free riding, and numerous recommendations are outlined by Strong and Anderson (1990) for dealing with this. The results of this article indicate that free riding could be even more of a problem in the intercultural classroom, especially when dealing with teams that include a mix of students from individualist and collectivist societies. Although it is to be hoped that the individualist students will learn more about team cohesion and cooperation from the collectivist students, it is more likely that the individualist students will more willingly allow the collectivist students to do all or most of the work. More research is needed, but perhaps the collectivist students would make the best team leaders.

In dealing with collaborative questionable behaviors, additional suggestions for teamwork and the problem of free riding include:

1. *Encourage teamwork over group work:* With group work, each team member is assigned a piece of the assignment and takes little responsibility in the rest of the project. With teamwork, each team member does his or her part but is also responsible in reviewing and improving all other parts. This perspective requires that all team members receive the same grade because the grade should reflect the team performance and not any one individual's performance. The authors have found that breaking a larger semester project into smaller parts with interim due dates (along with individual team member evaluation) better ensures that all team members are equally involved with each section of the project.
2. *Form teams based on their contribution of skills to the team:* Prior research indicates that students are more likely to cheat in situations involving friends (Chapman, Davis, Toy, & Wright, 2004; McCabe & Trevino, 1993). Rather than random assignment or allowing students to team with their friends, teams could be formed based on their potential contribution of skills to the team. One of the coauthors does this in forming teams to complete a marketing plan project for a capstone

marketing course. He asks each student to self-report his or her skills contribution to a team (e.g., leadership/organization, research, technology, creativity, financial/budgeting, marketing/business experiences/skills, etc.). Their responses are provided on Blackboard (through the Homepage function or as an Introduction Blog) for other students to review and self-select their teams or for the Professor to review and form well-balanced teams. This effort provides an opportunity for students to use their strengths and therefore take a greater role in contributing fairly to their team. It may also lead to greater diversity (by gender and nationality) among teams that come together based on skill rather than friendships.

3. *Evaluate team members to ensure equal quantity and quality of contribution:* Formal team member evaluations should regularly be used to identify free riders as early in the team project as possible so free riding problems can be identified and dealt with appropriately. As with the potential for plagiarism, specific course policies are needed. Several of the authors allow teams to: (a) fire, (b) voluntarily break up, or (c) involuntarily break up (done by the professor) team membership, especially when preliminary team evaluations identify free riding as a problem. A project proposal and other related team project assignments are used to ensure that teams begin their semester project early in the semester and to provide a measurement opportunity for identifying potential free riding behavior. When fired or involuntarily separated from the team, the offending student(s) are required to complete the assignment or project alone and with a minimum 10% grade reduction for not completing the project as a team. Additionally, to support the concept of team cooperation and collectivism, final team grades are given without individual team grade adjustment. This encourages team members to deal with any free riding issues early on in the project or learn to live with the fact that remaining team members will receive the same grade, whether deserving or not.

Delaying Questionable Behaviors

The research results that collectivist students request due date and/or exam date extensions more than individualist business students (Hypothesis 3) points out that educators must be vigilant about their policies regarding extensions that are granted to individual students. Recommendations include the following: (a) requiring documentation concerning the rationale for the request (e.g., medical, police reports

for accidents, notes from their advisor) with no undocumented excuses accepted, (b) outlining specific policies in the syllabi and talking about these policies that detail the circumstances that would warrant an extension (if any), and (c) making students aware that assignments are rarely accepted late and that any makeup exams will only be possible at the end of the semester and will be different than the exam taken by the rest of the class (possibly more comprehensive).

In the authors' experiences, some faculty members have little or no restrictions for makeup exams or assignments. Of course, such lax policies from some professors make it more difficult for those trying to enforce more stringent policies (especially if in the same department or if teaching different sections of the same course). The best way to handle this is to provide round table training sessions for faculty and share the research results concerning the likelihood and problems of delaying questionable behaviors among college students in general and prepare and share individual professor policies and ideas for dealing with these potentially dishonest academic behaviors. Younger professors may not have specific policies nor know how to deal with these problems and just ignore them. Older professors have much to share in that they have probably dealt with and have experiences in handling these issues.

Overall Pedagogical Recommendations

Besides culture, ethical decision making and behavior is strongly influenced by significant others (i.e., other students, professors, college administration) and the opportunities (i.e., college and university ethics policies, punishment/rewards; Ferrell & Gresham, 1985). Educators should specifically review their business school's academic honesty policy in regard to all three types of questionable behaviors addressed in this study. Such policies are usually (or should be) repeated on all faculty syllabi and/or the College's website. Prior research has found reluctance among faculty to detect (Haines et al., 1986) and report questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty (Jendrek, 1989) for various personal and professional reasons. Thus, it is important for administration and older and mentor faculty (i.e., the significant others) to set, educate, and enforce these policies (i.e., the opportunity) concerning ethical behavior among all faculty. Others have recommended an atmosphere of zero tolerance (Allen, Fuller, & Luckett, 1998; Chapman et al., 2004). For addressing student problems of academic honesty, a discipline committee (perhaps a student affairs committee within the college) is needed for a review of the circumstances, to provide the student a means of defense, and to ensure a consistent and fair enforcement of these policies.

Over time a college and its faculty's concerted and consistent efforts to educate, measure, and enforce procedures

and policies in dealing with unilateral, collaborative, and delaying questionable behaviors will become widely known and understood by any returning students. Each semester, first-time and transfer business school students, whether local or foreign, will begin anew in the process of learning these expectations. According to the results of this study, additional reinforcement of these policies is in even greater need with foreign students entering the business school with a collectivist background. The business school orientation should include these policies as one of many topics.

Overall Contributions

This research provides evidence that student questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty, although much too rampant overall, is differential based on culture. This extends the work on culture and ethics by (Ferrell & Gresham, 1985; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; Vitell et al., 1993) into the marketing and business classroom.

There are three important contributions of this research. First is the potential for better monitoring and improvement of the ethical behaviors of students. Although teaching ethics in the classroom is both necessary and imperative, the authors feel that actions speak louder than words. Without the proper establishing and maintaining of actual ethical behaviors of our students, especially in the classroom, any education concerning business decisions and ethical dilemmas may be lost. Thus, it becomes incumbent on marketing educators to establish, educate, and hopefully reduce any questionable behaviors concerning honesty in the classroom as a first step.

Second, this research and the above recommendations specifically assist business and marketing professors in improving student academic behavior by providing information on differential views and actions by students. This becomes even more important as our business and marketing classrooms become more multicultural and as our professors seek internationalization through increased overseas assignments.

Third, many early career marketing and business professors taking an overseas assignment are ill prepared because of the lack of information on this topic, especially when going to collectivist cultures. This research provides them a basic awareness of potential pedagogical problems concerning cultural differences and questionable behaviors. Whether teaching in the United States or abroad, this increased awareness also warns professors to become more aware and potentially more culturally tolerant of these questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty and to seek the appropriate responses suggested by the environment where he or she is teaching. Although the authors do not suggest that such questionable behaviors be tolerated, with an open and better informed mind, they can perhaps be minimized.

Limitations and Future Research

As with any research, this study has limitations. One limitation is with the selection of countries for this research. Although efforts were made to gather data from a diversity of countries representing individualist and collectivist societies (see Table 4), additional countries should be explored in future research (and particularly countries most representing the foreign students at individual schools).

Second, the sample was limited to traditional-aged business students because of the nature of access to the multi-country sample. Questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty among students has been found to vary by demographics such as age, gender, GPAs, and major (see review in Chapman et al., 2004). A more diverse sample from different countries to include and compare: (a) business with nonbusiness students, (b) undergraduate with graduate students, and (c) traditional-aged versus nontraditional-aged students would add more insight of the issue of questionable and potentially dishonest academic behaviors in the university classroom. Such behaviors may be more (or less) prevalent across the campus and not limited to the business school.

Third, this research used only one of Hofstede's dimensions of culture: individualism/collectivism. Although the individualism/collectivism dimension is the most widely researched and explains a significant share of cross-national variance in consumers' purchase behavior (de Mooij, 2003; de Mooij & Hofstede, 2003; Hofstede, 2001), other constructs such as power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity, and long- versus short-term orientation should be considered. These constructs may provide additional insight into students' questionable behaviors and ethical decision making (Vitell et al., 1993) and are worthy of additional research.

Fourth, only three types of questionable or potentially dishonest academic behaviors were addressed in this study: unilateral, collaborative, and delaying. Allen et al. (1998) describe additional questionable behaviors to consider, and more research is needed to measure the effects of technology (e.g., online courses, mobile phones, etc.) on academic dishonesty and ethical behaviors among students. Future research that addresses additional dimensions and more depth within any of the three dimensions will add to our understanding of the student questionable behavior problems and potential solutions.

Fifth, other limitations of this study include the limited use of individual factors and institutional norms. The interest for this study was to examine the effect of culture on student questionable behaviors, and where possible to include individual factors. However, as indicated in the literature review and ethics models, there are many other important factors not tested here such as individual factors, significant other factors, and the opportunity for behavior (Ferrell et al., 1989;

Ferrell & Gresham, 1985). Likewise, factors associated with deontological and teleological evaluations (Hunt & Vitell, 1986, 2006) are not examined here. Another consideration for future research is the effect of institutional or peer norms on cheating behavior. Although the researched questionable behaviors concerning academic honesty may exist in one university (or college of business), they may not exist in another because of policies, education, and reinforcement. This needs further attention but was beyond the scope of the current study.

Finally, because team projects are in common use in many marketing and business undergraduate and graduate courses, more specific research is needed to examine the dynamics, problems, and opportunities with interculturally mixed teams. Such research could provide interesting pedagogical insight for the business classroom and in real-world application for mixed member teams working for global businesses.

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