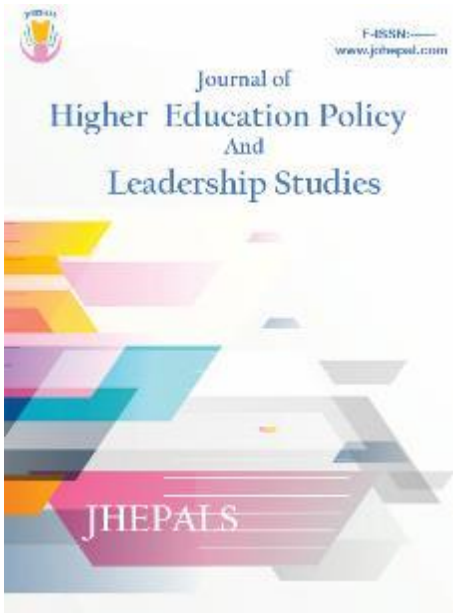
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Academic Misconduct in Higher Education: A Comprehensive Review

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Abstract

Academic ethics and integrity are necessary elements of quality education. The need for academic integrity education on campuses has been well documented (Bertram Gallant, 2008, 2020; Bertram Gallant & Drinan, 2008; Liebler, 2009; McCabe, Butterfield, & Trevino, 2004). Academic integrity is a cornerstone of the learning process. Higher education institutions have the opportunity to promote academic integrity and prevent academic misconduct on campus by providing clear guidelines, equitable resolutions, and student and faculty engagement. A contextual review examined the components of academic integrity education from the perspectives of faculty and students to explore the complexity of academic integrity. In all, a review of 39 articles elucidate characteristics of students exhibiting academically dishonest behaviours, best practices in prevention, and current challenges to preventing academic misconduct and promote academic integrity. The resulting conceptualization reveals a change in academic integrity education over time, including policy revisions and the role of stakeholders. Recommendations for higher education leaders include increased student engagement, increased opportunities for part-time faculty to share and disseminate ideas, demonstrated student learning, and a clear policy and shared mission. This study adds to the body of knowledge of academic integrity research, namely the promotion of academic integrity and prevention of academic misconduct.

Keywords: Academic integrity; Academic honesty; Plagiarism; Cheating

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Introduction

Academic dishonesty is damaging to institutional reputation, the quality and legitimacy of academic programs, and to the moral development of students. Postsecondary education represents an opportunity for students to define what it means to be honest before formally entering their career of choice. Dishonest students are more likely to become dishonest employees (Singh & Bennington, 2012).

Academic dishonesty is usually resolved on campuses primarily as a misconduct issue, and colleges and universities have policies stating they resolve violations of these behaviours through a formal process (Bertram Gallant & Drinan, 2008). Nevertheless, the reality is that many instances of academic misconduct go unaddressed or unreported, and these behaviours validate the erroneous perception that this behaviour is acceptable (Bertram Gallant, 2008). These behaviours are evident worldwide and in large numbers.

Higher education leaders must consider the scholarship on academic integrity in order to make effective changes to policy and prevention. Research on academic integrity education offers interventions that can assist administrators in cultivating communities that discourage academic misconduct and promote integrity. The most successful positions on academic integrity combine the use of student development, cultural awareness, technological aptitude, and social persuasion (Kibler, 1993; Volpe, Davidson & Bell, 2008). Institutional actions in dealing with academic dishonesty vary widely. The literature on programming for academic honour is vast, covering a variety of programs housed in various academic and student affairs departments (Bertram Gallant, 2008).

To centre discussion around this issue, this literature review conceptualizes academic misconduct and dishonesty for faculty, students, and staff. Often the terms *academic misconduct, academic dishonesty*, and *academic cheating* are sometimes interchangeable in academic integrity research, and as such was used to gather literature. Literature in academic integrity relies on the interpretation of the researcher; as a result, the assessment of academic honesty requires a variety of definitions and interpretations, historical, literal, and symbolic. To address this problem, the researcher conducted a literature review using the method described by Cooper (1988) for synthesizing literature. The purpose of this narrative procedure was to (a) identify a problem, (b) collect data, (c) evaluate the appropriateness of the data, (d) analyze and interpret relevant data, and (e) organize and present the results. This literature offers a broad overview of academic integrity from multiple perspectives and is well suited for the topic of academic integrity.

Research on academic cheating predates research on academic misconduct and academic integrity. Some researchers specifically use the term *cheating* rather than academic misconduct, leaving participants to define the behaviour according to their own moral and ethical guidelines (Morris, 2012). Articles were collected using *Google Scholar*, the *International Center for Academic Integrity Reader*, and *ProQuest*. Articles were included based on the following categories predominant summary characteristics in 30 years of research developed and refined by Don McCabe to avoid bias. In all, 39 articles are included. These articles broadly address categories including history, contextual and institutional factors, student characteristics, policy development and implementation, enforcement and responsibility, and contemporary challenges to academic integrity education.

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History

Historically, academic dishonesty represented a form of rebellion. In one of the earliest published research studies on the topic of academic misconduct, Drake (1941) found that student cheating was a reaction to challenging coursework and extreme competitiveness and a way for students to express displeasure and ambivalence. In his study, 30 of 126 students attending a women's college cheated at least once, by altering answers on an exam. Drake found that of all students, those who earned an A did not participate in these behaviours. Drake contended that for as long as the perceived adversarial nature of the student-teacher relationship existed, cheating would be impossible to eliminate.

Bowers' (1964) *Academic Dishonesty and its Effect in College* offered a new line of inquiry with a national study of 99 schools, including over 5,000 students. This study used the term *cheating* to define a series of academically dishonest behaviours. The author found that 66% of students admitted to dishonest behaviours, meaning that academic dishonesty had become a norm within the surveyed population. This study provided an apparent disconnect between how students deal with academic stress when compared to faculty expectations. Bowers also found that students in career-focused fields were more likely to behave dishonestly than in liberal arts disciplines. His research is significant in providing both historical contexts for academic misconduct data, but also the linkage to career and technical education, often found in the community college setting, and a higher propensity for academic misconduct by students in those fields.

Barnett and Dalton (1981) conducted a study of faculty and staff that highlighted differences in what faculty and students consider cheating behaviours. Here, as with the Bowers' (1964) study, the term *cheating* described a spectrum of academically dishonest behaviours. This study showed that only 45% of students identified copying unattributed sentences to a paper as dishonest, compared to 73% of faculty. In another example, 63% of students identified getting the answers to an exam as cheating, while 78% of faculty felt this way. Issues on collaboration were not in alignment. Barnett and Dalton (1981) found that less than half of the students surveyed considered unauthorized collaboration a violation of academic integrity.

These issues have not changed with the times. Using a definition of *cheating* behaviours that includes a variety of academically dishonest behaviours, McCabe et al. (2012) found a high rate of academic misconduct. In their overview of 20 years of research on student academic misconduct, the researchers found that 82% of students admitted to cheating behaviours, or watching other students engage in cheating behaviours. In terms of the student perspective, the researchers found that 38% of students felt unauthorized collaboration on a take-home exam was moderate to severe cheating, while 85% of faculty felt this way. This finding illuminates the differences between instructor expectations and student understanding. A longitudinal review of academic dishonesty in the work of Bowers (1964), McCabe and Trevino (1997, 2002), and McCabe et al. (2012) suggest that not only do many students engage in academic misconduct, but over 50% of all students in each of these five studies found such behaviours to be acceptable. These studies provide a framework for the bulk of research on academic integrity today, defining 13 behaviours with the most prevalent being cheating, unauthorized collaboration, and plagiarism.

The most researched type of academic misconduct is *plagiarism*, the unattributed use of a source in a situation in which there is a legitimate expectation of authorship (International Centre

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for Academic Integrity, 2020). The concept of plagiarism emerged worldwide with the advent of authorship, leading to ideas of copyright and intellectual property (Pennycook, 1996). Plagiarism occurs in a variety of ways, including copying, paraphrasing, incorrect citations, and passing off ideas as one's own without proper attribution (Handa, 2008; Wicker, 2007). These actions may occur with or without intent (Handa, 2008); as a result, academic integrity policies differ in handling plagiarism based on perceived intent (International Centre for Academic Integrity, 2020).

Academic integrity policies often differentiate between forgery and plagiarism. The definition of *forgery*, theft, or "reproduction" while plagiarism takes reproduction a step further, robbing the original author of the creative process and synthesis of ideas without attribution (Pennycook, 1996). Pennycook (1996) suggested that the process of academic writing could blur the lines of appropriate attribution, quickly lending itself to plagiarism if authors immerse themselves in work. Pennycook (2007) later arrived at a similar conclusion in a global context, noting that for international students, the process of learning language may include borrowing words to express ideas, blurring the lines of appropriate attribution, and creating difficulties in composition. Those who have difficulties with writing look at the technical aspects of the writing rather than the specific ideas. The resulting process of paraphrasing, cutting, and pasting can quickly turn into plagiarism. In this instance, cultural differences in higher education affect academic integrity education.

Another frequent behaviour is *unauthorized collaboration*, the inclusion of peer ideas, answers, and knowledge of a mutual project that, when combined, produce a greater impact than the individual student could produce on their own (Sutherland-Smith, 2013). In her qualitative study, Sutherland-Smith identified the perspectives of students when considering the act of unauthorized collaboration. In doing so, the researcher found that students consider unauthorized collaboration to be only a minor offence and that students were unclear on what appropriate collaboration meant. The author proposed clear policy guidelines for collaborative behaviour. In practice, transparency should include the use of appropriate technological tools such as Google docs or collaboration detection software in order to demonstrate collaboration. *Contract cheating*, the process of procuring the services of others to complete elements of coursework, is growing in popularity and sophistication. This practice is also referred to as ghostwriting. Initially defined by in a study by Lancaster and Clarke (2006), the concept aligns with both unauthorized collaboration and forgery, with the act of remuneration adding the element of intent to the behaviour.

Overall, *academic cheating*, defined as "the misrepresentation of academic mastery which includes sharing another persons work, purchasing a term paper or test questions in advance, or paying another to do the work for you" (International Centre for Academic Integrity, 2020). This definition is not inclusive of all types of academic misconduct. Past and current research contends that academic cheating is prevalent and on the rise.

Prevalence

Student academic misconduct is prevalent on college campuses. Whitley's (1998) meta-analysis reviewed the findings of 19 studies for academic misconduct. While this study uses the term *cheating*, it is more easily understood within the larger umbrella of academic misconduct. This study compiles 36 studies related to exam misconduct, 12 for academic misconduct on homework, nine for plagiarism, and 40 estimates from McCabe's longitudinal survey examples between 1970 and 1996. In doing so, Whitley found a mean of 70.4% of students who admitted to dishonest behaviours, with a range of findings as high as 95% and as low as 4%. Similarly, exam cheating ranged from 4%

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to 82% of students, with a mean of 43.1%; cheating on homework from 3% to 83%, with a mean of 40.9%; and plagiarism from 3% to 98% of students, with a mean of 47%. In 2005, McCabe's study of over 16,000 students found a range of academically dishonest behaviours from 47% to 71%. Self-reported cheating is prevalent and generally consistent over the past 50 years (Bertram Gallant, 2008, 2020; McCabe et al., 2012).

In perhaps historically the most prolific work on academic integrity, Bowers (1964) surveyed over 5,000 students at 99 institutions to understand academic misconduct. Again, in this study, the term cheating is used as an umbrella term more encompassing modern definitions of academic misconduct In this study, he found that over 75% of students admitted to one of 13 cheating behaviours. Of these, 39% admitting to cheating on tests, and 65% admitted to plagiarism. Thirty years later, McCabe, Butterfield, and Trevino (2003) studied some of the same institutions, reaching 6,000 students at 33 small to medium four-year institutions. The researchers found students more willing to self-report dishonest behaviours, and found a notable increase in unauthorized collaboration; their results found 66% of all students engaged in cheating behaviour, with 64% engaging in test cheating and 65% engaging in plagiarism. This research set the framework for popular literature on academic misconduct, academic integrity, and integrity education (Bertram Gallant, 2008). A closer look at these data explores who cheats and why.

The Academically Dishonest Student

It is difficult to describe a demographic of academically dishonest students; research has stated that anywhere from 40% (McCabe, 2005b) to 70% (International Center for Academic Integrity, 2020) of students admitted to participating in or knowing about academically dishonest behaviours on campus. Whitley's (1998) meta-analysis presented a complex profile of those who engage in cheating behaviours. This study defines cheating in a manner consistent with the broader definition of *academic dishonesty*. The analysis included those with moderate expectations of success, individuals who have cheated in the past, those with poor study skills, students who party more frequently, those who hold favourable attitudes toward cheating, those who perceive cheating as an appropriate social norm, students who see themselves as less honest, and those who anticipate greater rewards for success. A look at demographic variables provides some context.

Studies on academically dishonest behaviours report mixed results when considering gender as a factor. Whitley (1998) found that although males were more likely to cheat than females, this finding is self-reported; therefore, while males may be more likely to self-report these behaviours, which is not indicative of being more likely to engage in academically dishonest behaviour. Crown and Spiller (1998) reviewed 18 studies on gender, noting that of these, ten studies reported no significant findings related to gender, and six studies found men were more likely to engage in cheating behaviours. Again, Crown and Spiller use a broad definition of *cheating*, more aligned with that of *academic dishonesty* within the meta-analysis. The remaining two studies reviewed by Crown and Spiller (1998) suggested that females are more likely to engage in academic dishonesty than males.

Another example is a 1975 study by Barnes, which focused on opportunities that junior and senior labour economics students had to cheat on an exam. In this instance, students more likely to cheat were male, in a required course, nearing graduation, and non-major students. Bowers (1964) also found that male students committed 54% of academically dishonest. Bertram Gallant, Binkin, and Donohue (2015) argued that the influx of women in male-dominated majors might change

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findings as they relate to academic dishonesty and gender. Progress in gender imbalance is important to note because research in traditional gender dominated fields may yield higher averages of academic misconduct simply based on the lack of another gender. In a study of academic misconduct violation risk factors, Bertram Gallant et al. (2015) used self and other reported violation data to find that male students were more likely to be at risk for academic misconduct.

As with gender, the literature addressing age also presents a complex profile of academic dishonesty. Newstead and Franklyn Stokes (1996) studied 121 university students, finding that younger students were more likely to engage in behaviour defined as cheating. In a faculty and student cheating survey, Smith, Nolan, and Dai (1998) found that traditionally aged students were more likely to admit to cheating behaviours than other students, specifically in submitting papers to more than one class and looking at someone elses exam. The researchers suggested that changes in motivation and moral and ethical development might explain this finding. There have been significant findings that point to the first two years of college as when academic misconduct most often occurs (McCabe, 2005b; Whitley, 1998). Conversely, Bertram Gallant et al. (2015) contended that neither age nor year in school is predictive of academic misconduct, but that lower levels of maturity have a greater impact.

Other student characteristics are also important when considering academic misconduct prevention and integrity promotion. Several studies note that students with lower GPA's are more likely to commit academic dishonesty than those with higher GPA's (McCabe & Pavela 2000; McCabe & Trevino, 1997). Of academic majors, research suggests business and pharmacy majors are more likely to engage in academic misconduct, while majors such as law are less likely to do so (Baird, 1980; McCabe, 2005b). Bertram Gallant, Van Den Einde, Ouellette, and Lee (2014) also found that computer science, engineering, and economics students were more likely to have formal violations of academic misconduct in her study, a single institution analysis. Academic integrity impacts on every field, including those directly linked to honesty, harm reduction, and moral behaviour as in allied health and social science fields (McCabe et al., 2012). Health and human service fields, in particular, present a unique challenge when considering the impact academic dishonesty can have on health and safety (Fontana, 2009). In a qualitative study, Fontana described the personal, professional, and patient risks that make academic honesty extremely important. These included the risk to patients, a duty of care, and the dual role of nurse educators as practitioners and educators.

While demographic identity provides some information on risk factors for cheating behaviour, it is not definitive. Overall, building off the work of Bowers (1964), there have been several studies (McCabe & Trevino, 1997; McCabe et al. (2012) identifying contextual factors as more influential than demographic factors. Contextual factors related to the environment created by the institution, organization, or peer group that affects student behaviours. For example, Foster (2016) uses grade data from over 230 institutions to identify grade inflation over the past 30 years. The author suggests that artificial grade inflation is a threat to academic integrity. Specifically, environmental trends of grade inflation create unreasonable expectations for students, and pressure for faculty to give credit that is unearned for coursework. Kezar and Bernstein (2016) suggest that environmental factors related to the commercialization or more capitalist methods of delivering higher education also play a role in academic misconduct. Through a literature review, the researchers identify increases in contingent faculty, corporate Sponsorship, and commercialization of college admissions practices and behaviours that communicate ideals at odds with academic integrity. McCabe and Trevino (1997) studied nine colleges and universities and found that contextual influences, including

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fraternity and sorority membership, peer behaviour, and peer disapproval, had significant impacts on academic honesty.

Academic misconduct affects students, regardless of age, gender, or GPA. While individuals and contextual influences play a significant role, understanding why students choose to cheat provides even greater guidance when considering promoting academic integrity and preventing academic misconduct.

Reasons for Student Academic Misconduct

There are many reasons why students cheat (Perry, 2010). In early work on academic integrity, Drake (1941) argued that competitiveness negatively affected student honesty. He suggested an overhaul of the grading system, allowing students who did not want to learn the opportunity to receive a letter grade without participating in learning, making space for those committed to an authentic process of learning. McCabe et al., (2012) found that high performing students are more likely to succumb to the pressure to cheat in an attempt to earn higher grades. Murdock and Anderman (2006) synthesized the literature on academic dishonesty, framed by questions on purpose, ability, and risk. The researchers identified these students as those who can justify academic misconduct through negative perceptions of instruction and placing blame on others. Grade issues and social standing remain important variables affecting academic honour. Perceived consequences, faculty response, and social ramifications ranked at least as high as individual factors such as grade point average, demographic status, and type of institution (McCabe et al., 2012; McCabe, 2016). As with individual and contextual factors, these studies included cheating behaviours, using a broad definition of the term including sharing information, omitting citations, cutting and pasting, recycling papers for assignments, and gaining access to answer keys or previous copies of tests (McCabe et al., 2001b).

Peer influence also has a significant impact on why students choose to be academically dishonest. Some studies indicate that policies are only as good as the students who aid in enforcing them. Academic misconduct is more likely to increase when students perceive that others are involved in academic dishonesty (McCabe, 2016). For example, in a survey assessing student behaviour at a small liberal arts university, researchers found that "more than three-quarters of the students would probably not report an incident of cheating if they witnessed it and more than 80% would not report a close friend" (Papp & Wertz, 2009, p. 4). Stone et al. (2009) argued that peer behaviour contributed to cognitive dissonance. This type of influence has both positive and negative influences. From a positive perspective, the influence of honour codes, as presented in McCabe's longitudinal studies (McCabe, 2016; McCabe & Trevino, 1993; McCabe et al., 2003, 2012), here, the research identifies the importance of student promotion of academic honour in order to be successful.

Some literature indicates that international students are more likely to commit plagiarism when compared to US students. Park (2003) found that these students both self-report academic dishonesty at higher rates and the perception that other students engage in academic dishonesty is more likely for these students. Bertram Gallant et al. (2015) described the challenges international students may face with academic integrity, noting that the "international student population is particularly vulnerable because they may be unfamiliar with behavioural standards in Western educational institutions and given their previous educational experiences, may not share the same fear of punishment as our domestic students" (p. 226).

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Preventing Misconduct

Studies indicate a lack of understanding of academic misconduct by all students. A misconduct survey identifying the role of student behavioural perception suggested a misunderstanding between student understanding and university expectations (Bisping, Patron, & Roskelley, 2008). That study identified differences in student knowledge of plagiarism and the expectation of faculty members holding academic integrity in high regard (Bisping et al., 2008). Perhaps even more concerning is how students dismiss the severity of academically dishonest behaviours, suggesting that the behaviour is acceptable as teamwork and protecting others (Papp & Wertz, 2009) attribute to the lackadaisical attitude toward peer academic dishonesty. As students see members of the academic community benefit from participating in academic misconduct, they are learning that these actions have a benefit (McCabe & Trevino, 1993, 1997; McCabe et al., 2012). Oblinger (2003) suggested that students who commit academic misconduct would be less likely to report the behaviour of others.

Historical Underpinnings of Policy and Educational Development

While the numbers of students engaging in academic dishonesty may have remained high over time, the process by which institutions develop policies around academic integrity has shifted over time. As far back as 1833, McGuffey's readers were school textbooks, designed to promote morality and character for children, wherein the lessons described acts of dishonesty as immoral, and therefore, un-American (Traiger, 1995). While these books evolved to cover a variety of topics, and still exist as teaching tools today, honesty and morality were overarching lessons. These lessons evolved into policies on academic integrity, first emerging with academic honour codes. *Academic honour codes*, defined as a system of policies that prevent academic misconduct through carefully defined peer enforcement and integrity promotion requirements, emerged from this work. These codes emerged from "gentleman's agreements of morality" in education, most prevalent before the Civil War (Bertram Gallant, 2008). McCabe et al. (2012) outlined four core components of an honour code environment: a written pledge of academic honesty, student involvement in hearings to address academic misconduct, unproctored exams, and the requirement that all students report issues of academic dishonesty. McCabe et al. (2003) replicated the contextual influence of an honour code study and found the policies to have a statistically significant effect on academic dishonesty. The study also included students who were a part of a *modified honour code* environment, defined by McCabe and Pavela (2004), as honour codes with less stringent demands than the traditional honour code. A description of a modified honour code is broad but includes the absence of two honour code attributes such as a pledge, or student responsibility for reporting violations of academic integrity. In McCabe's study, students under modified honour codes were less likely to report academic misconduct.

One of the oldest honour codes began in 1842 at the University of Virginia in response to a murder (Rectors of the University of Virginia, 2020). The students pledged a commitment to both behavioural and academic honour, and this honour code remains in place today. Historically, institutions of higher education took on the role of parents, commonly known as the Latin *in loco parentis* (Thelin, 2011); in this realm, faculty were all-knowing "parents;" students, like "children," were to listen, and the codes codified this relationship.

The continued emergence of academic honour as an agreement between adults grew in significant numbers in the late 1960s to early 1970s (Kibler, 1993), due in large part to changes in the faculty/ student relationship. During this time, a shift in ideology from parental supervision to

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student autonomy took hold, validating the emergence of identity development literature (Kibler, 1993; Thelin, 2011). Colleges and universities changed, providing a framework of student development aimed at supporting students as emerging adults. This perspective changed the response to academic misconduct; what would have been a punitive response evolved to focus more on education and support (Kibler, 1993).

A rise of academic honour codes occurred in the mid-1980s until the early 2000s (McCabe, 1992). Student supports had grown to address our current era of increased diversity and technological shrewdness, including libraries, international student offices, student and academic affairs, and information technology (Bleeker, 2007). This increase has moved student services to the forefront, which made student development initiatives, such as academic integrity education, the purview of student affairs divisions (Bertram Gallant, 2020).

The Development and Response to Academic Integrity Policy

As a part of the student development shift, responsibility for academic integrity has shifted from faculty to the students (Bertram Gallant, 2008; 2020); students are responsible for knowing how to avoid academic misconduct with little to no instruction. As a result, most literature focuses on students, not faculty, actions (Garza Mitchell & Parnther, 2018). This research focus limits the understanding of faculty and institutional responsibility to uphold academic integrity in college. The focus on student responsibility also places a value judgment on student actions before evaluating educational initiatives (Bertram Gallant, 2020). It is crucial to consider the current management of academic integrity on campus.

The Management of Policy and Process

McCabe and Pavela used decades of research to create a model code of academic integrity for institutions to consider when designing an academic integrity policy. The base characteristics of a model code, as outlined by McCabe and Pavela (2004), create the framework for a modified honour code. Model codes hold students responsible for maintaining a culture of honour, particularly in the roles of reporting incidents. They also require the inclusion of student judicial board members when adjudicating cases using a university hearing panel. While many institutions have processes that include elements such as an academic integrity board, training, development, and engagement vary widely, dependent on the individuals and departments charged with the management of academic integrity.

Academic affairs or student affairs maintains the ownership of the academic integrity process and policy. The most challenging issue with these designations is that for many institutions, those who facilitate process procedures, such as senior administrators, are not experiencing the policies in practice, as are faculty and staff (Volpe et al., 2008). Many institutions limit the purview of faculty to integrity within the classroom, and limit the staff role, to maintaining records and explaining policy language (Volpe et al., 2008). Institutions generally fall into one of five categories: those with faculty managed academic integrity policies (Bertram Gallant, 2008; Park, 2003, 2004), student affairs managed policies (Bertram Gallant, 2020), honor code policies (McCabe, Butterfield, & Trevino, 2003), student-led policies, and third party policies (McCabe, 2005a). More often than not, a response to academic integrity will include an overlap or some combination of these policies.

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Preventing Misconduct

Although the management or administration of the policy may differ, faculty often own the policies and processes of academic integrity in many cases. These policies voted on through appointed board members, seek to define the issue of academic honour, creating a common language for discussion, syllabus and expectations, and to withstand scrutiny in the face of potential legal ramifications (Park, 2003). These practices must be overly broad, including all academic majors, type of assignments, and level of student understanding. While the benefits to central ownership of the policy are clear, there are risks involved in the interpretation of the policy (Park, 2003).

Faculty managed policies (Bertram Gallant, 2008; Park, 2003, 2004) are generally voted for by a faculty senate, designed to maintain the integrity and honour the faculty position espouses. Historically, this was the model created as research institutions became commonplace (Bertram Gallant, 2020). Faculty held the knowledge that students came to seek (Thelin, 2011). Ideas of deference to expertise and the apprenticeship model prevailed in the pursuit of knowledge. Students, often young, were treated like adolescents, with faculty and administrative response to academic misconduct being as that of a parent (Kibler, 1993). Social movements altered the landscape of higher education, creating the need for student development, educating students beyond punishment (Thelin, 2011). As faculty-run policies, faculty rely on peer-to-peer contact to both define issues of academic misconduct and to hold students responsible for said misconduct (Volpe et al., 2008). While peer feedback is commonplace in the professoriat the idea of defending academic choices is not clear-cut. The very idea of challenges to academic freedom by policy and formal academic integrity systems is problematic. Some systems require a faculty member to prove the methods they use in the classroom to teach academic integrity and prevent academic misconduct (Volpe et al., 2008). These often-legalistic hearings take time away from faculty life in order to prepare for investigations (Volpe et al., 2008). As a result, significant portions of faculty avoid participation in institution-wide academic integrity processes (Coren, 2011). The issues and time costs inherent in managing hearings and providing students supplemental education on academic misconduct are often the responsibility of student affairs professionals (Bertram Gallant, 2020).

Moral and ethical development emerge as best practice policies in addressing academic misconduct. Studies have argued that academic integrity professionals charged with providing that type of education educate outside of the classroom, namely in student affairs settings (Kibler, 1993; Sandeen, 2004; Bertram Gallant, 2020). Kibler's 1993 national study of student affairs administrators managing academic integrity programs suggested that education around value building, goal setting, and exploring moral and ethical issues are all examples of how student affairs administrators support institutional goals of academic integrity. Bertram Gallant (2020) noted the growing importance of student affairs administrators as academic partners in the out of classroom experience. Kibler's line of research, coupled with the expansion of student services outside of the classroom, has led to a shift in handling academic misconduct. In addition to the developmental aspect of the work, the management of academic misconduct in student affairs is administrative. Student affairs administrators keep track of misconduct issues throughout a student's academic career, conducting follow up, and informing faculty on the limitations of further institutional actions (Bertram Gallant, 2020). These staff members are often the gatekeepers of the formal academic misconduct process, offering due process, access to records and appeals, and serving as an impartial resource for questions and concerns (Garza Mitchell & Parnther, 2018). In the absence of an academic integrity office, student affairs generalists usually provide training and development for student, faculty, and

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staff hearing panels. Where available, honour code offices exist in student affairs divisions (Bertram Gallant, 2020).

Research suggests that Honour Codes provide students with an opportunity to become moral leaders within their academic community. To this end, honour codes focus on the quality of moral behaviour, with the responsibility of reporting left to students. Exams are rarely proctored in this model, a decision based on a relationship of trust in the academic community. Students undertake a large portion of responsibility both in reporting violations of their peers and in serving on judicial boards for cases of academic dishonesty. McCabe and Pavela (2000) contended that the creation and sustainment of honour codes create a strong sense of community around academic honour. For this reason, it is easier to implement honour codes in smaller residential campus settings with traditional populations. These codes are often institutional culture shifts and require years of implementation and consistency to achieve transformative results.

The use of academic honour codes is reliant on student leadership. To this end, institutions have worked with students to promote integrity while preventing academic dishonesty, even in the absence of a formal honour code. Components of student-led policies often include the use of student leaders as peer educators, chairs of student conduct boards around academic integrity, student clubs and organizations, and student opportunities for professional development.

Sweeney, Imboden, and Hannah (2015) offered a review of moral and ethical student development in their work to link moral responsibility to student actions. The authors suggested that student leadership in promoting integrity and preventing academic dishonesty provides role-modeling opportunities, and offers a pathway to change. The authors highlighted the importance of moral aspiration, providing students and student leaders to measure honour and integrity, rather than the prevention of bad behaviour. Specifically, the research finds that initiations, recognition, and reflection help develop student-led systems. Buruss, Jones, Sackley, and Walker (2013) also argued that students take a lead role in preventing academic dishonesty. This study analyzed the response of 330 students at a four-year institution to determine the level of importance students placed on preventing academic misconduct. The results indicate that the fear of peer reporting was a more significant deterrent than clear policy and procedure, or the perception of a vigilant faculty. This study also suggested that peer influence might have a more significant impact than honour codes. Student-led policies are dependent on formal expectations that are easily taught and understood. Ease of use is a core component of success in reporting academic misconduct; as a result, technology offers additional options for academic misconduct prevention and academic integrity promotion, including the use of third party prevention and enforcement (Brown, 2018).

More recently, it has become fashionable to review academic integrity work through a third party. In addition to regular search engine investigation, institutions and faculty alike may choose to use online services such as *Turnitin.com*, *Grammarly*, *Ithenticate.com*, and *Plagchecker.com*. These companies maintain databases of scholarly work and report a likelihood of student plagiarism by assigning percentage points based on the number of identical phrases, organizational themes, and word choice. The programs also provide the user with links to the source material when available. Many institutions use these programs as the first line of enforcement, doing so in part because the software is objective and does not take into account personal relationships or intent, factors known to affect the handling of academic honesty issues. These companies have come under fire (Rivard, 2013; Turner, 2014) for two reasons. Opponents of the software argue that the software labels students as plagiarists before the faculty begin the grading process. Turnitin.com, in particular, saves copies of submitted papers, including them in its database. This practice has led to litigation

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regarding student copyright throughout the U.S. that is currently unresolved (Foster, 2002; Rivard, 2013). Other third-party products serve as educational tools to promote academic honesty.

Literature supporting these programs provides marketing tools for eager institutions (McCabe, 2005a; Vilic & Cini, 2006). Vendors in the field, such as *Integrityseminar.com* and *epigeum.com*, provide institutions with best-practice modeling solutions and sanctions as a supplement to university policies (McCabe, 2005a; Vilic & Cini, 2006). For example, students with one violation may need to complete several modules focused on plagiarism should an instance occur. Completion of the module serves as the educational outcome for the student necessary in order to return to positive academic standing.

Institutional and Faculty Responses to Academic Misconduct

When considering addressing academic dishonesty, research indicates that faculty members prefer to handle student issues independently, rather than going through administrative policies (Coren, 2011; McCabe & Pavela, 2004; Robinson-Zañartu et al., 2005; Roig, 2001). In a study of 2,500 faculty members, McCabe and Pavela (2004) found that less than two-thirds of faculty members include statements of academic integrity in their syllabus. Keith-Spiegel, Tabachnick, Whitley, and Washburn (1998) contended that faculty do not pursue academic integrity violations due to time constraints and insufficient evidence. Coren (2011) studied faculty who choose to ignore violations of academic integrity and found that 40.3% of faculty admitted to ignoring academic dishonesty at least once. Reasons for ignoring academic dishonesty included a perceived lack of time or evidence. According to a study of 270 psychology faculty by Robinson-Zañartu et al. (2005), only 31% would choose a formal conduct process to handle a clear-cut case of plagiarism.

Judgments on intent, defining plagiarism, and perceived consequences seemed to affect the decision to pursue a formal conduct process. Despite the ability of researchers to ascertain what a clear cut case of plagiarism might be, there is a perception that less significant cases might receive sanctions that were too severe resulted in faculty refusing to bring forward cases at all (McCabe & Pavela, 2004; Robinson-Zañartu et al., 2005; Singh & Bennington, 2012). One example of this disconnect is in defining dishonest behaviour. Behrendt et al. (2020) found that faculty responses to academic misconduct are varied and dependent on individual faculty member discretion. The inability to find equity in sanctioning is also a factor in faculty refusal to participate in a formal, documented process (Behrendt et al., 2010). In this instructor study, Behrendt et al. found that instructors agreed that failing to attribute sources was plagiarism; however, instructors disagreed on whether or not the recycling of papers was academically dishonest. In addressing these issues, instructors were also disparate in choosing to hold students responsible for academic misconduct. In short, faculty often value academic freedom in decision making more than they value a consistent approach to addressing issues of academic integrity.

Faculty who do address issues do so in a variety of ways, including one-on-one conversations with students, grade changes, an opportunity for resubmittal, and the formal code of conduct process (McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield, 2012). These responses are mostly personal, dependent on individual faculty member's definitions of plagiarism, assumptions of intent, reaction to confrontation (perceived or actual), and individual ideas of justice (Singh & Bennington, 2012).

Bretag (2016) summarized the complexity of academic integrity. Her overview identified the differences between discipline-based academic integrity perspectives, given the full range of priorities and skillsets needed in academic departments. Understanding common strategies between

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these competing ideals provide a starting place for understanding responses to prevent academic misconduct and promoting academic integrity. Ritter (1993) described five strategies in addressing academic misconduct: prevention, detection, investigation, confrontation, and outcomes. Serviss (2016) used literature on academic integrity to make the case that faculty development is necessary to promote academic integrity, namely when dealing with issues of plagiarism. Serviss (2016) synthesized the literature into three categories, a conceptualization of academic misconduct, best practices to prevent academic misconduct, and a holistic approach to address academic misconduct. Serviss (2016) found that a holistic approach, combining curriculum design, research-driven data, and student engagement is the most favourable strategy for faculty in addressing student academic misconduct.

Studies focused on preventing and limiting academic dishonesty indicate that students, faculty, and institutions are responsible for efforts to prevent academic dishonesty. Researchers have suggested that an institutional focus on moral and ethical development would have a more significant impact on student's decision-making than punitive measures (Kibler, 1993; Tittle & Rowe, 1974). Kibler (1993) surveyed senior academic and student affairs officers to gain perspective on the extent of student development as a preventative strategy in academic misconduct. Kibler's work finds educational opportunities in academic misconduct prevention and academic integrity promotion. Hollinger and Lanza Kaduce (2009) identified prevention strategies such as rotating test questions, smaller courses, and using multiple proctors. This study of students in 27 different classes at a Southeastern university sought to compare the perceived effectiveness of countermeasures between students admitting to academic misconduct and those who did not. Here, peer influence provided the most significant opportunity to deter dishonest actions. Peer behaviour, institutional culture, and perceived consequence affect student and faculty response to academic integrity. While methods to prevent cheating and promote academic integrity can vary, a review of the literature on trends in the formal adjudication of academic misconduct can provide a framework for decision making around this topic.

Hamlin, Barczyk, Powell, and Frost (2013) conducted a study of ten universities to isolate and define formal actions to address academic misconduct on campus. This study described the administrative efforts in detail, ranking the predominance of methods. The authors found that websites are the leading method of sharing information on academic integrity policy. In order of frequency, the authors found student handbook literature, academic integrity hearing boards, honor pledges, faculty managed policies, and general administrative procedures, are additional ways the institutions handled academic misconduct. The use of educational websites had the lowest frequency in actions addressing academic dishonesty in the study. The predominant form of addressing academic misconduct on campus is punitive (Hamlin et al., 2013).

Sanctions holding students responsible for academic dishonesty violations come in a variety of forms. While most schools have some focus on education, the realities of time and resolution often prevail, leaving punitive responses as the most common way to address violations. Bertram Gallant (2008) identified how institutions resolve academic dishonesty issues, separating the resolutions into two categories, rule compliance, and academic integrity education.

Bertram Gallant (2020) defines punitive or rule- compliance measures as responses that demonstrate the severity of the violation through punishment. These resolutions include special notations on transcripts identifying academic dishonesty, formal notations on student records, failure in coursework or reduced grade, dismissal from the course, suspension, and expulsion. While written broadly, the ramifications for students vary in significant ways. For example, the effect of an

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academic integrity violation for a student dependent on a scholarship compared to those who are not. Likewise, an international student with residency determined by credit hours status may face the end of their academic career in the US, as the result of a course dismissal or expulsion. The idea of fairness in the face of increased globalization and access makes subjective fairness a challenging scale to use when considering punitive judgments. As a result, boards are often unduly harsh or light to compensate for factors they assume, but may not know teaching students academic honesty requires an educational component in handling cases.

Educational methods or academic integrity education also address academic misconduct. Latopolski & Bertram Gallant (2020) identify these as measures that focus on the learning and prevention of academic misconduct by providing opportunities for the student to understand what academic responsibilities are. These practices are often time-consuming and require a collaborative effort by many institutional stakeholders (Bertram Gallant, 2008, 2020; Morris, 2016; Volpe et al., 2008). Students receive coursework or curriculum which allows them to practice academically honest behaviours; there are assessments of understanding, the ability to see others role model behaviours of integrity, and opportunities for resolution both within the classroom and within the institution as a whole (Bertram Gallant, 2008). These responses require collaboration with academic and student affairs offices, the participation of other students, and program faculty. These practices require additional time from faculty who have already gone through the process of investigation. Time, morale, and equity are additional barriers to educational outcomes (Volpe et al., 2008).

Bertram Gallant (2008, 2015) has conducted focused research on educational opportunities for students that promote academic integrity on campus. Her work provides an alternative perspective to increasing punitive responses to academic dishonesty, suggesting that faculty role model integrity for students. For faculty, this includes citing sources, showing up prepared and on time, and focusing on five fundamental values: honesty, respect, responsibility, fairness, and trustworthiness. Bertram Gallant (2020) found that most colleges and universities have an office dedicated to integrity initiatives, and of those, the vast majority house this office in a division of student affairs of student services. Additional characteristics included specialized programming for international students, student engagement and leadership to meet the goals of the integrity office, campus-wide initiatives that are well-publicized and disseminated in a variety of formats, faculty education on academic integrity concerns, and an early introduction to issues of integrity, some as early as campus visit programs.

Some studies address integrity education through course mastery. In an Australian study focused on mastery, Curtis, et al. (2013) identified modules on academic integrity as a valuable tool in educating students and promoting a culture of honesty. In this study, students completing academic integrity modules reported a greater understanding of plagiarism and believed that plagiarism was a severe violation that those who did not complete the module. Owens and White (2013) compared outcomes for psychology students who had the benefit of an educational program versus those that did not. The researchers found that students who completed the mastery modules had significantly reduced amounts of reported academic misconduct. When considering the use of mastery modules in response to a growing technological environment, it is essential to understand the changing landscape of academic misconduct in online education. Contemporary issues focused predominately on remote education, however, they are not limited to the online environment; globalization demands the need for academic integrity education designed for international students and those students studying in environments not representative of their native languages or cultures.

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Contemporary Challenges for Academic Integrity Education

There are limited studies on academic integrity education related to culturally mindful approaches to academic integrity education. Heuser, Martindale, and Lazo (2016) described the increased internationalization of higher education and the challenges and opportunities as they relate to academic integrity. The authors noted increased globalization, creating more marketable students, increased opportunities for international research, and intercultural influences on curriculum as perceived benefits in the higher education sector (Heuser et al., 2016). Given these opportunities, understanding what opportunities exist for academic integrity education that crosses cultural differences is essential. Olshen's (2013) qualitative study on academic success identified some of the challenges for international students, and explicitly described issues such as faculty staff collaboration, shared messaging pressure to succeed, and intentional education as a needed intervention. Students in the study were able to articulate that academic misconduct could lead to dismissal, but did not have a consistent definition of what the act of plagiarism was (Olshen, 2013).

Academic integrity education for international students presents cultural challenges in the Western context that are important to address. There have been several studies that address the differences in student cultural perspectives. These studies are essential for several reasons, as access to higher education increases, globally, institutions have not only welcomed more international students but have built campuses in other countries, bringing together culture and expectations at an unprecedented speed. For example, Lupton, Chapman, and Weiss (2000) found differences in cheating, using a definition encompassing a wide range of academically dishonest behaviours of Polish and US business students. Findings note that in scenarios where students were to identify academic misconduct, 44% of Polish students identified behaviours like cheating, compared to 9% of US. students; likewise, 55% of US students in the sample reported cheating themselves, while 85% of Polish students did the same. Notable findings included differences in what students considered cheating. In this study, US students did not find the act of distributing previous exams as cheating, while Polish students did (Lupton et al., 2000). However, the majority of Polish students in the study did not feel it was "bad" to cheat on an exam. Polish students believed it was the expectation of the faculty member to prevent students from cheating, while US students reported a belief that it was up to the students themselves to prevent cheating behaviours (Lupton et al., 2000). Chapman and Lupton (2004) continued this line of inquiry, next looking at differences between US undergraduate business students and students from Hong Kong. In this study, and using the same broad definition, Chapman and Lupton reported that in China, Hong Kong, Korea, and Taiwan was pervasive; in this study, one-third of students from Hong Kong reported cheating behaviours compared to 50% of US students. While this appears to suggest that students from Hong Kong are less likely to cheat, the researchers noted that this finding is only applicable to a student's wiliness to self-report. Therefore, students from Hong Kong are less likely to consider certain behaviours cheating, and even less likely to self-report cheating behaviours themselves. Students from Hong Kong were more likely to believe that their peers were cheating on out-of-class assignments. In both sets of literature, the authors (Lupton & Chapman, 2004; Lupton et al., 2000) noted that differences in reported cheating behaviours do not signify less cheating; in some instances, it may mean more. The most important take away is that there are apparent cultural differences around what academic misconduct is, who is responsible for the prevention of the behaviour, and understanding what academic misconduct is.

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Preventing Misconduct

In other research, McCabe, Feghali, and Abdallah (2008) conceptualized factors affecting academic honesty in Middle Eastern students, using US based research as a framework. Their study, which compared three institutions in Lebanon to US institutions, found that Lebanese students self-reported higher levels of cheating behaviours and lower levels of importance placed on consequences. The authors suggested that factors of peer influence, defined as "coordination effect," coupled with a collective society, might hold higher weight in decision making than perceived punishment. In other words, if the environment is one accepting of academic dishonesty, academic misconduct behaviours become normal. This study highlighted other relevant factors, including culture (individual vs. collective), and the educational system.

These four studies provide a few examples of how an ethical culture affects the perception of what it means to be academically honest. Understanding the cultural components of teaching academic integrity education provides resources to all students and can serve as a tool for faculty and students navigating what academic integrity means on campus. In addition to methods pertinent to a changing global student population, an increase in online course taking and technology warrants a closer look at academic integrity in the online environment. Opportunities for education and prevention of academic misconduct in the online environment are significant. Over 6.7 million students or 32% of students in post-secondary education have enrolled in online courses since 2012, and the number continues to climb (Sheehy, 2013).

With institutions becoming increasingly friendly to asynchronous coursework, the potential for students to obtain course credit or even an entire degree without face-to-face interaction is increasing (Trenholm, 2006); 2.6 million students enrolled in fully online programs in 2014 (NCES, 2016). Research suggests limited differences in quality between courses delivered online and those facilitated face-to-face. There are several factors to consider in the online environment. First, current research shows an increased workload for faculty developing course content online. Related literature acknowledges the need for meaningful connections between students and faculty in creating communities of academic honesty. The amount of resources provided to faculty to create relationships with trust and integrity in mind is a concern. Trenholm (2006) noted that while instructional designers find reward in efforts to modernize course content to include new technologies, "in this competitive environment, administrators, backed by many working in instructional design appear in no rush to examine issues of quality assurance and academic integrity" (p. 287). Online education has been the predominant response to continuing education during the COVID-19 pandemic. As a result, it has become increasingly crucial to maintain systems that support the facilitation of quality education and the promotion of academic integrity in the online environment.

It is necessary to engage students in education around academic integrity in ways that are both unique to the online environment and in ways that echo on-campus initiatives. The majority of college and university students will use online platforms for coursework or engage in the online proliferation of research. An up-to-date, technologically perceptive response is necessary to engage students in this way. Olt (2002) identified four strategies for online instructors to use as tools in preventing academic misconduct: identify limitations for the student instructor and include relationships; design effective, mastery-based online assessments; curriculum rotation; and providing students with a written academic dishonesty policy.

As campuses become both increasingly diverse and require technological updates, opportunities to provide academic integrity education transcend established norms. Colleges and

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universities have the opportunity to promote ethical principles in innovative ways in order to affect a culture of academic honour on campus.

Conclusion

A review of the literature provides information on what academic integrity is, who violates academic misconduct, why and how they are dishonest, policy norms, limitations, and prevention strategies to promote academic honesty. These studies find that the majority of students have violated academic integrity or witnessed academic dishonesty. Prevention includes academic integrity initiatives focused on education and community building. As campuses become both increasingly diverse and more technologically advanced, opportunities to provide academic integrity education transcend established norms. As organizations, colleges and universities have the opportunity to promote ethical principles in innovative ways in order to affect a culture of academic honour on campus.

The reviewed literature describes the evolution of academic integrity at the organizational level. It goes on to identify standard practices of adjudicating behaviour and opportunities for educating students and faculty on academic integrity. The historical frameworks demonstrate how academic integrity has evolved to be more inclusive of contemporary issues in academic integrity.

Throughout the literature, opportunities for academic integrity education are clear. The first are resources for those who maintain ownership of the process. In most universities, this means faculty members. Support for students in preventing academic dishonesty, creating an expectation of academic honour, and role-modelling expectation is necessary. A modern approach that includes explicit opportunities to engage in online dissemination of education and specific content suitable for the online environment is valuable. Lastly, a system of academic integrity education that honours the globalization of higher education worldwide, refinement of academic integrity education in the online environment, differences in cultural norms, and promoting standards of academic honour are necessary components of environments that value academic integrity.

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