

The Fox in the Hen House: A Critical Examination of Plagiarism Among Members of the Academy of Management

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Research on academic plagiarism has typically focused on students as the perpetrators of unethical behaviors, and less attention has been paid to academic researchers as likely candidates for such behaviors. We examined 279 papers presented at the International Management division of the 2009 Academy of Management conference for the purpose of studying plagiarism among academics. Results showed that 25% of our sample had some amount of plagiarism, and over 13% exhibited significant plagiarism. This exploratory study raises an alarm regarding the inadequate monitoring of norms and professional activities associated with Academy of Management members.

ETHICS AND THE ACADEMY OF MANAGEMENT

Student plagiarism, facilitated by the Internet, is a pervasive and frustrating problem that appears to be increasing in recent years (Flynn, 2001; Roberts, 2008; Trincherà, 2001). It is not surprising, therefore, that a considerable amount of research has been conducted to investigate the factors that lead to such behaviors (e.g., Bolin, 2004; Davis, 1992; Granitz & Loewy, 2007; Kisamore, Stone, & Jawahar, 2007; McCabe, Butterfield, & Treviño, 2006). Although research on the complex interplay of situational and individual variables related to student plagiarism is important (Kisamore and colleagues, 2007), surprisingly little attention has been paid to plagiarism in academic research and publication. Moreover, much of what has been written about the topic is based on anecdotal and speculative evidence and is limited to the discussion of general principles of ethical research and strategies to

deter such behaviors (e.g., Kock, 1999; Martin, 1994; Schminke, 2009; Shahabuddin, 2009; Von Glinow & Novelli, 1982). To our knowledge, there has been no empirical research that has either investigated the issue of plagiarism in social science research or examined some of its predictors. However, there is evidence to suggest that scholars may also plagiarize and claim portions of someone else's work as their own (e.g., Bedeian, Taylor, & Miller, 2010; Enders & Hoover, 2006).

Our purpose in this exploratory study is to empirically examine the issue of plagiarism by academic researchers and to investigate the institutional and demographic predictors of such behaviors. To date, the empirical literature on plagiarism has focused only on the predictors and effects of plagiarism conducted by students. Understanding plagiarism among academics is important because these are the very individuals who are responsible, through mentoring and teaching, for developing a new generation of scholars. Furthermore, they are responsible for disseminating novel intellectual contributions and for upholding the highest ethical standards in society. From a theoretical standpoint, our study contributes to existing literature on plagiarism that sel-

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dom addresses the potential for academics engaging in unethical behaviors, and that offers little guidance regarding the nature and causes of the diffusion of plagiarism. From a practical standpoint, an empirical examination of the prevalence of plagiarism in academic research may have implications that go beyond the hypotheses tested in this study and influence the way management research is conducted and reviewed.

Using evidence from past theory and research, we argue that plagiarism by academic scholars occurs due to the growing pressure to publish research, as well as increasing pressure to publish in high-impact top-tier journals (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Kock, 1999; Martin, 1994; Von Glinow & Novelli, 1982). Other factors, such as top social science journals' demand for complex research, increasing competition, and availability of impact factor and citation count softwares such as Publish or Perish, have further exacerbated the pressure to publish (Bedeian et al., 2010; Harzing, 2010; Lampel & Shapira, 1995). However, despite these pressures, existing mechanisms (i.e., the use of plagiarism detection software such as Turnitin or Ithenticate) to monitor academic research are rarely used in the field of social science, suggesting greater incentives for, and perhaps a higher likelihood of "getting away" with, unethical behavior. We aim to explore the issue of academic plagiarism, why it occurs, and how to prevent it. From a practical standpoint, discussing these questions may help raise awareness about the issue, aid in the training of ethically responsible researchers, and influence scholars toward more ethical behavior.

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To summarize, we aim to contribute to the literature on plagiarism by (1) exploring the issue of academic plagiarism and outlining the reasons that warrant its study; (2) exploring the role of demographic and institutional factors, namely gender, academic status, education, and country, on the percentage of plagiarism; and (3) discussing practical implications for the Academy and editorial boards in general, by examining papers presented in one division of the 2009 annual meeting of the Academy of Management.

We begin by briefly reviewing the literature on

student plagiarism and plagiarism in academic research. We then describe the research and theory used to support the study hypotheses. We conclude with a discussion of the study's findings, their implications for the Academy (including recommended policies for the Academy of Management), as well as suggestions for future research.

BACKGROUND

Student Plagiarism—A Review

The issue of student plagiarism has generated a great deal of media and research attention and is an increasingly studied phenomenon in higher education research. With respect to the nature of plagiarism, a variety of definitions have been offered (e.g., Cottrell, 2003; Fialkoff, 1993; Hannabuss, 2001), which, although distinct in certain ways, generally converge on the notion that plagiarism involves intentionally and without authorization presenting someone else's ideas or words, as one's own work. This ranges from minor instances, such as sloppy paraphrasing, to major incidents, such as intentional word-for-word copying of someone else's work without proper acknowledgment (Hawley, 1984). Irrespective of the type of plagiarism, that plagiarism and cheating among students is widespread and on the rise is noteworthy (e.g., Bennett, 2005; Park, 2003; Whitley, 1998). For example, a longitudinal study of 474 undergraduate students by Diekhoff (1996) reported a significant increase in overall cheating levels from 54.1% in 1984 to 61.2% in 1994.

Student plagiarism is by no means a new phenomenon, nor is it relegated to marginalized or periphery scholarship. For instance, examinations of Dr. Martin Luther King's graduate work unveiled portions of his dissertation that were directly plagiarized without citation (King, Jr., Papers Project, 1991). Had this come to light when he was a recently minted PhD, there would have been strong grounds to revoke his degree—in fact, a committee met to consider this very issue after his death, deciding to attach a letter to his dissertation indicating serious improprieties (Radin, 1991).

The issue of student plagiarism also received an unprecedented surge of media attention when Professor Bloomfield, a physics professor at the University of Virginia, designed a computer program to analyze past submitted papers for repetition and plagiarized content (Schemo, 2001). The examination revealed 158 students who had plagiarized their work. As a result, 45 students were expelled from the university, three graduates had their de-

grees revoked (Trex, 2009), and a new industry was launched specifically to examine the authenticity and originality of student papers (Braumoeller & Gaines, 2001). These new systems, along with the increasing attention directed toward intellectual property and copyright protection, as well as the expansion of electronic media, have resulted in a greater awareness of the implications for and evaluations of plagiarism (Drinan & Gallant, 2008). Not surprising, therefore, is that a large volume of research has been conducted to investigate why students plagiarize and what can be done to discourage such behavior (e.g., Coleman & Mahaffey, 2000; Crown & Spiller, 1998; Kisamore et al., 2007; McCabe & Treviño, 1997; Howard & Davies, 2009).

With respect to the causes of plagiarism, the relative importance of demographic, individual, and situational predictors of student plagiarism has been examined and demonstrated in a number of studies (e.g., Bennett, 2005; Bonjean & McGee, 1965; Howard, 2002; McCabe & Treviño, 1993; McCabe & Treviño, 1997; McCabe, Treviño, & Butterfield, 1999; Scanlon & Neumann, 2002). Although there is inconsistency in the literature regarding the association of demographic factors with plagiarism, males and younger students are generally found to have engaged in higher levels of plagiarism than females or older students (Graham, Monday, O'Brien, & Steffen, 1994; Lyer & Eastman, 2006; McCabe & Treviño, 1997; Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes, & Armstead, 1996; Straw, 2002). One theoretical rationale for the gender difference in plagiarism has been provided by sex-role socialization theory, which argues that women are more socialized to obey rules and regulations and are, therefore, less likely to engage in dishonest behaviors (e.g., Ward & Beck, 1990; Whitley, Nelson, & Jones, 1999). Another demographic variable that has been associated with plagiarism is general cognitive ability. Results indicate that students with lower GPA scores are more likely to engage in plagiarism than those with higher GPAs (e.g., Diekhoff, 1996; McCabe & Treviño, 1997; Straw, 2002), although various factors beyond an individual's ability may also be relevant. One reason why students with low GPAs may plagiarize more is because they have a higher incentive to cheat in order to raise their grades than students with higher GPAs (Leming, 1980). Indeed, the desire to get good grades has been reported as one of the primary motives to cheat (Bjorklund & Wenes-tam, 1999; McCabe, 2001; Rettinger & Jordan, 2005). Finally, another important factor that has been associated with plagiarism is an individual's cultural and linguistic background (see Hollinger, 1965 for a cross-cultural view of student cheating).

Lack of English proficiency in an Anglo environment, as well as a different cultural understanding regarding what constitutes plagiarism and the sharing of knowledge, have been associated with higher levels of academic dishonesty (Carroll, 2002; Cohen, 2004; Larkham & Manns, 2002; Park, 2003).

Research examining the impact of students' personal characteristics on plagiarism suggests that some individuals have a greater propensity to indulge in plagiarist activities. One such individual difference factor is the propensity to rationalize dishonest behaviors. Research on plagiarism and deviant behaviors in general has argued the relevance of rationalizing or neutralizing attitudes in shaping reasoning where individuals believe they are justified in behaving immorally. Research on student plagiarism has shown a strong positive association between cheating and neutralizing attitudes (Daniel, 1994; Haines, 1986; Jordan, 2001). A recent study by Rettinger and Kramer (2009), for instance, surveyed 154 undergraduate students and found that students with neutralizing attitudes were more likely to cheat and plagiarize. Moreover, direct knowledge of others' cheating or seeing others cheat had a stronger effect on those high in neutralization compared to those low in neutralizing attitudes. Another individual difference variable found to predict plagiarism is attitude toward plagiarism. In his meta-analytic review of factors predicting cheating, Whitley (1998) found that students with favorable attitudes toward cheating were more likely to cheat than students with unfavorable attitudes. Some other personality factors found to be positively associated with plagiarism are aggressive (Type A) personality (Buckley, Wise, & Harvey, 1998); external locus of control (Crown & Spiller, 1998); low self-efficacy (Murdock, Hale, & Weber, 2001); low self-esteem (Lyer & Eastman, 2006); and lower levels of school identification (Finn & Frone, 2004).

Plagiarism behaviors are also shaped by the context or the situation faced by the student (McCabe, 1993). One factor that has been positively associated with plagiarism is students' perceptions of peer behavior. Using the theoretical perspective offered by social learning theory (Bandura, 1986), McCabe and colleagues (McCabe, 1993; McCabe & colleagues, 2006; McCabe, Treviño, & Butterfield, 2002) found that students who witnessed successful cheating by their peers were more likely to engage in cheating. A second factor is the easy access to other's work that the Internet offers (Park, 2003). A recent study by Selwyn (2008) found that 69.1% of 1,222 undergraduate students had engaged in some form of on-line plagiarism

during the past 12 months. In another study, McCabe (2005) surveyed over 80,000 undergraduate and graduate students in the United States and Canada and found that roughly 74% of undergraduate students and 49% of graduate students paraphrased or copied a few sentences from a written or an electronic source without proper acknowledgment. The problem is further compounded by evidence that suggests some students lack a clear understanding of what constitutes on-line plagiarism. For instance, some consider cutting and pasting from the Internet a good research practice rather than an act of plagiarism (Poole, 2004; Straw, 2002). Research also indicates a discrepancy between faculty and student perceptions of Internet plagiarism (McCabe, 2005). McCabe (2005), for instance, found that only 57% of undergraduate students and 68% of graduate students considered paraphrasing or copying a few sentences from the Internet without proper acknowledgment a serious offense. In contrast, when the same behavior was presented to the faculty, 82% reported it as serious. In another study, Scanlon and Neumann (2002) surveyed 698 students and reported that 3% of students felt that faculty members did not view purchasing papers from on-line paper mills as wrong. Interestingly, in one instance where a student was caught plagiarizing, the student went on to become an on-line paper mill entrepreneur (Mannix, 2010). Other factors that have been positively linked to plagiarism are faculty tolerance of plagiarism (McCabe, 1993); fraternity or sorority membership (McCabe & Treviño, 1997); difficulty of the test and decreased surveillance (Whitley, 1998). In contrast, a factor increasingly linked with lower levels of student cheating is the presence of institutional honor codes or institutional policies that require students to take a pledge and maintain an environment of academic integrity (Bowers, 1964; McCabe, 1993, 1997). McCabe (1993, 1997), for instance, found that students attending academic institutions with an honor code system were not only less likely to cheat, but also less likely to rationalize or justify cheating behaviors, and more likely to discuss the importance of morality and compliance with standards of academic integrity.

The extensive literature on student plagiarism indicates not only the widespread nature of the problem, but also a growing awareness of its gravity among faculty and academics alike. And while student plagiarism is well-discussed and policies are in place to limit and control unethical behavior, what appears to be missing is an empirical examination of the extent to which plagiarism prevails in academic research. This paucity of research is rather surprising given that several stud-

ies have described specific instances of research misconduct and have offered suggestions to detect and prevent such behaviors (e.g., Clarke, 2006; Enders & Hoover, 2006; Errami & Garner, 2008; Kock, 1999; Shahabuddin, 2009; Yank & Barnes, 2003). Our purpose here is to address this gap in the literature and explore the prevalence as well as the predictors of plagiarism in academic research. As we explain below, plagiarism by academic scholars is likely and may be affected by a variety of demographic and institutional factors.

Plagiarism in Academic Research

Only a few leading social science academic journals have acted decisively to curb plagiarism. For example, Enders and Hoover (2004), in their survey of 127 editors of leading economics journals, found that only 19% had a formal plagiarism policy in place. This is surprising given the evidence that plagiarism in academic research is widespread. For instance, Bedeian et al. (2010) surveyed 438 faculty members from 104 business schools and found that over 70% of the faculty members were aware of colleagues who engaged in plagiarism. In another study, Enders and Hoover (2006) surveyed 1,208 economists and found that 24.4% of respondents identified themselves as victims of plagiarism—although the percentage might have been inflated due to self-reporting bias. Evidence from other fields suggests that plagiarism is not only widespread, but often goes undetected. For example, a year after implementing the plagiarizing screening process for its new submissions, the editorial board of the *British Journal of Anesthesia*, a high-impact medical journal, reported rejecting 4% of submissions on that basis (Yentis, 2010).

In a recent editorial in the *Academy of Management Review*, Schminke (2009) discussed both the considerable temptation to engage in ethical violations at the Academy, and the rarity with which the audits, either formal or informal, are pursued. Reporting on his informal survey, approximately half the editors he queried had no difficulties recounting ethical violations that contravened the clearly stated policy formulated in the Academy's code of ethics. Most of the cases recounted in his essay reflected violations either of submission (e.g., authors submitted to more than one journal at a time) or violations of originality, referring to papers "conspicuously similar to previously rejected manuscripts or to papers already published in other journals" (Schminke, 2009: 587). Notably absent were instances of data fabrication or examples of plagiarism by one author of another. Unfortunately, given the current norms of the profession,

data fabrication is particularly difficult to ascertain, as we do not require the distribution of raw data, encourage the retesting of similar studies (how many top journals would consider publishing a replication study?), or make any significant attempts to independently verify the integrity of the author(s)' source or quality of data. In short, despite the existence of unethical conduct in academic research (e.g., Yentis, 2010), our monitoring systems to control such behaviors are either nonexistent, insufficient, or infrequently implemented.

Schminke's (2009) commentary illustrates both the range and the variability of plagiaristic activities. For example, he distinguishes between experienced scholars, who knowingly violate convention, and new scholars, who either lack the knowledge regarding appropriate processes or take shortcuts to secure tenure. These arguably reflect different incentives, pressures, and normative practices. In the present study, we distinguish these two groups as either *habitual plagiarizers* or *nascent plagiarizers*. Habitual plagiarizers have a history of plagiarizing, while nascent plagiarizers are more likely to be either doctoral students or junior colleagues who are new to the profession. An example of a habitual plagiarizer is the case of Dr. Madonna Consantine, a tenured professor at Columbia's Teacher's College, who was found guilty of plagiarizing 36 passages from a junior colleague and two students over a period of 5 years (Arenson & Gootman, 2008). Another example of a habitual plagiarizer is found in the field of management sciences, where author Dănuț Marcu published three plagiarized papers in *Studia Universitatis Babeș-Bolyai Series Informatica* during 2002–2003 and subsequently tried to publish another "lifted" piece in the *Quarterly Journal of the Operations Research* (4OR; Bouyssou, Martello, & Plastria, 2009). One of Marcu's victims wrote:

A very odd thing has happened. A fellow by the name of Dănuț Marcu has plagiarized my paper in its entirety! The first two pages of his paper. . . are basically just a rewording of my paper, down to the details of the proofs. Apparently this is not the first time this has happened—he has been plagiarizing papers for years and passing them off as his own. Unfortunately, many of his papers fool both the referees and the journals (Bouyssou et al., 2009: 12).

Marcu was subsequently "outed" and banned from publishing his work in the above journals. The plagiarized rejected piece from 4OR was later published in another journal.

An example of a nascent violator, on the other hand, is the case of a PhD student from Greece who submitted a plagiarized paper to an academic conference. As a result of his attempt to distribute plagiarized papers at conferences (in this case, Euro-Par, a Computer Science Conference), a letter was distributed warning other potential conference organizers of his proclivities (Anonymous, 1995).

Although many in our profession appear to be suspicious of students cutting corners in an effort to marginally improve their grades, we seem to have full confidence in our colleagues, whose incentives to skirt rules and policies are "limited to less significant issues" such as tenure, reputation, and six-figure salaries. As editors, we place considerable trust in our submitting authors, believing that the data they report have been represented fairly, acquired honestly, and analyzed precisely as depicted. However, there is evidence to suggest that this wholesale trust may be misplaced (Yentis, 2010). Schminke (2009) provided examples of contraventions encountered in the submission process, questioning whether our normative scholarly expectations may be somewhat naive and misplaced. He cited examples of authors resubmitting rejected manuscripts to the same journal, and others submitting papers under second review simultaneously to other journals. These individuals may be described as *procedural deviants* or those who, rather than plagiarizing the work of others, engage in unethical behaviors during the publication process. Examples include taking research shortcuts, falsifying data, or ghost writing. For instance, a recent court case uncovered an apparently well-entrenched process of ghost writing conducted by pharmaceutical companies for established academics (Wilson & Singer, 2009). In many cases, renowned academics were taking credit and even payment for allowing their names to be used in a peer-reviewed publication, reflecting a study they had not participated in, and a paper they had not authored. The practice remained a largely undisclosed secret until litigation brought it to light, effectively opening a Pandora's box regarding this conduct. Further evidence of ethical violation in medical research emerged in the study by Long et al. (2009) that found 9,120 highly similar citations between published works in MEDLINE. A full text analysis of these citations revealed 212 articles with signs of duplication with an average similarity rate of 86.2% between the duplicated and the original paper. Moreover, only 22.2% of these 212 articles referenced the original article, and approximately 42% contained evidence of data fabrication, incorrect calculation, and manipulated diagrams. Ob-

viously, these practices, no matter how rampant or normative, contradict editorial guidelines for peer-reviewed journals. Thus, despite the ostensible rigor of blind peer review, opportunities exist in the peer review system for considerable manipulation and ethical violation.

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Estimating the severity of plagiarism in the publication process warrants an ethical yardstick, if only to assess and implement appropriate measures and censures when questionable behaviors are identified. Bartlett and Smallwood (2004) provide a 10-step hierarchical list of plagiarist offenses, with the top five consisting of (1) copying the entire work, a substantial part, paragraphs, sentences, or clauses; (2) copying highly original ideas; (3) paraphrasing segments of substantial size without new contributions; (4) paraphrasing segments of moderate size without new contributions; and (5) verbatim or nonverbatim copying of unremarkable segments of small size (e.g., clauses, phrases, expressions, and neologisms). As with all rules, the above offenses and the probability of violation are dependent on both contextual conditions, such as the degree of transparency involved, and the characteristics of the rule, including enforceability and procedural factors (Lehman & Ramanujam, 2009). Also of interest is that there seems to be disagreement on the conceptualization of plagiarism and the appropriate penalties attached to such behaviors. For instance, Enders and Hoover (2006) found that approximately 80% of the 1,208 respondents held the view that unattributed sentences were either likely or definite examples of plagiarism. However, 2.8% believed it was "not at all" plagiarism, and 16.6% thought it was "not likely." Recommendations regarding penalties were surprisingly restrained: 74% would likely or definitely notify the plagiarist's department chair, dean, or provost, 72% would place a ban on future journal submissions, but slightly less than half would make the plagiarism a matter of public notice (2006: 96). This reluctance to publicly report acts of plagiarism is not unique to plagiarism in academic research, and is also discussed in the literature on student plagiarism where McCabe (1993) found that only 40% of 789 faculty members

reported student cheating to the appropriate authorities.

Isomorphism of the Peer Review Process

Although the concept of "publish or perish" has been synonymous with academic life in contemporary times, this has certainly not always been the case. The history of the peer review process is surprisingly absent from academic discourse, despite its obvious preeminence and its implications for prestige, notoriety, and success. Academic publication evolved from journalism, when early newspapers relied upon a single editor as sole adjudicator. Medical journals, for example, maintained a single editor as a gatekeeper well into the 19th century, as did other academic publications in the United States and United Kingdom. In France, senior editors of academic journals thought of themselves as journalists well into the 20th century (Burnham, 1990). Many academic journals emerged primarily to broadcast the success of a particular research institute and were typically published and edited by a single editor who, as director, considered himself an expert in all areas related to the journal's topic. As knowledge specialization increased, various editors relinquished some of their editorial control and sought external review advice (Burnham, 1990). Thus, it was only in the 1940s, with the combination of increasing submissions and the specialization of knowledge, that the systematic blind review process we are familiar with today first emerged (Burnham, 1990).

As the model for tenure diffused throughout North America, so did the accompanying pace of peer-reviewed academic journals, to accommodate the growing needs of junior faculty to demonstrate productivity to tenure-and-promotion committees. Academic tenure, originating in 12th century Europe, disseminated through North America by 1915, both as a consequence of the influence of German institutions (White, 2000), and in response to several faculty terminations at Stanford University (Ludlum, 1950). Peer-reviewed scholarship subsequently became the primary duty of faculty (Adams, 2006). While peer-reviewed publication continues to be central for promotion and tenure, some universities limit the absolute number of articles submitted for promotional review (Bickel, 1991), thus increasing the pressure to publish in high-impact journals. Peer-reviewed scientific articles continue to be the means by which academic honors and promotion are distributed (Hargens, 1988). For example, citations in peer-reviewed journals have been explicitly linked to increased income, which may be considered a proxy for reputation

and prestige (Diamond, 1986). Thus, our increased reliance on academic journal rankings to assess individual potential in creating and publishing new knowledge is quite evident. A survey of 252 management department chairs across the United States indicated that approximately 14% of institutions used a formal list of journals to make personnel decisions such as promotion and tenure (Van Fleet, McWilliams, & Siegel, 2000). Moreover, the faculty's "intellectual capital" or the number of the faculty's publications in top-tier journals also has implications for other indicators, such as business school rankings, prestige, and access to grants and other resources (Beamish, 2000; Miller, Glick, & Cardinal, 2005).

The Institutionalization of Peer Review and Its Consequences

Higher education in management continues to follow a pattern largely set in the United States over a century ago. American journals, such as the publications of the Academy of Management, continue to play a central role in tenure, advancement, and university rankings. The United States has continued to lead and even dominate in the field of management for more than a century, establishing the AACSB accreditation process in 1916 and promoting the growth of named schools and research chairs. Although the process and achievement of academic rank and tenure according to publication are primarily North American inventions, there have been considerable isomorphic trends worldwide. For example, the research assessment exercise (RAE) in the United Kingdom that first began in 1986 has become a systematic 5-year review of every public higher education facility in the United Kingdom (it will be called the research excellence framework in 2014). Universities are rated according to the prestige and frequency of their faculty publications and are directly rewarded through the provision of financial resources. Australian universities are presently undergoing a similar comparative assessment exercise (Gallagher, 2010).

Examining how higher education models have globally disseminated is one important element in understanding where, when, and why individuals choose to be habitual or nascent plagiarizers. Existing theories may assist in predicting where and when the pressures to plagiarize may be greatest. Neo-institutional theory examines the social processes by which structures, policies, and programs are developed and subsequently acquire a "taken-for-granted" status (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). The ori-

gins of institutional theory are embedded in attempts by sociologists to understand the diffusion of mass education, compulsory state education, and tertiary education (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Meyer, Hannan, Rubinson, & Thomas, 1979). Institutional theorists were struck by the apparent isomorphism of educational processes, including subjects, curriculum, instructional guidelines, classrooms, enrollments, school design, pedagogy, and a host of associated educational designs. Such expansion occurred irrespective of controls for variation of the nation state (e.g., urbanization, energy consumption, political regime). As stated by Ramirez and Boli (1987: 172), "What all these disparate bodies of evidence underscore is the universality and uniformity of educational development in recent decades . . . Education is institutionalized at the world level and acts as a social imperative for nation states integrated within this institutional environment." Using this perspective, we may observe that business education, including the MBA, taught with similar subdisciplines (e.g., finance, accounting, OB, operations, strategy, etc.) has diffused through North America, across Europe, and extending to every continent. As management education expanded, joint ventures were established between the United States and international universities. As a result, United States professors developed international affiliations, which served to tacitly carry forward existing models of research and publication standards (Bandelj, 1989). To quote one research study in Eastern Europe, "Aid from international organizations, the activities of professional associations, and mimicking peer behavior have all helped establish a management school as a legitimate organizational form in post-socialism" (Bandelj, 1989: 13).

Institutional theory is helpful in understanding the process by which faculty publication standards, tenure, promotion, and peer review processes, including those related to management education, diffused throughout the world. It helps predict and explain the isomorphic pressures that result in the diffusion of habitual and nascent plagiarizers. For example, virtually overnight, universities that were unfamiliar with management studies, such as those in Eastern Europe, suddenly found themselves attempting to conform to standards and methods with which they had little or no experience. Institutional theorists have very well-conceptualized and empirically tested models by which institutional norms are disseminated. Individuals engage in normative behavior either through coercion (they are forced or cajoled into conformity), through mimetic means (they are at-

tracted by what appears to be a successful model), or due to normative expectations (they comply to appear rational, sensible, modern, or legitimate; DiMaggio & Powell, 1983). Regarding the evolution of business schools, coercion took place through international donors, such as the European Union, and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID); normative isomorphism came through the extension of national and regional professional organizations, including accreditation bodies; and mimetic isomorphism took place through the alliances and cooperative agreements developed with U.S. business schools (Bandelj, 1989).

Regarding the pressures to publish (and possibly plagiarize), U.S. reward structures are very clearly institutionalized and biased strongly toward research and peer-reviewed publication (Fairweather, 1993). Because management education began in the United States and only later spread to Europe, Asia, Latin America, and Africa, we would expect the normative forces to be strongest and the willingness to deviate from the norm weakest in the United States, followed by those countries that were early adapters of the management education model. Given the characteristics of institutionalization, we would expect developed countries of the western hemisphere, such as those in North America and Europe, along with Australia and New Zealand, to demonstrate the most universal and well-established compliance to professional rules and norms. In contrast, countries that have only recently adopted the institutions of peer review (e.g., Eastern Europe, Latin America, Asia, and Africa) will be less likely to comply with professional norms. Based on the above, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 1: The incidence of plagiarism will be higher in newly institutionalized (noncore) countries than those from more established (core) countries.

We recognize that not all individuals face the same incentives or constraints, so there is a differential in willingness to engage in risk-taking behavior. While some individuals may have adopted a laissez-faire approach to scholarship (habitual plagiarizers), others may calculate the risks versus the incentives for their specific and highly contextual and conditional situation. For example, many doctoral students as well as some faculty members are only subsidized to attend conferences for which their papers are accepted. Attending conferences is an important aspect of socialization and advances the opportunity to develop important professional networks. Networks and conferences are particu-

larly important for individuals on the periphery who may not otherwise have good access to world-class scholarship or opportunities to collaborate and network with other members of a particular scholarly field. We maintain that an emerging untenured scholar or doctoral student has a higher incentive to plagiarize than a senior professor or someone not at all in the professorate (Kock, 1999). This is not to imply that only doctoral students and junior faculty are likely to engage in these activities; it is for this reason that we distinguish between nascent plagiarizers and habitual plagiarizers. Further, *ceteris paribus*, those who have spent a greater amount of time in the Academy are more likely to be institutionalized into its norms and practices and thus less likely to plagiarize. Of course, they may also become cavalier and complacent, yielding a subsector of habitual plagiarizers, as demonstrated by the examples cited here. However, expectancy valence theory argues that expectations and valences together determine a person's motivation to undertake a particular behavior (e.g., to plagiarize/not plagiarize). Plagiarism may be thus affected by expectations of publication, the value attached to the publication, and the need for publication to obtain a critical network or position. Obtaining tenure is clearly an important threshold, as it allows the individual to maintain professional status and increases individual motivation. Moreover, expectations may also be related to beliefs about the pressure to publish, amount of competition for publications, and success of getting one's past plagiarized work published. Thus, individuals with greater incentives (e.g., untenured scholars looking for tenure; doctoral students looking for jobs) will be more likely to plagiarize than others. We therefore hypothesize:

Hypothesis 2: The incidence of plagiarism will be higher for untenured or junior scholars than for tenured or senior scholars.

Although scholars from noncore countries are more likely to plagiarize, we believe that this relationship will be stronger for untenured and new scholars. The incentives attached to a publication coupled with the noncore country's failure to enforce or detect plagiarism imply that authors from these countries will be more likely to plagiarize. We specifically argue that untenured and new scholars' temptation to plagiarize may be especially strong when they believe that the institutional norms of ethical research are virtually nonexistent, allowing unethical behaviors such as plagiarism to go undetected. Past research has

indicated the influence of incentives to plagiarize and the risk of getting caught in influencing unethical behaviors (Houston, 1983; Michaels & Miethe, 1989; Tittle & Rowe, 1973). Houston (1983), for instance, found that the risk of getting caught acted as more of a deterrent to cheating for high-performing students who had little incentive to cheat than for low-performing students. Accordingly, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Author status moderates the relationship between an author's country and incidence of plagiarism. The positive relationship between non-core country and incidence of plagiarism will be stronger for untenured or junior scholars than for tenured or senior scholars.

Further, rule violation may be differentially related to the abilities of the deviant. High-ranked, high-impact publications in management are universally English language publications (Harzing, 2010). Language skills play an important part in the editorial and research process, and articles that are not clearly written or have grammatical errors are often desk rejected or otherwise turned down. Good English language skills are important for rephrasing, summarizing, and citing other individuals' work without resorting to cut and paste plagiarizing. We maintain that a scholar with excellent English language reading and writing skills has less of an incentive to plagiarize than someone who finds the language particularly difficult. Although we cannot measure the language proficiency of our sample, we can deduce, to a certain extent by proxy, the level of English expertise. We assume that those who studied in English-speaking countries are more fluent in English than those who did not, and will thus have a comparatively easier time communicating and writing in English; most would have at least completed their dissertation in English, which is arguably a major demonstration of language proficiency. We hypothesize this relationship as follows:

Hypothesis 4: The incidence of plagiarism will be higher for scholars that received their highest degree from a non-English speaking country than for those receiving their highest degree from an English speaking country.

Furthermore, education may also affect the relationship between an author's country and the incidence of plagiarism. As argued above, authors who are educated in a non-English speaking country but are expected to write and publish in English

will be more likely to plagiarize. This relationship may be further exacerbated by institutional norms and policies that fail to effectively address and even implicitly condone unethical behaviors such as plagiarism. An academic environment where the norms of ethical research are relatively less developed may heighten a nonnative English author's willingness to plagiarize, thus increasing the likelihood of plagiarism. The following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 5: Education moderates the relationship between an author's country and incidence of plagiarism. The positive relationship between non-core country and incidence of plagiarism will be stronger for authors receiving their degrees from non-English speaking countries.

Gender and Plagiarism

Another factor that could play an important role in predicting the incidence of plagiarism is gender. Kelling, Zerkes, and Myerowitz (1976), in their risk as value theory, propose risk taking as a strongly valued masculine tendency that motivates high levels of risk taking among males. Femininity, on the other hand, is stereotypically associated with lower levels of risk taking, as females tend to be more concerned about the negative effects of their behavior on others (Robbins & Martin, 1993). The masculinity-femininity distinction is crucial to understanding the specific gender roles assigned to males and females (social role theory; Eagly, 1987). Masculinity, for instance, has been associated with independence, self-assertiveness, aggressiveness, toughness, and competitiveness (Eagly, 1987; Gerschick & Miller, 1995; Lee & Owens, 2002). Femininity, on the other hand, has been associated with more expressive and communal personality traits such as compassion, sympathy, nurturance, sensitivity to others, and high moral standards (Chang, 2006; Franke, Crown, & Spake, 1997; Powell & Greenhaus, 2010). These gender roles shape attitudes and behaviors; research has shown that individuals engage in behaviors that are consistent with the prevailing gender stereotypes (Adler, Laney, & Packer, 1993; Deaux & LaFrance, 1998). Viewed through the lens of risk as value theory, this suggests that males will be more likely to engage in risky behaviors. Doing so would be consistent with their gender belief system, which establishes risk taking as an admirable masculine trait and enhances their self-esteem by winning praise and recognition from others (Clark, Crock-

ett, & Archer, 1971; Shapira, 1995; Wilson & Daly, 1985). This assertion is also consistent with the social role theory that characterizes men as more thrill seeking and individualistic, and therefore, acknowledges aggressive and risk-taking behaviors as a part of the male gender role (Eagly, 1987; Whitley et al., 1999; Zuckerman, Kuhlman, Thornquist, & Kiers, 1991). Indeed, a meta-analytic study on gender differences in risk taking found that compared to females, males were more likely to engage in a wide variety of risky behaviors such as drinking, using drugs, intellectual risk taking, and risky experiments, to name a few (Byrnes, Miller, & Schafer, 1999). There is also evidence of higher levels of academic cheating (Finn & Frone, 2004; McCabe & Treviño, 1997); student plagiarism (Lambert, Ellen, & Taylor, 2003); financial risk taking (Weber, Blais, & Betz, 2002); and drug use and gambling (Zuckerman & Kuhlman, 2000) among males. On the basis of the above theory and research, we expect parallel gender differences in plagiarism among academics such that male scholars will be more likely to engage in plagiarism than female scholars:

Hypothesis 6: The incidence of plagiarism will be greater for males than for female scholars.

In addition, gender may also moderate the relationship between country and plagiarism. Specifically, the relationship between noncore country and plagiarism is likely to be stronger for male scholars from noncore countries than female scholars and males from core countries. Arnett's (1992) theory of broad and narrow socialization suggests that the level of individual risk taking is influenced by individual factors, such as level of sensation seeking, as well as cultural factors, such as ethical rules, autonomy, and so forth. An individual's sociocultural background (e.g., ethical norms and beliefs, etc.) emphasizes or deemphasizes the sensation seeker's inclination to take risks. Gender has been shown to affect risk-taking behavior, with men preferring greater risks, resulting from overconfidence (Barber, Barber, & Odean, 2001). It has also been shown that cultures vary in perceived risk; it was found, for example, that the Chinese were lowest perceived risk averse and highest perceived risk seeking, as compared with German, Polish, and United States respondents (Weber & Hsee, 1998). In particular, collectivist cultures were found to have cushioned individuals by providing more acceptance, allowing for higher risk taking (Weber & Hsee, 1998). We may thus anticipate that male scholars from core countries, such as the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom, that are higher in individualism

(Hofstede, 1980) will exhibit lower levels of plagiarism than male scholars from noncore countries, many of which are higher in collectivism (e.g., China, Korea, Taiwan).

Furthermore, we argue that although gender differences in plagiarism may exist between different cultures, overall plagiarism levels will be higher for men than for women in most cultures. One reason for this is that risk taking is an attribute of masculine psychology and the cultural differences will be unable to entirely eliminate the risk-taking tendency (Byrnes et al., 1999). Thus, men (who are more inclined to take risks than women) will be more likely to engage in risk-taking behaviors (Arnett, 1992). In his study of 105 Malaysian students and 96 Australian undergraduate students studying in Australia, Egan (2008) found that tendency to plagiarize was higher among Malaysian males than Malaysian females. Furthermore, Malaysian students studying at offshore campuses of the university in Malaysia were more inclined to plagiarize than Malaysian students studying in Australia. Based on the above theory and research we propose that:

Hypothesis 7: Gender moderates the relationship between an author's country and incidence of plagiarism. The positive relationship between noncore country and incidence of plagiarism will be stronger for male scholars than for female scholars.

METHODS

Organizational Context: The Academy of Management

The AOM, the largest body of academics dedicated to the study of business management issues, was founded in 1936 with a formal constitution established in 1941. Today, the Academy has approximately 19,630 members from 104 nations in 25 thematic divisions; it sponsors four prestigious peer-reviewed academic journals, and hosts annual meetings attended by over 10,000 people (AOM website). Increasingly, AOM has drawn an international audience, as scholars from business schools around the world participate in its annual conference and submit to its journals. In 2009, individuals representing 78 countries participated in the annual meeting, representing nearly one half of the 8,380 persons in the program. Approximately one third of the universities that sent more than 30 participants to the annual meeting were international. With respect to plagiarism and authorship

credit, the Academy (AOM, 2010) has a very specific policy, as follows:

4.2.1. Plagiarism

4.2.1.1. AOM members explicitly identify, credit, and reference the author of any data or material taken verbatim from written work, whether that work is published, unpublished, or electronically available.

4.2.1.2. AOM members explicitly cite others' work and ideas, including their own, even if the work or ideas are not quoted verbatim or paraphrased. This standard applies whether the previous work is published, unpublished, or electronically available.

4.2.2. Authorship Credit

4.2.2.1. AOM members ensure that authorship and other publication credits are based on the scientific or professional contributions of the individuals involved.

4.2.2.2. AOM members take responsibility and credit, including authorship credit, only for work they have actually performed or to which they have contributed.

4.2.2.3. AOM members usually list a student as principal author on multiple-authored publications that substantially derive from the student's dissertation or thesis (Academy of Management).

Sample

Our sample consisted of all empirical as well as nonempirical papers presented at the International Management (IM) division of the 2009 annual meeting of the Academy of Management. The International Management division was selected based on its cross-cultural focus and significant representation at the Academy (2,988 members as of August 12, 2010). The International division represents papers from different countries and covers a wide variety of areas, such as organizational behavior, international business, strategic management, and organizational theory. The IM division, therefore, represents a kind of microcosm of the overall research presented at the Academy and helps extend the generalizability of our findings to other divisions and areas. In total, 279 papers (represented by 636 authors) that were available online were selected for use. Each coauthor was considered individually, and we utilized conventional research norms, asserting that all authors share equal responsibility for their presented work (Dalton, 2002). Thus, regardless of their contribution, if the coauthors take credit for the presented work, then they are also responsible for the plagiarism

that appears in it. This assumption of collective responsibility is not new and is popular in medical research where coauthors are increasingly required to share full responsibility for the content regardless of their contribution (Nayak & Maniar, 2006). The American Physical Society, for instance, has a formal policy for coauthors, stating that "coauthors who are accountable for the integrity of critical data reported in the paper, carry out the analysis, write the manuscript, present major findings in the conference or provide scientific leadership as bearing responsibility for all of a paper's contents" (Dalton, 2002). This position is also supported by two important aforementioned ethical standards set forth by AOM, that "AOM members ensure that authorship and other publication credits are based on the scientific or professional contributions of the individuals involved" (4.2.2.1) and that "AOM members take responsibility and credit, including authorship credit, only for work they have actually performed or to which they have contributed" (4.2.2.2).

However, it must be noted that despite the specific recommendations of the ethical code of conduct of AOM and others, not all scholars subscribe to this particular view. They may, for example, consider their coauthorship as a partnership, with responsibilities delegated according to expertise or preference. It may be the case that individuals are surprised and even incapable of determining the extent of plagiarized content when joining a research team. The notion of professional trust and expertise has been well-socialized into our normative scholarly view, and the mere idea that a colleague would "cheat" or "cut corners" may shock many in our profession. However, ignorance is no excuse for not following requirements, and we have clear and explicit rules regarding intellectual property, citation, and collective work and responsibility. This study reflects our concern that instances of ethical slippage are occurring with considerable frequency. As scholars, we believe that the Academy has an obligation to maintain the highest standards regarding intellectual property. In short, while we recognize that scholars with normative views may be uncomfortable assigning equal responsibility for violations by all authorship team members, taking a perspective of shared responsibility, which is supported by our ethical guidelines, is the best way to reduce unethical behavior in our field.

Coding Scheme

Two independent raters coded the studies on multiple dimensions, such as percentage of plagia-

This study reflects our concern that instances of ethical slippage are occurring with considerable frequency.

rism and paper characteristics. In order to assess the reliability of this coding, a random subsample of 57 studies (i.e., 20%) was independently coded by the second author. Agreement was obtained on 49 of 57 comparisons, yielding a reliability coefficient of 86%. Any initial differences in coding were resolved by way of discussion and a more careful examination until agreement was reached.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study is the *percentage of plagiarism*, defined as the ratio of plagiarized words to the total number of words in a paper. The reference sections were excluded from the total word count. A section was considered plagiarized if the author(s): (a) copied the entire section from another paper without proper acknowledgment, or (b) copied the section from another paper with proper acknowledgment but left out the quotation marks or page numbers, thus giving the impression that the work was paraphrased. Since the focus of this study was on individuals plagiarizing others' work without appropriate acknowledgment, we adopted a more conservative approach toward self-plagiarism. If authors used sections from their own previous work or cited the primary source, then it was not considered plagiarism.

Independent Variable

We coded for the author's academic status as follows: 1 = student, assistant professor, lecturer, research assistant, nonacademic (essentially, nontenured or junior scholars) and 2 = associate professor and professor (essentially, tenured or senior scholars). However, we should clarify that while in many countries, and particularly in North America, associate and full professors are tenured faculty, in a limited number of systems it may be possible to hold the position of untenured associate professor. Further, although tenure does not exist worldwide, senior scholars typically enjoy greater prestige and receive more resources. We next coded for the country in which the author's university was located: 1 = established (core) countries and 0 = otherwise. For the purposes of this paper, core countries were defined as western-

ized/developed countries (i.e., North American and European nations, Australia, and New Zealand). The country from which the authors received their highest educational degree was a dummy variable coded as 1 = English-speaking country and 0 = otherwise. Finally, gender was a dummy variable with males coded as 0 and females, 1. Variables for which the above information was unavailable were left unclassified.

Procedure

We used the on-line plagiarism detection service, Turnitin, to check papers for plagiarism. Turnitin checks a paper for its originality by comparing it with billions of Internet pages (live as well as cached), previously submitted student papers, periodicals, journals, and on-line publications. Once a paper has been uploaded on Turnitin, the website generates an originality report that indicates the percentage of matches between the submitted paper and the existing database. The website then creates an exact replica of the submitted paper, except that any text that is copied is color-coded and linked to its original source. However, this color-coding can be deceptive, as it only specifies the use of external sources without identifying whether these sources have been properly cited. In addition, legitimate use of statistical phrases and other descriptive terms are also highlighted as plagiarized. To overcome the above limitations, we manually checked the highlighted sections for ap-

TABLE 1
Mean Number of Words Plagiarized, by Author Characteristics

	<i>N</i>	Mean Number of Words Plagiarized
<i>Status</i>		
Untenured or Junior Scholars	304	76.67
Tenured or Senior Scholars	279	86.68
Total	583	81.55
<i>Country</i>		
Noncore Countries	129	203.09
Core Countries	501	66.64
Total	630	94.63
<i>Gender</i>		
Male	379	117.30
Female	206	66.03
Total	585	90.23
<i>Education</i>		
Non-English Speaking Country	189	96.32
English-Speaking Country	319	67.24
Total	508	78.06

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics: Percentage of Plagiarism, by Groups

	Total Sample (N)	Number of Papers With Confirmed Plagiarism	% of Total Sample	Number of Papers With 5% or More Plagiarism	% of Total Sample
<i>Status</i>					
Untenured or Junior Scholars	304	76	25.00	24	7.89
Tenured or Senior Scholars	279	57	21.15	20	7.17
Total	583	135	23.16	44	7.55
<i>Country</i>					
Noncore Countries	129	54	41.86	25	19.38
Core Countries	501	105	20.96	28	5.59
Total	630	159	25.24	53	8.41
<i>Gender</i>					
Males	379	95	25.07	37	9.76
Females	206	54	26.21	11	5.34
Total	585	149	25.47	48	8.21
<i>Education</i>					
Noncore Countries	189	51	26.98	17	8.99
Core countries	319	66	20.69	18	5.64
Total	508	117	23.03	35	6.89

appropriate citations and excluded the methodology section of all empirical papers.

Analyses

Cross-tabulations (crosstabs), chi square statistics, and one-way analysis of variance tests (ANOVA) were used to compare the mean levels of plagiarism among the proposed study characteristics. The hypothesized interaction effects were tested using factorial ANOVA.

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics

Because there are 279 papers with 636 authors, we had a total of 636 cases to examine. The sample consisted of 379 males and 206 females. Of these, 79.52% of the authors came from established (core) countries, 52.14% of the authors were nontenured or junior scholars, and 62.80% of the authors received their highest degree from an English-speaking country. We coded for cross-collaborations of different countries, education levels, and academic status, and did not find any significant differences.

Table 1 indicates the average number of words plagiarized for each author characteristic. The mean words plagiarized were highest among authors from noncore countries ($\bar{x} = 203.09$ words), followed by males ($\bar{x} = 117.30$ words), and authors receiving their highest degree from a non-English speaking country ($\bar{x} = 96.32$ words). The percentage of plagiarism levels for each of the author characteristics are shown in Table 2. The most alarming results were with respect to author country where 41.86% of the papers from noncore country authors had some evidence of plagiarism of which almost half, or 19.38%, had 5% or more of the text plagiarized. With respect to the overall plagiarism levels, approximately 25% of papers presented at the division had some evidence of plagiarism, while 13.62% of papers had an average of 5% or more (1,052 words) of plagiarism (Table 3).

To further explore the relationships between the variables in our study, we computed bivariate correlations. Table 4 presents the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of the variables used in the study. Author country was negatively correlated with the percentage of plagiarism, indicating that authors from North American coun-

TABLE 3
Descriptive Statistics: Percentage of Plagiarism in Papers Analyzed

	Total Sample (N)	Number of Papers With Confirmed Plagiarism	% of Total Sample	Number of Papers With 5% or More Plagiarism	% of total Sample
Total Number of Papers Analyzed	279	71	25.44	38	13.62

TABLE 4
Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations for Study Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Country	Status	Education	Gender	Percentage of Plagiarism
Country	.74	.44	1	-.05	.19*	-.04	-.19*
Status	1.48	.50	-.05	1	.07	-.13*	-.01
Education	.63	.48	.19*	.07	1	.04	-.06
Gender	.35	.48	-.04	-.13*	.04	1	-.07
Percentage of plagiarism	.01	.04	-.19*	-.01	-.06	-.07	1

Note. *N* = 504–636.

Country was coded as 1 = core country and 0 = noncore country; status as 1 = student, assistant professor, lecturer, research assistant, nonacademic and 2 = associate professor and professor; Education as coded as 1 = core country and 0 = noncore country; and gender was coded as 0 = male and 1 = female.

* *p* < .001.

tries were less likely to plagiarize ($r = -.19$, $p < .001$). This is consistent with the view that authors from more established core countries are more likely to adhere to professional rules and norms of academia, and thus, are less likely to engage in plagiarism.

We next conducted chi square tests to check for independence or homogeneity among groups on the dependent variable. Table 5 reports the χ^2 values for Hypotheses 1, 2, 4, and 6. The results confirmed that the author country was a strong indicator of incidence of plagiarism ($\chi^2 = 182.88$, $p < .001$; Table 5). Mean comparison between the two groups indicated that authors from noncore countries were indeed more likely to plagiarize than authors from core countries ($\bar{x} = 2.79\%$ vs. $\bar{x} = 0.95\%$; Table 6). This supports Hypothesis 1, which predicted that authors from newly institutionalized (noncore) countries would be more likely to engage in plagiarism. Hypothesis 2, predicting higher incidence of plagiarism for nontenured or junior scholars compared to tenured or senior scholars, was not supported ($\chi^2 = 65.69$, $p < ns$). Hypothesis 4, which predicted a positive relationship between education and incidence of plagiarism, was supported ($\chi^2 = 93.34$, $p < .01$; Table 5). Finally, Hypothesis 6, predicting higher incidence

TABLE 5
Chi Square Results for Percentage of Plagiarism

Variable	χ^2
Country	182.88**
Status	65.69
Education	93.34*
Gender	76.71

* *p* < .01. ** *p* < .001.

of plagiarism for males compared to females, was not supported ($\chi^2 = 76.71$, $p < ns$).

The moderator analyses for Hypotheses 3, 5, and 7 are shown in Table 7. Hypothesis 3 stated that the relationship between noncore country and incidence of plagiarism will be stronger for new scholars. To test this hypothesis, a factorial ANOVA was conducted with percentage of plagiarism as the dependent variable. Status and country were entered as independent variables. The results indicate significant interaction between status and country ($F = 10.95$, $p < .05$). When plotted, the interaction results indicate that there was a stronger positive relationship between noncore country and plagiarism for nontenured or junior scholars, compared with senior scholars (Figure 1). Surprisingly, for core countries, mean words plagiarized for tenured or senior scholars were higher than for nontenured or senior scholars.

TABLE 6
Group Means and ANOVA Results for Differences Between Groups

Variable	Group means (%)	<i>F</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Country		28.38	.00*
Core Country	0.97		
Noncore Country	3.22		
Status		0.02	.89
Untenured or Junior Scholars	1.26		
Tenured or Senior Scholars	1.22		
Education		1.55	.21
From Non-English Speaking	1.40		
Country			
From English-Speaking	1.01		
Country			
Gender		2.83	.09
Males	1.71		
Females	1.06		

* *p* < .001.

TABLE 7
Factorial Analysis of Variance for Study
Characteristics Predicting Percentage of
Plagiarism

Variable	df	SS	F	p
Hypothesis 5 (status)			10.95 ^a	.001
Status	1	.008		
Country	1	.024		
Status × Country	1	.013		
Hypothesis 7 (education)			2.90	.09
Education	1	.001		
Country	1	.023		
Education × Country	1	.005		
Hypothesis 9 (gender)			6.82*	.009
Gender	1	.018		
Country	1	.052		
Gender × Country	1	.013		

Note. df = degrees of freedom; SS = sum of squares.

* $p < .05$.

Hypothesis 5, predicting the moderating effects of education in country/plagiarism relationship, was not supported ($F = 2.90$, $p > .05$). Finally, Hypothesis 7, which predicted a moderating effect of gender between author country and plagiarism, was supported. The results indicate significant interactions between gender and country such that there was a stronger positive relationship between noncore country and plagiarism for males than females ($F = 6.82$, $p < .05$; Table 7, Figure 2). See Table 8 for a summary of the mean number of words plagiarized for supported moderator hypotheses. Table 9 provides a summary of all hypotheses, indicating whether they were supported or not.

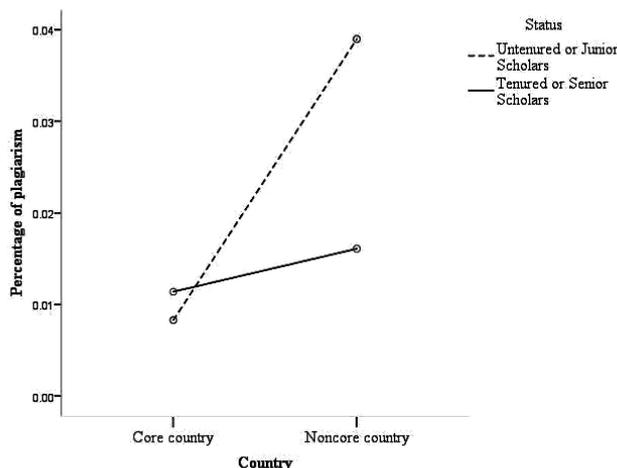


FIGURE 1

Percentage of Plagiarism as a Function of Author Country and Author Status

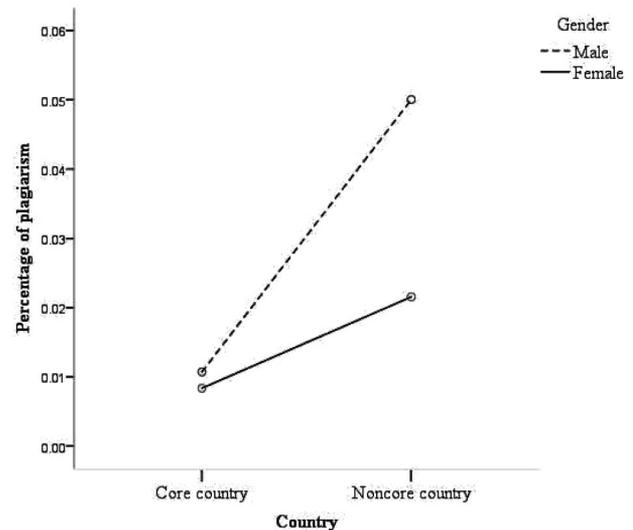


FIGURE 2

Percentage of Plagiarism as a Function of Author Country and Author Gender

DISCUSSION

Student plagiarism has received a significant amount of research attention in the last decade. Studies on plagiarism in academic research, however, are relatively scarce. Given the apparent vigor with which our profession screens student work for possible plagiarism, including the allocation of resources and the development of sophisticated programs dedicated to screening student work, our collective silence regarding our own professional activity is notable, regrettable, and of grave concern. Our purpose in this exploratory study was to fill this gap in the literature and examine the predictors of academic plagiarism. Specifically, we examined the role of author country, status (rank), education, and gender in predicting plagiarism. The link between country and plagiarism lends support to our hypotheses related to institutional isomorphism and indicates that a particularly high yield of plagiarizers are outside of the "core" countries, and in particular, of North America. Institutional theory predicts that organizational norms, including customs, censure, and acceptable practices, are likely to diffuse out of the core regions into the periphery, where they may be only partially accepted, or incorrectly mirrored. Confusion, misallocation of resources, and ineffective and inefficient practices may result when institutional systems attempt to comply with new isomorphic practices that are uncertain and in conflict with pre-existing procedures. In these situations, actors may go through the motions of following the new procedures without actually internalizing them or attempting to make them ef-

TABLE 8
Mean Number of Words Plagiarized for Supported Moderator Hypotheses: Author Country and Author Status, and Author Country and Author Gender

	Status		Gender	
	Untenured or Junior Scholars	Tenured or Senior Scholars	Males	Females
Mean Number of Words Plagiarized for Noncore Country Authors	238.23	100.34	330.65	121.72
Mean Number of Words Plagiarized for Core Country Authors	50.44	84.68	76.30	55.21

fective—and engage in “loose coupling” (Meyer & Rowan, 1977; Orton & Weick, 1990; Weick, 1976). Thus, practices not acceptable by the central and founding institutional bodies, in this case plagiarism, may become an artifact of institutional isomorphism. Further, we have reason to believe that a higher percentage of our international colleagues are only “loosely coupled” with the norms of publish or perish, which suggests they are enacting their own versions of it.

The results also indicated significant differences in plagiarism levels between authors who received their highest degree from an English-speaking country compared to those who were educated elsewhere. This suggests that authors who have limited English skills but are expected to write and publish in English may be tempted to plagiarize because of lack of English comprehension, in addition to the incentives attached to a publication,

and the negative consequences of the failure to publish. The findings are also in agreement with general research on student plagiarism, which has consistently established English as a second language (ESL) students as persistent plagiarizers (e.g., Dekert, 1993; Park, 2003).

Of the three predicted interactions, two were fully supported, providing evidence for a more complex model of how gender and status affect the relationship between country and plagiarism. In the case of gender, there was a stronger positive relationship between noncore country and plagiarism for males than for females. Thus, one could say that incidence of plagiarism is higher for males originating from noncore countries or countries with relatively weaker institutional environments. Of course, it might also be that males from noncore countries are more likely to take risks and engage in plagiarism because they believe they

TABLE 9
Summary of Results

Hypotheses		Supported
Hypothesis 1:	<i>The incidence of plagiarism will be higher in newly institutionalized (periphery) countries than those from more established (core) countries.</i>	Yes
Hypothesis 2:	<i>The incidence of plagiarism will be higher for untenured or junior scholars than for tenured or senior scholars.</i>	No
Hypothesis 3:	<i>Author status moderates the relationship between an author's country and incidence of plagiarism. The positive relationship between noncore country and incidence of plagiarism will be stronger for untenured or junior scholars than for tenured or senior scholars.</i>	Yes
Hypothesis 4:	<i>The incidence of plagiarism will be greater for scholars that received their highest degree from a non-English speaking country than for those from an English speaking country.</i>	Yes
Hypothesis 5:	<i>Education moderates the relationship between an author's country and incidence of plagiarism. The positive relationship between noncore country and incidence of plagiarism will be stronger for authors receiving their degrees from non-English speaking countries.</i>	No
Hypothesis 6:	<i>The incidence of plagiarism will be greater for males than for female scholars.</i>	No
Hypothesis 7:	<i>Gender moderates the relationship between an author's country and incidence of plagiarism. The positive relationship between noncore country and incidence of plagiarism will be stronger for male scholars than for female scholars.</i>	Yes

will be successful (much as gamblers take risks), or because they have a different cultural approach to risk assessment (Weber et al., 1998).

The results also indicate that the status of an author affects the relationship between country and plagiarism. In particular, there was a stronger positive relationship between noncore country and plagiarism for junior or nontenured scholars than for senior or tenured scholars. This lends further support to our contention that plagiarism is more likely when there is considerable reward or incentive to do so. Although the phrase *publish or perish* applies equally to a seasoned professor and a struggling young academic, the stakes are much higher for nontenured, junior, or student scholars. The quality of their work is not only used in the evaluation of research grant proposals, but also for prospective employment opportunities as well as promotion and other tenure-related decisions. In our analysis, we excluded self-citations or an author using portions from his or her previous work. Our research findings show that the very individuals who should be setting the highest ethical standards—senior faculty from core institutions—exhibit the highest rate of plagiarism in the core countries. Perhaps the potential gains of tenure, salary, and status offered by such behaviors far outweigh the associated risks, or perhaps status and hubris are at play. Alternatively, it may simply reflect that senior scholars have more experience and expertise, and are valued by new scholars as yet another shortcut to publication. Having a strong name on a paper undoubtedly adds legitimacy and leads to increased publication opportunities. While senior scholars may appear to be unwilling victims of potential plagiarizers, given the power relations taking place, we believe it behooves all scholars to insist that team members and coauthors guarantee authentic nonplagiarized contributions as a normative component of their research collaborations. Future research is needed to test the viability of these explanations, including the specific responsibilities, both explicit and implicit, that characterize these collaborative relationships.

Taken together, the results overwhelmingly demonstrate the prevalence of both habitual and nascent plagiarism and strongly suggest that our current norms, rules, and regulations appear inadequate in maintaining consistently high ethical standards. Furthermore, to our knowledge, no journal or conference in social science research utilizes an electronic system to monitor submitted work. As with most journals and conferences, the Academy of Management relies on the integrity of its membership to follow a code of ethics, as no systemic tools appear to be utilized to ensure the

originality of work beyond simple faith in the goodwill, honesty, and probity of members.

Possible Preemptive Steps

This study is a call to action for both the Academy and editorial boards to limit these behaviors to the very margins of scholarly research through appropriate censure and effective monitoring. There are a number of possible preemptive steps the Academy should consider, and we present them in the following categories:

Honor Codes

One possible source of inspiration for effective action rests with our experience regarding the systematic deterrence of student plagiarism. Given its pervasiveness, numerous strategies have been offered to prevent and detect these behaviors. Student plagiarism has been contained by promoting an academic culture that emphasizes integrity and honor and that provides clear communication regarding academic rules and standards. Important to effective plagiarism reduction models are mutual respect between students and faculty and robust detection and penalty systems (McCabe et al., 1999; Park, 2003; Scanlan, 2006; Whitley, 1998). For example, instituting a set of deterrence rules may limit both the frequency and the degree of plagiarism. Deterrence factors such as perceived certainty of being reported and perceived severity of penalties have been found to be negatively associated with academic dishonesty (McCabe et al., 2002; McCabe, 1993, 1997). In addition, more consistent and transparent honor codes may be considered as a supplemental tool. Universities where students pledge to report self- as well as peer misconduct have lower levels of student cheating than institutions that lack such codes (McCabe, 1993, 1997). Following a similar procedure, the Academy may ask its members, and particularly its new members, to sign a code of honor that would be filed electronically, similar to the procedures used with copyright releases. Further, academic journals may specifically ask authors to resign an honor code upon submission of individual manuscripts, similar to what we do for intellectual property rights.

Electronic Evaluation

Another possible tool to limit severe cases of plagiarism would be to put the onus of responsibility on the author(s). Conference chairs and editors could require all participating scholars to submit

their paper to a text evaluation system before submission—a proof of “clearance” would be a required element of the submission process. In this way, the author(s) would have to confront and personally evaluate their own contributions (and possible deviance) before moving forward with either peer presentation or publication. They might be provided with a clearance certificate from the electronic clearing house enabling further processing by either editors or conference chairs.

The Academy might sponsor a certification service, allowing authors to submit their papers as having passed through an evaluation service, much as we expect of our students. While some may consider such a certification system as yet another piece of onerous bureaucracy slowing down the research process, punishing the ethical as well as the unethical, our own experience with detection software showed that the process was rather quick and painless, taking less than 10 minutes per document. Many universities subscribe to plagiarism detection software and require students to submit their own work through these systems; they are frequently available for faculty use. Our position is that scholars should not object to certifying their own work—particularly when they may not be aware of the specific activities of their collaborators. Alternatively, providing scholars an opportunity to voluntarily certify may provide important information to editors and reviewers without necessitating unreasonable bureaucracy when, for example, single author papers are submitted, or the scholar believes he or she is beyond reproach.

Public Forums

Another way to limit plagiarism in academic research is to establish public forums either at the Academy or at some other research portal where victim authors can share their experiences of plagiarism. This forum would be an avenue to bring forward the plagiarists where they can be held personally accountable for their actions. Additionally, the Academy may want to follow the footsteps of other scientific journals, such as *Journal 4OR*, that occasionally publishes the incidents of plagiarism.

Call for Replication Studies

Our final recommendation is for the AOM to publish a journal dedicated to publishing research that either replicates or extends existing research (Hubbard & Vetter, 1996). The finding that 13.62% of papers presented at the Academy had an average

of 1,052 words plagiarized is not indicative of “sloppy” scholarship, but rather of an ethical and professional challenge for the AOM. It raises serious concerns about the extent to which this behavior exists in other aspects of scholarship: accuracy of data, methods, informed consent, and so forth. One way to solve this issue is to encourage study replication and extension in management research, something quite normative in the sciences. Only through replication can we identify other possible ethical or professional lapses of quality.

Enhancing the Prestige of AOM Attendance and Participation

Not every scholar is capable of producing the kind of quality necessary for publication or even presentation at a top-tier academic venue. To some extent, this has been recognized with the growth of the “Professional Development Workshop” (PDW) process, which is designed to be more experimental, as well as more forgiving and inclusive. These efforts need to be encouraged. However, not all universities acknowledge PDWs as a bona fide conference activity; some insist on a full-length scholarly paper in order to subsidize or sponsor attendance. This perceptual ranking of papers versus panels may be even more acute in universities on the periphery, where the organizational activities of the Academy of Management are less familiar. One possible solution would be for the Academy to develop professional certification credits at annual conferences, similar to what physicians receive as continuing medical education credits (CME). These might eventually encourage even peripheral universities to sponsor faculty that may have difficulty successfully submitting their work to AOM conferences.

In conclusion, we strongly believe this study shows the need to identify and verify the originality of scholarship and should be an increasingly important responsibility of the Academy of Management. It is our hope that this study leads to the development and implementation of specific screening systems, as well as more repetitive and transparent ethical guidelines, in order to enhance the scholarship standards represented by the Academy of Management.

Strengths and Limitations of the Research

Academic researchers have been advocating the need for sound ethical structures to monitor cases of academic fraud and misconduct for the past 2 decades (Schminke, 2009; Von Glinow & Novelli, 1982). To our knowledge, this study is the first em-

pirical attempt to examine the issue of plagiarism in academic research and explore some of its predictors. In our analysis, we found numerous examples of "cut and paste" without attribution; our reported average of 13.62% of content represents only the very worst offenders. To keep this in perspective, the 1,052 word average of this group would equal approximately four double-spaced pages of plagiarized text. However, since the results of the study are based on papers presented in a single division of the Academy, we ask our readers to exercise caution when generalizing these results to other divisions or journals. We should note that the papers we analyzed were chosen as the best work, as only 37% of the papers submitted at the Academy are accepted for presentation, lending further credibility (and alarm) to our findings. Future research should explore other conference avenues as well as research portals to examine the prevalence of academic plagiarism. We speculate that journal papers will have a lower rate of plagiarism because of relatively harsher penalties (e.g., being banned from publishing in the journal, damage to personal reputation, etc.) associated with plagiarized submission to a journal rather than a conference. Another strength of our study is our use of plagiarism detection software, Turnitin, to detect cases of academic plagiarism. In addition, we also set a very high standard regarding plagiarism. We only identified papers with at least one full verbatim uncited paragraph. Thus, the use of Turnitin combined with our rigorous inclusion approach excluded the potential for rater biases. Finally, our study is the first to capitalize on the voluntary posting of a significant number of papers presented at the Academy's annual conference, a new procedure that was inaugurated in 2009.

The study has some limitations that deserve comment. First, due to the nature of the data, we were only able to analyze a few individual predictors of plagiarism behaviors. Scholars might plagiarize for a variety of individual as well as situational reasons, such as individual perceptions of ethical versus unethical behavior, perceived pressure to publish, and so forth. Universities that apply arbitrary standards for promotion (e.g., only publications in high-impact journals, requirements to publish in North American journals, etc.) should be aware that this form of coercion has consequences that need to be carefully monitored. Plagiarism is only one possible consequence of these pressures; data manipulation—and even fabrication—as well as corruption are other possible outcomes that we were unable to examine here. Examining the relationships between aca-

demical constraints, productivity, creativity, and ethical boundaries requires further research and study. Second, while a conference provides a theoretically relevant context for our research, a potential limitation is that compared to journals, conferences have weaker control mechanisms to monitor unethical behavior. Thus, the percentage of plagiarism reported here might be somewhat inflated. Finally, since our sample was drawn from a single conference, we do not know whether the patterns we found are applicable to other conferences. Issues such as these warrant further exploration.

CONCLUSIONS

The Academy of Management has a responsibility to ensure that ethical standards are maintained throughout the organization, including conference papers and the journal publication process. Mark Frankel, director of the Scientific Freedom, Responsibility, and Law program at the American Association for the Advancement of Science has been quoted as follows: "Most scholarly societies, [he points out], define their central mission as defending the public interest. If you want to claim that position, then it seems incumbent on the society to make clear what the ethical standards of the discipline are" (Glenn, 2004).

Our findings here should serve as an alarm to our colleagues across the Academy. Editors of journals, division and program chairs, tenure committees, and those involved in doctoral training should be particularly interested, concerned, and challenged by these findings. Institutional norms that many of us take for granted are clearly and brazenly being disregarded. Failing to act as a profession immediately and assertively in the face of these recurrent ethical transgressions threatens the very essence of our community of knowledge. Our research shows that it is incumbent on the Academy of Management to implement more rigorous standards in order to reduce plagiarism and to ensure high-quality and original scholarship.

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