# Asian Public Concern over the Ethics of Scientists: Predictors and Implications for Research Ethics

Alex Smolak, Ph.D.(c),<sup>1,2</sup> Prakash Gorroochurn, Ph.D.,<sup>3</sup> Adeeba Kamarulzaman, M.D.,<sup>4</sup> and Nazli Janjua, M.D.<sup>2,4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Columbia University School of Social Work, New York, New York, USA

<sup>2</sup>Asia Pacific Comprehensive Stroke Institute, Hilo, Hawaii, USA

<sup>3</sup>Mailman School of Public Health, Department of Biostatistics, Columbia University, New York, New York, USA

<sup>4</sup>Faculty of Medicine, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

The following two research questions were examined in this study: 1) What is the public's level of concern with ethics in science; and 2) Are religious affiliation, religious involvement, and education predictors of that concern in Asia? The sample includes 7,963 men and women between the ages of 20 and 59 from ten Asian countries. An overall low level of relative concern toward ethics in science was reported. Lower educational attainment was associated with lower odds of concern. Christian religious affiliation and moderate religious involvement were also associated with lower odds of concern. This article highlights the importance of more active research into social perspectives on ethics in science.

Keywords: ethics, research, Asia, religion, education

# INTRODUCTION

# **Ethics in Science**

Ethics in science applies to many aspects of research and can include data falsification and fabrication, plagiarism, data management, publication practices, collaboration, mentoring, human and animal subject protection, and social responsibility. Unethical conduct may impede scientific progress through misleading data and contributing to mistrust among scientists, which can hinder collaboration and cause harm to human and animal subjects. Thirty-three

Address correspondence to Alex Smolak, Ph.D.(c), Columbia University School of Social Work, 1255 Amsterdam Avenue, New York, NY 10027, USA. E-mail: as3234@ columbia.edu

percent of 3,247 early-career and mid-career scientists reported that they had engaged in questionable behavior in the previous three years (Martinson et al., 2005). A recent meta-analysis of scientific misconduct found that a pooled weighted average of 1.97% of researchers admitted to having fabricated, falsified, or modified data, and up to 33.7% admitted other questionable research practices (Fanelli, 2009). When speaking of other researchers' behavior, the respondents quoted even higher rates of misconduct among peers: 14.12% for falsification and up to 72% for other questionable research practices.

A growing body of literature has examined the predictors of unethical behavior among scientists. Scientists have reported that competition among them for funding, positions, and recognition can contribute to questionable research conduct (Anderson et al., 2007). Among doctoral-level health science students, more experience was associated with a decrease in ethical decisionmaking (Mumford et al., 2009). Kornfield (2012) examined 146 Office of Research Integrity reports and concluded that the acts of misconduct stemmed from individual psychological traits and circumstance.

# Predictors of Unethical Behavior

A more extensive body of work examining the predictors of unethical behavior can be found in business literature. The findings and associated theories are briefly reviewed in this article to provide a broader background for this research. Applied ethics is often conceptualized as either normative ethics, which focuses on guiding how individuals should behave, and empirical ethics, which is concerned with explaining and predicting individuals' actual behavior (Donaldson and Dunfee, 1994; Trevino and Weaver, 2001). This study is mainly concerned with empirical ethics. Rest's (1986) framework for ethical decision-making sets the foundation for most theoretical explorations in ethics and behavior within the business literature. The framework emphasizes the following four steps: 1) identifying the moral nature of an issue, 2) making a moral judgment, 3) establishing moral intent, and 4) engaging in moral action. The effect of various factors on the steps of this framework have been explored, including gender (Fleischman and Valentine, 2003; Christie et al., 2003), education (Deshpande, 1997; Razzaque and Hwee, 2002), religion (Singhapakdi et al., 2000; Vitell, 2009; Lam et al., 2008; Kennedy and Lawton, 1996), age (Deshpande, 1997; Latif, 2000), and nationality (Cherry et al., 2003; Jackson, 2001). Furthermore, the ethical climate of organizations tends to influence moral awareness (VanSandt et al., 2006) and ethical behavior (Weber and Seger, 2002; Verbeke et al., 1996).

# **Theoretical Frame and Rationale**

This study was specifically guided by two frameworks from the health sciences. The theory of reasoned action (TRA), which states that people's

# 372 A. Smolak et al.

behavior is predicted by their attitude toward the behavior and how they think other people would view them if they exhibited the behavior (Ajzen, 1980; Fishbein and Ajzen, 1975). This theory allows for an examination of a scientist's behavior from a fairly unexplored perspective. As a complement to TRA, Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954, 1943) is also used to interpret the results.

The public's concern with the ethics of scientists is examined due to its possible implications for predicting the behavior of scientists. TRA is utilized in this research to guide this exploration and is categorized into three factors: 1) attitudes, 2) subjective norms, and 3) behavioral intention. It is the second factor that is most important to this research. Subjective norms address the influence of social environment on behavior. This influence is weighted by the importance the individual places on the opinions of others. It is this balance that affects behavior. Maslow's hierarchy of needs further helps to explain the results of this study. The hierarchy is often illustrated in the form of a pyramid consisting of five tiers. The base of the pyramid is basic physiological needs. The second tier is safety needs: security, order, and stability. The third tier is psychological needs. The fourth tier is success and status. The top of the pyramid is self-actualization; this is where ethics are considered. Once the needs in the lower tiers are addressed, the individual can address those in the higher tiers. If the needs in the lower tiers are not satisfactorily addressed, then those in the higher tiers are unlikely to be given attention.

The purpose of this study was to determine the Asian public's level of concern with ethics in science and the predictors of that concern, while adjusting for key demographic variables. Using the TRA and Maslow's hierarchy of needs, it was hypothesized that the level of concern with ethics in science would be relatively low and that more education and religious involvement would be associated with greater concern with ethics in science. An additional predictor, religious affiliation, was explored in order to assess if concern varied by affiliation. Findings will contribute to the systematic understanding of the public's concern toward ethics in sciences and associated predictors. The findings also have implications for further research into a possible connection between public concern and the behavior of scientists. Possible future interventions needing to be tested could focus on the public with the primary goal being to impact the behavior of scientists.

# **METHODS**

#### Design

This study is an analysis of the dataset, AsiaBarometer. The collection of this dataset was led by researchers at the University of Tokyo's Institute of Oriental Culture. AsiaBarometer was designed to capture the physical, psychological, and sociological dimensions of citizens in East, Southeast, South, and Central Asia. Participants were selected by using various forms of multistage, stratified, clustered, national probability sampling depending on the country. The mode of data collection was structured face-to-face interviews. All indentifying markers that allowed the data to be linked to the participants were removed, and therefore, this study is not considered to be human subjects research. The data were collected in 2003. This dataset was selected for this study because it covers matter of opinion that are essential to TRA and Maslow's hierarchy of needs, which is the theoretical frame for this analysis.

#### **Participants**

The sample consists of 8,086 participants. The gender breakdown of the participants was 3,907 (49.1%) men and 4,045 (50.9%) women. Participants were between the ages of 20 and 59. The age groups were categorized into four categories: 20–29, 2,436 (30.6%); 30–39, 2,326 (29.2%); 40–49, 1,903 (23.9%); and 50–59, 1,298 (16.3%). Participants were drawn from ten Asian countries: Japan: 848 (10.6%); South Korea: 782 (9.8%); China: 788 (9.9%); Malaysia: 792 (9.9%); Thailand: 799 (10.0%); Vietnam: 803 (10.1%); Myanmar: 800 (10.0%); India: 814 (10.2%); Sri Lanka: 745 (9.4%); and Uzbekistan 792 (9.9%). Further information regarding the characteristics of the participants can be found in Table 1.

#### Measures

The outcome variable was concern over the ethics of scientists. The survey question read, "Which, if any, of the following issues cause you great worry? Please choose all issues that cause you serious worry . . ." Twenty-nine items followed this prompt. "Ethics of scientists (ethics in science)" was one option among these 29 items. The predictor variables included education, religion, frequency of attending religious services, gender, age, and country. All six of these variables were categorical. The categories for education were middle school or less, high school or vocational school, technical school, and university. The categories for religion were Christian (including Catholic), Muslim (Sunnah), Muslim (Shia), Hindu, Buddhist, Confucian, Jewish, Sikh, Taoism, other, none, and don't know. Due to a low number of Shia (48), these participants were grouped with Sunnis in the Muslim category. Also, due to the low numbers of participants identifying as Confucian (7), Jewish (2), Sikh (10), and Taoist (35), these participants were grouped into the "other" category. Frequency of attending religious services was categorized as at least once a week, once a month, on holidays or less (only on special holy days, once a year, hardly ever), and never. The other predictor variables—gender, age, and country—were categorized in the survey as they are displayed in Table 1.

#### Data Analysis

Frequency distributions were used to describe the characteristics of the participants. Frequency distributions were also used to answer the first research questions, What is the public's level of concern with ethics in science relative to other concerns? A generalized linear model (GLM) with a logit link was used to answer the second research question, are religious affiliation, religious involvement, and education predictors of the public's level of concern with ethics in science? The GLM was also used to adjust the results for gender, age, and nationality.

### RESULTS

Descriptive statistics were used to assess demographics. Participant characteristics are displayed in Table 1.

Frequency distribution provided percent and number of participants selecting the given responses. Participants on average reported that "ethics in science" (4.6%) ranked third to last of 29 issues that concerned them. Unemployment (60.6%) and poverty (56.5%) were ranked first and second. The second to last was "other" (.6%) and the last item of concern was "don't know" (.2%). Table 2 provides further details regarding issues of concern to participants.

A GLM was used to assess the significance of the association of education and religion with concern toward the ethics of scientists, adjusting for age, gender, and country. Compared to those with university education, those with high school or vocational education (OR = .7; p = .004; 95% CI: .872, .004) and middle school or less education (OR = .5; p = .000; 95% CI: .342, .670) had 30% and 50% lower odds to be worried about the ethics of science. Compared to those with no religious preference, Christians (OR = .3; p = .012; 95% CI: .259, .848) had 70% lower odds to worry about the ethics of science. Compared to those who never attended any religious services, those who attended services moderately, defined as "once a month," (OR = .5; p = .015; 95% CI: .320, .886) had 50% lower odds to be worried about the ethics of science. Table 3 provides further details of the regression analysis.

# DISCUSSION

Society's concern for issues such as financial stability takes significant precedence ahead of concern over the ethics of scientists. These other preoccupations

	075
Asian Public Concern over the Ethics of Scientists	3/5

Characteristic n Percent Gender 4.052 50.9% Female 3,911 49.1% Male Age 20-29 30.6% 2,436 29.2% 23.9% 30-39 2,326 40-49 1,903 50-59 1,298 16.3% Country 792 9.9% Uzbekistan 782 9.8% South Korea 788 9.9% China Malaysia 792 9.9% 799 10.0% Thailand Vietnam 803 10.1% 10.0% 800 Myanmar 814 India 10.2% 745 9.4% Sri Lanka 848 10.6% Japan Education 1,959 Middle School or Less 24.6% 3,404 42.7% High School or Vocational 1,055 13.2% Technical School 1,545 19.4% University Religion Christian 705 8.9% 1,252 15.7% Muslim 10.7% Hindu 854 2,929 36.8% **Buddhist** 170 Other 2.1% 2,053 25.8% None Frequency of Attending Religious Services 1,725 21.7% At Least Once a Week 1,058 13.3% Once a Month On Holidays or Less 3,723 46.8% Never 1,457 18.3%

Table 1: Characteristics of Participants (n = 7,963)

notwithstanding, higher education is associated with higher odds of concern. Christian religious affiliation and moderate religious involvement was associated with lowers odds of concern over the ethics of scientists. Greater educational attainment may be linked to a better understanding of research, the importance of research, and the magnitude of ethics in research. Research itself may seem as empowering and a means for improvement in socioeconomic condition. Researchers themselves reported their own sense of "doing what is right" and graduate education experiences, which are more subjective, as the leading drivers when deciding authorship, and listed institutional policies, which are more codified, as least influential (House and Seeman, 2010). However, there are limitations to the educational approach, as was found when examining the outcomes of a graduate responsible conduct of research

Rank	Concern	n (%)
1	Unemployment	4,888 (60.6%)
2	Poverty	4,551 (56.5%)
3	Health Issues	3,672 (45.7%)
4	Crime	3,669 (45.6%)
5	Terrorism	3,512 (43.6%)
6	Wars and Conflict	3,404 (42.2%)
7	Moral Decline	3,304 (41.0%)
8	Environmental Destruction	3,262 (40.5%)
9	Natural Disasters	2,982 (36.9%)
10	Illegal Drugs and Drug Addiction	2,920 (36.1%)
11	Corruption	2,635 (32.6%)
12	Economic Inequality	2,604 (32.2%)
13	Economic Problems Within Country	2,525 (31.2%)
14	Education	2,265 (28.0%)
15	Human Rights	1,451 (17.9%)
16	Overpopulation	1,393 (17.2%)
1/	Global Recession	1,34/ (16./%)
18	Social Welfare System in Country	1,301 (16.1%)
19	Aging of Society	1,210 (15.0%)
20	Lack of Democracy	1,006 (12.4%)
21	Religious Fundamentalism	900 (11.1%)
22	Refugee and Asylum Issues	/00(8./%)
23	Fair World Irade	489 (0.0%)
24	Fasi Pace of Change	530(0.7%)
25	Clabelization	5U/ (0.3%)
20	GIODAIIZAIION Ethica of Colontiata	409 (0.7%)
2/	Cthor	JUZ (4.0%)
20		49 (.0%)
۲۷		ZU (.Z /0)

Table 2: Concerns of Participants (n = 7,963)

(RCR) course: Knowledge of RCR can increase without an increase in moral judgment (Schmaling and Blume, 2009). Furthermore, the pedagogy guiding the educational efforts may be a substantial variable when examining RCR, as interactive sessions of RCR have been reported to be more effective than traditional coursework (Antes et al., 2009).

Religious affiliation may indicate the extent to which the various world religions address and prioritize science. Furthermore, religious involvement may be correlated with the extent to which a person is concerned with ethics and/or concerned with "worldly matters." The participants who were highly involved in religion may be less concerned with worldly matters, and participants who were least involved with religion may be less concerned with ethics, since religion can be the primary source of ethical guidance for many people. Religious involvement would tend to be in the higher tiers of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Much of Table 2 is aligned with Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Ethics are located at the very top of the hierarchy, and according to Maslow, they are important only when the more fundamental needs below have been addressed. Most human subjects research addresses the base of the hierarchy

				ower 05%		
Variable	В	SE	OR	Cl	CI	Ρ
Education Middle School or Less High School or	737 423	.1714 .1457	.479 .655	.342 .493	.670 .872	.000 .004
Vocational Technical School University Poligion	340 -	.2005 —	.712 —	.480 —	1.054 —	.090
Christian Muslim Hindu Buddhist Other None Frequency of Attending	757 464 055 .269 .320 -	.3026 .3007 .4351 .1893 .3629 —	.469 .629 .946 1.309 1.378 —	.259 .349 .403 .903 .676 —	.848 1.134 2.220 1.896 2.805 —	.012 .123 .899 .155 .377 —
Religious Services At Least Once a Week Once a Month On Holidays or Less Never	.264 631 300 -	.2408 .2602 .1820 —	1.302 .532 .741 —	.812 .320 .518 —	2.087 .886 1.058 –	.273 .015 .099
Gender Female Male	115 -	.1111 —	.892 —	.717 —	1.109 _	.302
Age 20-29 30-39 40-49 50-59	318 272 244 -	.1715 .1698 .1751 —	.727 .762 .783 —	.520 .546 .556 —	1.018 1.063 1.104 —	.063 .109 .163 —
Country Uzbekistan South Korea China Malaysia Thailand Vietnam Myanmar India Sri Lanka Japan	1.166 .091 1.667 .587 .937 2.435 159 .713 1.005 -	.3781 .3903 .3079 .3975 .3428 .2940 .4261 .4982 .3541 	3.210 1.095 5.299 1.799 2.552 11.411 .853 2.040 2.732 -	1.530 .510 2.898 .825 1.304 6.413 .370 .768 1.365 -	6.735 2.353 9.688 3.922 4.998 20.304 1.967 5.416 5.469 	.002 .816 0 .14 .006 0 .709 .152 .005

Asian Public Concern over the Ethics of Scientists 377

Table 3: Summary of GLM Predicting Concern over Ethics in Research (n = 7,963)

(physiological and safety needs); therefore, ethics could be more important to the public if the relationship to the base of the hierarchy was conveyed more prominently.

# Limitations

A degree of ambiguity is present in how "ethics of scientists" was measured in the dataset. Participants could have attached various meanings to the phrase, such as research misconduct, abuse of human or animal subjects, or scientists accepting research funding from private corporations. The latest

### 378 A. Smolak et al.

collection of the AsiaBarometer dataset was used for this study; however, this dataset is from 2003. Perspectives may have changed over time as many of the included Asian countries have undergone rapid development.

### Implications

The opinions of others have been associated with behavior change. Subjective norms influenced behavior across a variety of contexts, examples include: cigarette smoking among Chinese adolescents (Guo et al., 2007), prenatal screening uptake (Cooke and French, 2008), and driving while intoxicated (Gastil, 2000). Increasing public concern with ethics in science may decrease unethical behavior among researchers. Hackett (1994) suggested that a social control perspective may assist in preventing research misconduct through further developing the public's understanding of scientific research. The author noted that by improving educational attainment and partnerships with faithbased organization, the public's concern regarding the ethics of scientists could be improved, and, in turn, unethical behavior on the part of scientists decreased. Maslow's hierarchy of needs may also be applied to the direct conduct of researchers.

Other personal factors such as mental health problems and poor judgment may contribute to research misconduct, as may situational factors, such as martial problems and financial problems (Davis, 2002). Similarly, a recent review of the institutional review board (IRB) decision-making literature indicates that personal factors such as perceived stigma regarding the risk and personal group affiliation with human subjects influenced IRB decisions (Pritchard, 2011). Aspects of the scientific environment that may also contribute to unethical decision making (Helton-Fauth et al., 2003). Furthermore, scientists who felt treated unfairly by their institution were more likely to report unethical behavior (Martinson et al., 2006; Martinson et al., 2010).

It is important to note that cultural differences may partially account for varying perspectives of research misconduct among researchers (Davis, 2003), and possibly among the public. However, an international code of research ethics, the Nuremburg Code, has been in place since the end of World War II. Further promotions and continued refining of international codes, such as the Singapore Statement, that account for varying perspectives can help move science forward by helping to develop trust among researchers and the public, set standards for the development of local codes, and improve research ethics (Resnik, 2009).

Engaging the public in research has been proposed via a communitybased participatory research (CBPR). CBPR may improve research ethics (Simon et al., 2011). Communication problems between researchers and community members have been reported (Simon et al., 2011); however, Guta (2012) reported that researchers have been open to community participation. The presence of community members on IRBs has provided information on consent form improvement (Lidz et al., 2012). Conversely, more community-based research assistants admitted to research misconduct themselves than did traditional research assistants (True et al., 2011). Further examination of public engagement in discussions of ethics in biotechnological research has also been proposed (Secko et al., 2008). Familiarity with researchers or knowing others participating in the research was reported as a factor in parents permitting adolescences to participate in sexually transmitted infections (STI) research (Ott et al., 2010).

# CONCLUSION

The public's low concern over scientists' ethics may lead some researchers to be less concerned with research ethics. Higher educational attainment and partnership with faith-based organizations may improve the public's concern over the ethics of scientists. This research also points to the potential for interventions aimed at the public with the intent of affecting the behavior of scientists. Specifically, the public's concern over the ethics of scientists could possibly be increased by educational effort that communicates the relevance of science to basic human needs. Further research is needed regarding societal concern toward ethics in science and how this may influence the behavior of scientists.

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This research was partially supported by both a Fulbright grant and an Office of Research Integrity (ORI) Doctoral Student Ambassador Award to Alex Smolak. Preliminary results were presented at the ORI Quest for Research Excellence 2012 conference. Authors thank Warren Green of the Columbia University School of Social Work for his editorial comments.

# Declaration

The authors have no conflict of interest pertaining to this work.

### REFERENCES

- Ajzen, I. (1980). Understanding Attitudes and Predicting Social Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Anderson, M. S., Ronning, E. A., De Vries, R., and Martinson, B. C. (2007). The perverse effects of competition on scientists' work and relationships. *Science and Engineering Ethics* 13: 437–461.

- Antes, A. L., Murphy, S. T., Waples, E. P., Mumford, M. D., Brown, R. P., Connelly, S., and Devenport, L. D. (2009). A meta-analysis of ethics instruction effectiveness in the sciences. *Ethics and Behavior* 19: 379–402.
- Cherry, J., Monle, L., and Chien, C.S. (2003). A cross-cultural application of a theoretical model of business ethics: Bridging the gap between theory and data. *Journal of Business Ethics* 44: 359–376.
- Christie, P., Joseph, M., Kwon, I.-W. G., Stoeberl, P. A., and Baumhart, R. (2003). A cross-cultural comparison of ethical attitudes of business managers: India, Korea and the United States. *Journal of Business Ethics* 46: 263–287.
- Cooke, R., and French, D. P. (2008). How well do the theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behaviour predict intentions and attendance at screening programmes? A meta-analysis. *Psychology and Health* 23: 745–765.
- Davis, M. S., Riske, M. L., and Seaman, M. (2002). Research Misconduct: An Inquiry into Etiology and Stigma. *Final Report Presented to the Office of Research Integrity*.
- Davis, M. S. (2003). The role of culture in research misconduct. Accountability in Research: Policies and Quality Assurance 10: 189–201.
- Deshpande, S. P. (1997). Managers' perception of proper ethical conduct: The effect of sex, age, and level of education. *Journal of Business Ethics* 16:79–85.
- Donaldson, T., and Dunfee, T. W. (1994). Toward a unified conception of business ethics: Integrative social contracts theory. *Academy of Management Review* 19: 252–284.
- Fanelli, D. (2009). "How many scientists fabricate and falsify research? A systematic review and meta-analysis of survey data." *PLoS One* 4: e5738.
- Fishbein, M., and Ajzen, I. (1975). Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research, Addison-Wesley Series in Social Psychology. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Pub. Co.
- Fleischman, G., and Valentine, S. (2003). "Professionals' tax liability assessments and ethical evaluations in an equitable relief innocent spouse case. *Journal of Business Ethics* 42: 27–44.
- Gastil, J. (2000). Thinking, drinking, and driving: Application of the theory of reasoned action to DWI prevention 1. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 30: 2217–2232.
- Guo, Q., Johnson, C. A., Unger, J. B., Lee, L., Xie, B., Chou, C.-P., Palmer, P. H., Sun, P., Gallaher, P., and Pentz, M. A. (2007). Utility of the theory of reasoned action and theory of planned behavior for predicting Chinese adolescent smoking. *Addictive Behaviors* 32: 1066–1081.
- Helton-Fauth, W., B. Gaddis, G. Scott, M. Mumford, L. Devenport, S. Connelly, and R. Brown. 2003. "A new approach to assessing ethical conduct in scientific work." *Accountability in Research: Policies & Quality Assurance* no. 10 (4):205–28. doi: 10.1080/714906104.
- House, Mark C., and Jeffrey I. Seeman. 2010. "Credit and Authorship Practices: Educational and Environmental Influences." Accountability in Research: Policies & Quality Assurance no. 17 (5):223–256. doi: 10.1080/08989621.2010.512857.
- Jackson, T. 2001. "Cultural values and management ethics: A 10-nation study." Human Relations no. 54 (10):1267–1302.
- Kennedy, Ellen J.., and Leigh Lawton. 1996. "The effects of social and moral integration on ethical standards: A comparison of American and Ukrainian business students." *Journal of Business Ethics* no. 15 (8):901–911. doi: 10.1007/bf00381858.
- Kornfeld, D. S. 2012. "Perspective: research misconduct: the search for a remedy." Acad Med no. 87 (7):877–82. doi: 10.1097/ACM.0b013e318257ee6a.

- Lam, Kit-Chun, Guicheng Shi, and Guicheng Shi. 2008. "Factors Affecting Ethical Attitudes in Mainland China and Hong Kong." Journal of Business Ethics no. 77 (4):463–479. doi: 10.1007/s10551-007-9360-1.
- Latif, David A. 2000. "Ethical Cognition and Selection-Socialization in Retail Pharmacy." Journal of Business Ethics no. 25 (4):343-357. doi: 10.1023/ a:1006097521228.
- Lidz, C. W., L. J. Simon, A. V. Seligowski, S. Myers, W. Gardner, P. J. Candilis, R. Arnold, and P. S. Appelbaum. 2012. "The participation of community members on medical institutional review boards." *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics* no. 7 (1):1–6. doi: 10.1525/jer.2012.7.1.1.
- Martinson, B. C., M. S. Anderson, and R. de Vries. 2005. "Scientists behaving badly." *Nature* no. 435 (7043):737–8. doi: 10.1038/435737a.
- Martinson, B. C., A. L. Crain, R. De Vries, and M. S. Anderson. 2010. "The importance of organizational justice in ensuring research integrity." *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics* no. 5 (3):67–83. doi: 10.1525/jer.2010.5.3.67.
- Martinson, Brian C., Melissa S. Anderson, A. Lauren Crain, and Raymond de Vries. 2006. "Scientists' Perceptions of Organizational Justice and Self-Reported Misbehaviors." Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics: An International Journal no. 1 (1):51–66.
- Maslow, A. H. 1943. "A theory of human motivation." *Psychological Review* no. 50:370–396.
- Maslow, Abraham H. 1954. Motivation and personality. [1st ed, [Harper's psychological series]. New York,: Harper.
- Mumford, M. D., S. Connelly, S. T. Murphy, L. D. Devenport, A. L. Antes, R. P. Brown, J. H. Hill, and E. P. Waples. 2009. "Field and Experience Influences on Ethical Decision-Making in the Sciences." *Ethics & Behavior* no. 19 (4):263–289. doi: 10.1080/10508420903035257.
- Ott, M. A., J. G. Rosenberger, and J. D. Fortenberry. 2010. "Parental permission and perceived research benefits in adolescent STI research." *Journal of Empirical Research* on Human Research Ethics no. 5 (2):57–64. doi: 10.1525/jer.2010.5.2.57.
- Pritchard, I. A. 2011. "How do IRB members make decisions? A review and research agenda." Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics no. 6 (2):31–46. doi: 10.1525/jer.2011.6.2.31.
- Razzaque, M. A., and T. P. Hwee. 2002. "Ethics and purchasing dilemma: A Singaporean view." Journal of Business Ethics no. 35 (4):307–326.
- Resnik, David B. 2009. "International Standards for Research Integrity: An Idea Whose Time has Come?" Accountability in Research: Policies & Quality Assurance no. 16 (4):218–228. doi: 10.1080/08989620903065350.
- Rest, James R. 1986. Moral development : advances in research and theory. New York: Praeger.
- Schmaling, Karen B., and Arthur W. Blume. 2009. "Ethics Instruction Increases Graduate Students' Responsible Conduct of Research Knowledge but not Moral Reasoning." Accountability in Research: Policies & Quality Assurance no. 16 (5):268-283. doi: 10.1080/08989620903190323.
- Secko, David M., Michael Burgess, and Kieran O'Doherty. 2008. "Perspectives on Engaging the Public in the Ethics of Emerging Biotechnologies: From Salmon to Biobanks to Neuroethics." Accountability in Research: Policies & Quality Assurance no. 15 (4):283–302. doi: 10.1080/08989620802388762.

382 A. Smolak et al.

- Simon, C. M., E. Newbury, and J. L. Heureux. 2011. "Protecting participants, promoting progress: public perspectives on community advisory boards (CABs) in biobanking." *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics* no. 6 (3):19–30. doi: 10.1525/jer.2011.6.3.19.
- Singhapakdi, Anusorn, Janet K. Marta, Kumar C. Rallapalli, and C. P. Rao. 2000. "Toward an Understanding of Religiousness and Marketing Ethics: An Empirical Study." *Journal of Business Ethics* no. 27 (4):305–319. doi: 10.1023/a:1006342224035.
- Trevino, L. K., and G. R Weaver. 2001. "Organizational Justice and Ethics Program "Follow Through": Influences on Employees' Harmful and Helpful Behavior." Business Ethics Quarterly no. 11 (4):651–671.
- True, G., L. B. Alexander, and K. A. Richman. 2011. "Misbehaviors of front-line research personnel and the integrity of community-based research." *Journal of Empirical Research on Human Research Ethics* no. 6 (2):3–12. doi: 10.1525/jer.2011.6.2.3.
- VanSandt, Craig, Jon Shepard, and Stephen Zappe. 2006. "An Examination of the Relationship Between Ethical Work Climate and Moral Awareness." Journal of Business Ethics no. 68 (4):409–432. doi: 10.1007/s10551-006-9030-8.
- Verbeke, Willem, Cok Ouwerkerk, and Ed Peelen. 1996. "Exploring the contextual and individual factors on ethical decision making of salespeople." *Journal of Business Ethics* no. 15 (11):1175–1187. doi: 10.1007/bf00412816.
- Vitell, Scott. 2009. "The Role of Religiosity in Business and Consumer Ethics: A Review of the Literature." Journal of Business Ethics no. 90 (0):155-167. doi: 10.1007/s10551-010-0382-8.
- Weber, James, and Julie E. Seger. 2002. "Influences Upon Organizational Ethical Subclimates: A Replication Study of a Single Firm at Two Points in Time." *Journal* of Business Ethics no. 41 (1):69–84. doi: 10.1023/a:1021350122677.