CHAPTER 2

ETHICS FOR IT WORKERS AND IT USERS

QUOTE

This above all: to thine own self be true.
—William Shakespeare, playwright

VIGNETTE

New York City Payroll Project Riddled with Fraud

The CityTime project was meant to replace a largely manual, paper-based payroll system for the city of New York (NYC). The goal was to provide a tool that would help city administrators manage a workforce of over 100,000 employees spread across 63 departments. It was also intended to simplify the employee time-reporting process, which was complicated by numerous union timekeeping rules, and to identify employees who tried to fraudulently inflate their paychecks. The project was initiated in 1998 when the city awarded the contract to a subsidiary of MCI, a telecommunications company that later ran into financial scandals and, ultimately, filed for bankruptcy.[1]

In 2001, the CityTime contract was reassigned to Science International Applications Incorporated (SAIC), a defense company. In an unusual move, the handoff to SAIC occurred without the contract going through the normal competitive bidding process required for contracts of this size. Around the same time, Spherion Atlantic Enterprises was hired as a subcontractor to provide quality assurance

on the CityTime project, with an initial contract of $3.4 million. The city's contract with Spherion was eventually revised 11 times, with a resulting cost of $48 million.[2]

Richard Valcich, the NYC payroll office executive director during the initial years of the project, accused SAIC of dragging its feet on the project and was skeptical of the company's ability to deliver a quality product. However, Valcich retired in 2004 and was replaced by Joel Bondy, a staunch advocate of the project.[3] In this role, Bondy was responsible for overseeing and re-awarding Spherion's contract. It was later discovered that Bondy worked for Spherion for two years prior to joining the city.

In another questionable move, the CityTime contract was switched from a fixed-price contract to a "time and materials" contract, and the project costs spiraled out of control—from $224 million in 2006 to $628 million by 2009. This switch in the terms of the contract plus lack of project oversight made it even easier for those involved with the project to commit fraud.[4]

At a city hearing in December 2010, Bondy revealed that Spherion employees were billing the city at a rate of $236.25 per hour and that a number of former city employees had become Spherion employees.[5] Mr. Bondy resigned shortly after this meeting.[6]

That same month, federal prosecutors charged several consultants for the CityTime project with a multimillion dollar fraud scheme, which allegedly started in 2005. The consultants were accused of manipulating the city into paying for contracts to businesses that the consultants controlled, and then redirecting part of the money to enrich themselves personally.[7]

In May 2011, federal investigators arrested Gerald Denault, the senior project manager at SAIC, for allegedly receiving over $5 million in kickbacks and for committing wire fraud and money laundering. Denault had convinced his employer to hire TechnoDyne LLC as the main subcontractor for the

project. TechnoDyne eventually received $450 million out of the $600 million paid to SAIC and siphoned off millions to a bogus India-based consulting firm owned by Denault.[8] The two owners of TechnoDyne are now fugitives and their whereabouts are unknown. Six other defendants are scheduled to go to trial in 2013.[9]

In March 2012, SAIC agreed to pay $500 million to avoid prosecution for its role in the CityTime scandal; most of that money was to go back to the city of New York. By this time, it was estimated that NYC had paid out $652 million—with an outstanding bill of $41 million—owed on the project, which was originally estimated to cost $63 million and to be completed in 2003.[10]

Questions to Consider

1. What were some early warning signs that signaled things were not going well with the CityTime project?
2. What steps should city managers and SAIC have taken at an early stage of the project to identify and prevent fraud?

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

As you read this chapter, consider the following questions:

1. What key characteristics distinguish a professional from other kinds of workers, and is an IT worker considered a professional?
2. What factors are transforming the professional services industry?
3. What relationships must an IT worker manage, and what key ethical issues can arise in each?
4. How do codes of ethics, professional organizations, certification, and licensing affect the ethical behavior of IT professionals?
5. What is meant by compliance, and how does it help promote the right behaviors and discourage undesirable ones?

IT PROFESSIONALS

A **profession** is a calling that requires specialized knowledge and often long and intensive academic preparation. Over the years, the United States government adopted labor laws and regulations that required a more precise definition of what is meant by a *professional*

employee. The United States Code of federal regulations defines a "professional employee" as one who is engaged in the performance of work:

> "(i) requiring knowledge of an advanced type in a field of science or learning customarily acquired by a prolonged course of specialized intellectual instruction and study in an institution of higher learning or a hospital (as distinguished from knowledge acquired by a general academic education, or from an apprenticeship, or from training in the performance of routine mental, manual, mechanical, or physical activities);
> (ii) requiring the consistent exercise of discretion and judgment in its performance;
> (iii) which is predominantly intellectual and varied in character (as distinguished from routine mental, manual, mechanical, or physical work); and
> (iv) which is of such character that the output produced or the result accomplished by such work cannot be standardized in relation to a given period of time."[11]

In other words, professionals such as doctors, lawyers, and accountants require advanced training and experience; they must exercise discretion and judgment in the course of their work; and their work cannot be standardized. Many people would also expect professionals to contribute to society, to participate in a lifelong training program (both formal and informal), to keep abreast of developments in their field, and to assist other professionals in their development. In addition, many professional roles carry special rights and responsibilities. Doctors, for example, prescribe drugs, perform surgery, and request confidential patient information while maintaining doctor–patient confidentiality.

Are IT Workers Professionals?

Many business workers have duties, backgrounds, and training that qualify them to be classified as professionals, including marketing analysts, financial consultants, and IT specialists such as mobile application developers, software engineers, systems analysts, and network administrators. One could argue, however, that not every IT role requires "knowledge of an advanced type in a field of science or learning customarily acquired by a prolonged course of specialized intellectual instruction and study," to quote again from the United States Code. From a *legal* perspective, IT workers are not recognized as professionals because they are not licensed by the state or federal government. This distinction is important, for example, in malpractice lawsuits, as many courts have ruled that IT workers are not liable for malpractice because they do not meet the legal definition of a professional.

Professional Relationships That Must Be Managed

IT workers typically become involved in many different relationships, including those with employers, clients, suppliers, other professionals, IT users, and society at large—as illustrated in Figure 2-1. In each relationship, an ethical IT worker acts honestly and appropriately. These various relationships are discussed in the following sections.

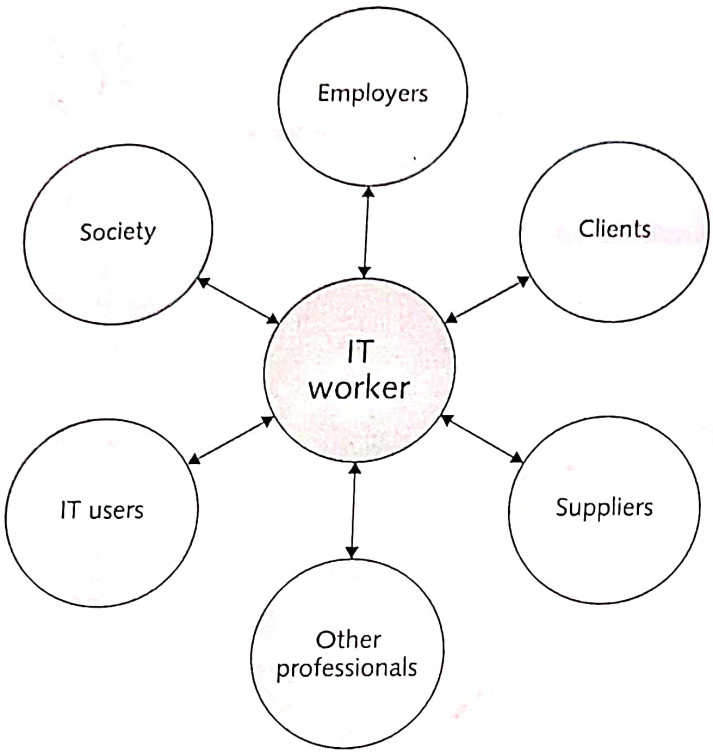

FIGURE 2-1 Professional relationships IT workers must manage
Credit: Course Technology/Cengage Learning.

Relationships Between IT Workers and Employers

IT workers and employers have a critical, multifaceted relationship that requires ongoing effort by both parties to keep it strong. An IT worker and an employer typically agree on fundamental aspects of this relationship before the worker accepts an employment offer. These issues may include job title, general performance expectations, specific work responsibilities, drug-testing requirements, dress code, location of employment, salary, work hours, and company benefits. Many other aspects of this relationship may be addressed in a company's policy and procedures manual or in the company's code of conduct, if one exists. These issues may include protection of company secrets; vacation policy; time off for a funeral or an illness in the family; tuition reimbursement; and use of company resources, including computers and networks.

Other aspects of this relationship develop over time as the need arises (for example, whether the employee can leave early one day if the time is made up another day). Some aspects are addressed by law—for example, an employee cannot be required to do anything illegal, such as falsify the results of a quality assurance test. Some aspects are specific to the role of the IT worker and are established based on the nature of the work or project—for example, the programming language to be used, the type and amount of documentation to be produced, and the extent of testing to be conducted.

As the stewards of an organization's IT resources, IT workers must set an example and enforce policies regarding the ethical use of IT. IT workers often have the skills and knowledge to abuse systems and data or to enable others to do so. Software piracy is an area in which IT workers may be tempted to violate laws and policies. Although end users often get the blame when it comes to using illegal copies of commercial software, software piracy in a corporate setting is sometimes directly traceable to IT staff members—either they allow it to happen or they actively engage in it, often to reduce IT-related spending.

The Business Software Alliance (BSA) is a trade group that represents the world's largest software and hardware manufacturers. Its mission is to stop the unauthorized copying of software produced by its members. BSA is funded both through dues based on member companies' software revenues and through settlements from companies that commit piracy. BSA membership includes two dozen or so members such as Adobe, Apple, Intel, McAfee, Microsoft, Symantec, and The Math Works.

More than 100 BSA lawyers and investigators prosecute thousands of cases of software piracy each year. BSA investigations are usually triggered by calls to the BSA hotline (1-888-NO-PIRACY), reports sent to the BSA Web site (*www.nopiracy.org*), and referrals from member companies. Many of these cases are reported by disgruntled employees or former employees. For 2011, the commercial value of software piracy in the United States was estimated to be nearly $10 billion with 31 percent of computer users participating in this illegal activity.[12] When BSA finds cases of software piracy, it assesses heavy monetary penalties.

Failure to cooperate with the BSA can be extremely expensive. The cost of criminal or civil penalties to a corporation and the people involved can easily be many times more expensive than the cost of "getting legal" by acquiring the correct number of software licenses. Software manufacturers can file a civil suit against software pirates with penalties of up to $150,000 per copyrighted work. Furthermore, the government can criminally prosecute violators and fine them up to $250,000, incarcerate them for up to five years, or both.

In 2012, the Alexander Automotive Group paid $325,000 to settle claims that it was using unlicensed Microsoft software on its computers. As part of the settlement agreement with BSA, the firm deleted all unlicensed copies of software from its computers, purchased the licenses required to become compliant, and agreed to implement more effective software management procedures. BSA was alerted to this situation by a report sent to its Web site.[13]

Trade secrecy is another area that can present challenges for IT workers and their employers. A **trade secret** is information, generally unknown to the public, that a company has taken strong measures to keep confidential. It represents something of economic value that has required effort or cost to develop and that has some degree of uniqueness or novelty. Trade secrets can include the design of new software code, hardware designs, business plans, the design of a user interface to a computer program, and manufacturing processes. Examples include the Colonel's secret recipe of 11 herbs and spices used to make the original KFC chicken, the formula for Coke, and Intel's manufacturing process for the i7 quad core processing chip. Employers worry that employees may reveal these secrets to competitors, especially if they leave the company. As a result, companies often require employees to sign confidentiality agreements and promise not to reveal the company's trade secrets.

Zynga is a provider of online social games such as ChefVille, CityVille, FarmVille, FrontierVille, and Zynga Poker that boast over 300 million active monthly users.[14] After just over a year with Zynga, the firm's general manager of CityVille left to become a vice president at Kixeye, a competitor. Zynga claimed that the employee stole files with data critical to the business—including financial projections, marketing plans, and game designs.[15] Zynga filed a request for a temporary restraining order barring its former employee from sharing or copying the information or from engaging in any actions using the information to develop online games employing these trade secrets.

Another issue that can create friction between employers and IT workers is whistle-blowing. **Whistle-blowing** is an effort by an employee to attract attention to a negligent, illegal, unethical, abusive, or dangerous act by a company that threatens the public interest. Whistle-blowers often have special information based on their expertise or position within the offending organization. For example, an employee of a chip manufacturing company may know that the chemical process used to make the chips is dangerous to employees and the general public. A conscientious employee would call the problem to management's attention and try to correct it by working with appropriate resources within the company. But what if the employee's attempt to correct the problem through internal channels was thwarted or ignored? The employee might then consider becoming a whistle-blower and reporting the problem to people outside the company, including state or federal agencies that have jurisdiction. Obviously, such actions could have negative consequences on the employee's job, perhaps resulting in retaliation and firing.

The H-1B visa is a work visa that allows foreigners to come to the United States and work full-time in specialty occupations that require at least a four-year bachelor's degree in a specific field. A U.S. consultant for India-based outsourcing firm Infosys filed a whistle-blower lawsuit against the firm for abusing H-1B program rules. The lawsuit alleged that at a management meeting in Bangalore, Infosys officials discussed the need to "creatively" circumvent the H-1B visa restrictions. The lawsuit further alleged that Infosys brought workers to the United States on B-1 visas (which are intended for workers coming to the United States for short-term work assignments only), but that these workers were assigned full-time jobs. It also claimed that Infosys was not paying the B-1 workers the prevailing wage and was not withholding federal and state income taxes.[16] The whistle-blower filed a separate lawsuit in which he claimed that Infosys retaliated against him for the filing of the visa-related lawsuit by lowering his bonuses, harassing him, and giving him no meaningful work to do.[17]

Relationships Between IT Workers and Clients

IT workers provide services to clients; sometimes those "clients" are coworkers who are part of the same organization as the IT worker. In other cases, the client is part of a different organization. In relationships between IT workers and clients, each party agrees to provide something of value to the other. Generally speaking, the IT worker provides hardware, software, or services at a certain cost and within a given time frame. For example, an IT worker might agree to implement a new accounts payable software package that meets a client's requirements. The client provides compensation, access to key contacts, and perhaps a work space. This relationship is usually documented in contractual terms—who does what, when the work begins, how long it will take, how much the client pays, and so on. Although there is often a vast disparity in technical expertise between IT workers and their clients, the two parties must work together to be successful.

Typically, the client makes decisions about a project on the basis of information, alternatives, and recommendations provided by the IT worker. The client trusts the IT worker to use his or her expertise and to act in the client's best interests. The IT worker must trust that the client will provide relevant information, listen to and understand what the IT worker says, ask questions to understand the impact of key decisions, and use the information to make wise choices among various alternatives. Thus, the responsibility for decision making is shared between client and IT worker.

One potential ethical problem that can interfere with the relationship between IT workers and their clients involves IT consultants or auditors who recommend their own products and services or those of an affiliated vendor to remedy a problem they have detected. Such a situation has the potential to undermine the objectivity of an IT worker due to a conflict of interest—a conflict between the IT worker's (or the IT firm's) self-interest and the interests of the client. For example, an IT consulting firm might be hired to assess a firm's IT strategic plan. After a few weeks of analysis, the consulting firm might provide a poor rating for the existing strategy and insist that its proprietary products and services are required to develop a new strategic plan. Such findings would raise questions about the vendor's objectivity and whether its recommendations can be trusted.

Problems can also arise during a project if IT workers find themselves unable to provide full and accurate reporting of the project's status due to a lack of information, tools, or experience needed to perform an accurate assessment. The project manager may want to keep resources flowing into the project and hope that problems can be corrected before anyone notices. The project manager may also be reluctant to share status information because of contractual penalties for failure to meet the schedule or to develop certain system functions. In such a situation, the client may not be informed about a problem until it has become a crisis. After the truth comes out, finger-pointing and heated discussions about cost overruns, missed schedules, and technical incompetence can lead to charges of fraud, misrepresentation, and breach of contract.

Fraud is the crime of obtaining goods, services, or property through deception or trickery. Fraudulent misrepresentation occurs when a person consciously decides to induce another person to rely and act on a misrepresentation. To prove fraud in a court of law, prosecutors must demonstrate the following elements:

- The wrongdoer made a false representation of material fact.
- The wrongdoer intended to deceive the innocent party.
- The innocent party justifiably relied on the misrepresentation.
- The innocent party was injured.

As an example of alleged fraud, consider the case of Paul Ceglia, who in 2010 sued Facebook claiming to own a majority of the company. Ceglia claimed that he signed a contract with Mark Zuckerberg in 2003 to design and develop the Web site that eventually became Facebook. He alleged that he paid Zuckerberg $1,000 for the programming work and also invested an additional $1,000 in Zuckerberg's Facebook project in exchange for a 50 percent interest in Facebook.[18] Facebook lawyers have asserted that the lawsuit is an outright fraud and have depositions alleging that "Ceglia manufactured evidence, including purported emails with Zuckerberg, to support his false claim to an interest in Facebook" and that "Ceglia destroyed evidence that was inconsistent with his false claim." Facebook's attorneys pointed out that Zuckerberg did not even conceive of Facebook until eight

months after Zuckerberg did the contract work (which, they say, was completely unrelated to Facebook) for Ceglia. They further alleged that Ceglia's emails to Zuckerberg were manufactured to support his claims. Eventually, Ceglia was arrested on federal mail and wire fraud charges.[19]

Misrepresentation is the misstatement or incomplete statement of a material fact. If the misrepresentation causes the other party to enter into a contract, that party may have the legal right to cancel the contract or seek reimbursement for damages.

Siri, the voice-activated software that comes with the Apple iPhone, has delighted many iPhone users; however, not everyone has had a positive experience. Shortly after one user in New York purchased an iPhone 4S, he realized that Siri was not performing as expected. When he asked Siri for directions, it did not understand the question or after a long delay gave incorrect directions. As a result, the user filed a lawsuit against Apple claiming that advertising for the Siri amounted to "intentional misrepresentation" and that Apple's claims about the Siri software were "misleading and deceptive." Attorneys for this user are considering turning the case into a class action against Apple.[20]

Breach of contract occurs when one party fails to meet the terms of a contract. Further, a **material breach of contract** occurs when a party fails to perform certain express or implied obligations, which impairs or destroys the essence of the contract. Because there is no clear line between a minor breach and a material breach, determination is made on a case-by-case basis. "When there has been a material breach of contract, the nonbreaching party can either: (1) rescind the contract, seek restitution of any compensation paid under the contract to the breaching party, and be discharged from any further performance under the contract; or (2) treat the contract as being in effect and sue the breaching party to recover damages."[21]

In an out-of-court settlement of a breach of contract lawsuit brought by the General Services Administration (GSA), Oracle Corporation agreed to pay the federal agency $200 million. Oracle entered into a contract with the GSA for the sale of software and technical support to various departments of the federal government. The contract required Oracle to provide the government with its pricing policies. The lawsuit arose when the GSA claimed that Oracle "knowingly failed to meet its contractual obligations to provide GSA with current, accurate, and complete information about its commercial sales practices, including discounts offered to other customers, and that Oracle knowingly made false statements to GSA about its sales practices and discounts." The GSA further claimed that Oracle failed to disclose that other customers received greater discounts than the GSA and that, based on its contract with Oracle, those discounts should have been passed on to the GSA.[22]

When IT projects go wrong because of cost overruns, schedule slippage, lack of system functionality, and so on, aggrieved parties might charge fraud, fraudulent misrepresentation, and/or breach of contract. Trials can take years to settle, generate substantial legal fees, and create bad publicity for both parties. As a result, the vast majority of such disputes are settled out of court, and the proceedings and outcomes are concealed from the public. In addition, IT vendors have become more careful about protecting themselves from major legal losses by requiring that contracts place a limit on potential damages.

Most IT projects are joint efforts in which vendors and customers work together to develop a system. Assigning fault when such projects go wrong can be difficult; one side

might be partially at fault, while the other side is mostly at fault. Clients and vendors often disagree about who is to blame in such circumstances. Consider the following frequent causes of problems in IT projects:

- The customer changes the scope of the project or the system requirements.
- Poor communication between customer and vendor leads to performance that does not meet expectations.
- The vendor delivers a system that meets customer requirements, but a competitor comes out with a system that offers more advanced and useful features.
- The customer fails to reveal information about legacy systems or databases that make the new system extremely difficult to implement.

Relationships Between IT Workers and Suppliers

IT workers deal with many different hardware, software, and service providers. Most IT workers understand that building a good working relationship with suppliers encourages the flow of useful communication as well as the sharing of ideas. Such information can lead to innovative and cost-effective ways of using the supplier's products and services that the IT worker may never have considered.

IT workers can develop good relationships with suppliers by dealing fairly with them and not making unreasonable demands. Threatening to replace a supplier who can't deliver needed equipment tomorrow, when the normal industry lead time is one week, is aggressive behavior that does not help build a good working relationship.

Suppliers strive to maintain positive relationships with their customers in order to make and increase sales. To achieve this goal, they may sometimes engage in unethical actions—for example, offering an IT worker a gift that is actually intended as a bribe. Clearly, IT workers should not accept a bribe from a vendor, and they must be careful when considering what constitutes a bribe. For example, accepting invitations to expensive dinners or payment of entry fees for a golf tournament may seem innocent to the recipient, but it may be perceived as bribery by an auditor.

Bribery is the act of providing money, property, or favors to someone in business or government in order to obtain a business advantage. An obvious example is a software supplier sales representative who offers money to another company's employee to get its business. This type of bribe is often referred to as a kickback or a payoff. The person who offers a bribe commits a crime when the offer is made, and the recipient is guilty of a crime if he or she accepts the bribe. Various states have enacted bribery laws, which have sometimes been used to invalidate contracts involving bribes but have seldom been used to make criminal convictions.

A former midlevel supply chain manager at Apple pled guilty in 2011 to taking over $1 million in payments from certain iPhone, iPad, and iPod suppliers in China, Singapore, South Korea, and Taiwan. The kickbacks took place over several years and were in exchange for the employer providing confidential information about Apple's production plans, enabling the suppliers to negotiate more favorable deals with Apple. He now faces 20 years in prison on charges of money laundering, receiving kickbacks, and wire fraud.[23]

The **Foreign Corrupt Practices Act (FCPA)** makes it a crime to bribe a foreign official, a foreign political party official, or a candidate for foreign political office. The act applies to any U.S. citizen or company and to any company with shares listed on any U.S. stock exchange. However, a bribe is not a crime if the payment was lawful under the laws of the foreign country in which it was paid. Penalties for violating the FCPA are severe—corporations face a fine of up to $2 million per violation, and individual violators may be fined up to $100,000 and imprisoned for up to five years.

The FCPA also requires corporations whose securities are listed in the United States to meet U.S. accounting standards by having an adequate system of internal controls, including maintaining books and records that accurately and fairly reflect their transactions. The goal of these standards is to prevent companies from using slush funds or other means to disguise payments to foreign officials. A firm's business practices and its accounting information systems must be frequently audited by both internal and outside auditors to ensure that they meet these standards.

The FCPA permits facilitating payments that are made for "routine government actions," such as obtaining permits or licenses; processing visas; providing police protection; providing phone services, power, or water supplies; or facilitating actions of a similar nature. Thus, it is permissible under the FCPA to pay an official to perform some official function faster (for example, to speed customs clearance) but not to make a different substantive decision (for example, to award business to one's firm).[24]

There is growing global recognition of the need to prevent corruption. The United Nations Convention Against Corruption is a legally binding global treaty designed to fight bribery and corruption. During its November 2010 meeting, Finance Ministers and Central Bank Ministers of members of the Group of 20 (G20), which includes Argentina, China, India, Japan, Russia, the United Kingdom, the United States, and 13 other countries, pledged to implement this treaty effectively. In particular, the countries pledged to put in place mechanisms for the recovery of property from corrupt officials through international cooperation in tracing, freezing, and confiscating assets. Members also pledged to adopt and enforce laws against international bribery and put in place rules to protect whistleblowers.[25]

In some countries, gifts are an essential part of doing business. In fact, in some countries, it would be considered rude not to bring a present to an initial business meeting. In the United States, a gift might take the form of free tickets to a sporting event from a personnel agency that wants to get on your company's list of preferred suppliers. But, at what point does a gift become a bribe, and who decides?

The key distinguishing factor is that no gift should be hidden. A gift may be considered a bribe if it is not declared. As a result, most companies require that all gifts be declared and that everything but token gifts be declined. Some companies have a policy of pooling the gifts received by their employees, auctioning them off, and giving the proceeds to charity.

When it comes to distinguishing between bribes and gifts, the perceptions of the donor and the recipient can differ. The recipient may believe he received a gift that in no way obligates him to the donor, particularly if the gift was not cash. The donor's intentions, however, might be very different. Table 2-1 shows some distinctions between bribes and gifts.

TABLE 2-1 Distinguishing between bribes and gifts

Bribes	Gifts
Are made in secret, as they are neither legally nor morally acceptable	Are made openly and publicly, as a gesture of friendship or goodwill
Are often made indirectly through a third party	Are made directly from donor to recipient
Encourage an obligation for the recipient to act favorably toward the donor	Come with no expectation of a future favor for the donor

Source Line: Course Technology/Cengage Learning.

Relationships Between IT Workers and Other Professionals

Professionals often feel a degree of loyalty to the other members of their profession. As a result, they are often quick to help each other obtain new positions but slow to criticize each other in public. Professionals also have an interest in their profession as a whole, because how it is perceived affects how individual members are viewed and treated. (For example, politicians are not generally thought to be very trustworthy, but teachers are.) Hence, professionals owe each other an adherence to the profession's code of conduct. Experienced professionals can also serve as mentors and help develop new members of the profession.

A number of ethical problems can arise among members of the IT profession. One of the most common is résumé inflation, which involves lying on a résumé by, for example, claiming competence in an IT skill that is in high demand. Even though an IT worker might benefit in the short term from exaggerating his or her qualifications, such an action can hurt the profession and the individual in the long run. Many employers consider lying on a résumé as grounds for immediate dismissal.

Yahoo! hired Scott Thompson, the president of eBay's PayPal electronic payments unit, as its new CEO in January 2012.[26] Just four months later, Thompson left the company, due, at least in part, to revelations that his résumé falsely claimed that he had earned a bachelor's degree in computer science.[27]

Some studies have shown that around 30 percent of all U.S. job applicants exaggerate their accomplishments, while roughly 10 percent "seriously misrepresent" their backgrounds.[28] Résumé inflation is an even bigger problem in Asia. According to a recent survey conducted by the University of Hong Kong and a Hong Kong–based company specializing in preemployment screening, over 62 percent of respondents confessed to exaggerating their years of experience, previous positions held, and job responsibilities; 33 percent confessed to having exaggerated even more.[29] Table 2-2 lists the areas of a résumé that are most prone to exaggeration.

TABLE 2-2 Most frequent areas of résumé falsehood or exaggeration

Area of exaggeration	How to uncover the truth
Dates of employment	Thorough reference check
Job title	Thorough reference check
Criminal record	Criminal background check
Inflated salary	Thorough reference check
Education	Verification of education claims with universities and other training organizations
Professional licenses	Verification of license with accrediting agency
Working for fictitious company	Thorough background check

Source Line: Lisa Vaas, "Most Common Resume Lies," The Ladders, July 17, 2009, www.theladders.com/career-advice/most-common-resume-lies.

Another ethical issue that can arise in relationships between IT workers and other professionals is the inappropriate sharing of corporate information. Because of their roles, IT workers may have access to corporate databases of private and confidential information about employees, customers, suppliers, new product plans, promotions, budgets, and so on. It might be sold to other organizations or shared informally during work conversations with others who have no need to know.

Relationships Between IT Workers and IT Users

The term **IT user** refers to a person who uses a hardware or software product; the term distinguishes end users from the IT workers who develop, install, service, and support the product. IT users need the product to deliver organizational benefits or to increase their productivity.

IT workers have a duty to understand a user's needs and capabilities and to deliver products and services that best meet those needs—subject, of course, to budget and time constraints. IT workers also have a key responsibility to establish an environment that supports ethical behavior by users. Such an environment discourages software piracy, minimizes the inappropriate use of corporate computing resources, and avoids the inappropriate sharing of information.

Relationships Between IT Workers and Society

Regulatory laws establish safety standards for products and services to protect the public. However, these laws are less than perfect, and they cannot safeguard against all negative side effects of a product or process. Often, professionals can clearly see the effect their work will have and can take action to eliminate potential public risks. Thus, society expects members of a profession to provide significant benefits and to not cause harm through their actions. One approach to meeting this expectation is to establish and maintain professional standards that protect the public.

Clearly, the actions of an IT worker can affect society. For example, a systems analyst may design a computer-based control system to monitor a chemical manufacturing process. A failure or an error in the system may put workers or residents near the plant at risk. As a result, IT workers have a relationship with members of society who may be affected by their actions. There is currently no single, formal organization of IT workers that takes responsibility for establishing and maintaining standards that protect the public. However, as discussed in the following sections, there are a number of professional organizations that provide useful professional codes of ethics to guide actions that support the ethical behavior of IT workers.

Professional Codes of Ethics

A **professional code of ethics** states the principles and core values that are essential to the work of a particular occupational group. Practitioners in many professions subscribe to a code of ethics that governs their behavior. For example, doctors adhere to varying versions of the 2,000-year-old Hippocratic oath, which medical schools offer as an affirmation to their graduating classes. Most codes of ethics created by professional organizations have two main parts: The first outlines what the organization aspires to become, and the second typically lists rules and principles by which members of the organization are expected to abide. Many codes also include a commitment to continuing education for those who practice the profession.

Laws do not provide a complete guide to ethical behavior. Just because an activity is not defined as illegal does not mean it is ethical. Nor can a professional code of ethics be expected to provide an answer to every ethical dilemma—no code can be a definitive collection of behavioral standards. However, following a professional code of ethics can produce many benefits for the individual, the profession, and society as a whole:

- *Ethical decision making*—Adherence to a professional code of ethics means that practitioners use a common set of core values and beliefs as a guideline for ethical decision making.
- *High standards of practice and ethical behavior*—Adherence to a code of ethics reminds professionals of the responsibilities and duties that they may be tempted to compromise to meet the pressures of day-to-day business. The code also defines acceptable and unacceptable behaviors to guide professionals in their interactions with others. Strong codes of ethics have procedures for censuring professionals for serious violations, with penalties that can include the loss of the right to practice. Such codes are the exception, however, and few exist in the IT arena.
- *Trust and respect from the general public*—Public trust is built on the expectation that a professional will behave ethically. People must often depend on the integrity and good judgment of a professional to tell the truth, abstain from giving self-serving advice, and offer warnings about the potential negative side effects of their actions. Thus, adherence to a code of ethics enhances trust and respect for professionals and their profession.
- *Evaluation benchmark*—A code of ethics provides an evaluation benchmark that a professional can use as a means of self-assessment. Peers of the professional can also use the code for recognition or censure.

Professional Organizations

No one IT professional organization has emerged as preeminent, so there is no universal code of ethics for IT workers. However, the existence of such organizations is useful in a field that is rapidly growing and changing. In order to stay on top of the many new developments in their field, IT workers need to network with others, seek out new ideas, and continually build on their personal skills and expertise. Whether you are a freelance programmer or the CIO of a *Fortune* 500 company, membership in an organization of IT workers enables you to associate with others of similar work experience, develop working relationships, and exchange ideas. These organizations disseminate information through email, periodicals, Web sites, meetings, and conferences. Furthermore, in recognition of the need for professional standards of competency and conduct, many of these organizations have developed codes of ethics. Four of the most prominent IT-related professional organizations are highlighted in the following sections.

Association for Computing Machinery (ACM)

The Association for Computing Machinery (ACM) is a computing society founded in 1947 with over 97,000 student and professional members in more than 100 countries. It is international in scope—with an ACM Europe, ACM India, and ACM China organization. ACM currently publishes over 50 journals and magazines and 30 newsletters—including *Communications of the ACM* (ACM's primary publication), *ACM Tech News* (coverage of timely topics for IT professionals), *XRDS* (for both graduate and undergraduate students considering computing careers), *RISKS Forum* (a moderated dialogue on risks to the public from computers and related systems), and *eLearn* (an online magazine about online education and training). The organization also offers a substantial digital library of bibliographic information, citations, articles, and journals. The ACM sponsors 37 special-interest groups (SIGs) representing major areas of computing. Each group provides publications, workshops, and conferences for information exchange.[30]

Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers Computer Society (IEEE-CS)

The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) covers the broad fields of electrical, electronic, and information technologies and sciences. The IEEE-CS is one of the oldest and largest IT professional associations, with about 85,000 members. Founded in 1946, the IEEE-CS is the largest of the 38 societies of the IEEE. The IEEE-CS helps meet the information and career development needs of computing researchers and practitioners with technical journals, magazines, books, conferences, conference publications, and online courses. It also offers a Certified Software Development Professional (CSDP) program for experienced professionals and a Certified Software Development Associate (CSDA) credential for recent college graduates. The society sponsors many conferences, applications-related and research-oriented journals, local and student chapters, technical committees, and standards working groups.[31]

In 1993, the ACM and IEEE-CS formed a Joint Steering Committee for the Establishment of Software Engineering as a Profession. The initial recommendations of the committee were to define ethical standards, to define the required body of knowledge and recommended practices in software engineering, and to define appropriate curricula to acquire knowledge. The "Software Engineering Code of Ethics and Professional Practice"

documents the ethical and professional responsibilities and obligations of software engineers. After a thorough review process, version 5.2 of the Software Engineering Code of Ethics was adopted by both the ACM and IEEE-CS in 1999.[32]

Association of Information Technology Professionals (AITP)

The Association of Information Technology Professionals (AITP) started in Chicago in 1951, when a group of machine accountants got together and decided that the future was bright for the IBM punched-card tabulating machines they were operating—a precursor of the modern electronic computer. They were members of a local group called the Machine Accountants Association (MAA), which first evolved into the Data Processing Management Association in 1962 and finally the AITP in 1996.[33]

The AITP provides IT-related seminars and conferences, information on IT issues, and forums for networking with other IT workers. Its mission is to provide superior leadership and education in information technology, and one of its goals is to help members make themselves more marketable within their industry. The AITP also has a code of ethics and standards of conduct. The standards of conduct are considered to be rules that no true IT professional should violate.

SysAdmin, Audit, Network, Security (SANS) Institute

The SysAdmin, Audit, Network, Security (SANS) Institute provides information security training and certification for a wide range of individuals, such as auditors, network administrators, and security managers. Each year, its programs train some 12,000 people, and a total of more than 165,000 security professionals around the world have taken one or more of its courses. SANS publishes a semiweekly news digest (NewsBites), a weekly security vulnerability digest (@Risk), and flash security alerts.[34]

At no cost, SANS makes available a collection of some 1,200 research documents about various topics of information security. SANS also operates Internet Storm Center—a program that monitors malicious Internet activity and provides a free early warning service to Internet users—and works with Internet service providers to thwart malicious attackers.

Table 2-3 provides the URL for the codes of ethics for the above IT professional organizations.

TABLE 2-3 Code of ethics for popular IT professional organizations

Organization	URL for code of ethics
Association for Computing Machinery	www.acm.org/about/code-of-ethics
Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers Computer Society (IEEE-CS)	http://seeri.etsu.edu/Codes/TheSECode.htm
Association of Information Technology Professionals (AITP)	www.aitp.org/?page=Ethics
SysAdmin, Audit, Network, Security (SANS) Institute	www.sans.org/security-resources/ethics.php

Source Line: Course Technology/Cengage Learning.

Certification

Certification indicates that a professional possesses a particular set of skills, knowledge, or abilities, in the opinion of the certifying organization. Unlike licensing, which applies only to people and is required by law, certification can also apply to products (e.g., the Wi-Fi CERTIFIED logo assures that the product has met rigorous interoperability testing to ensure that it will work with other Wi-Fi-certified products) and is generally voluntary. IT-related certifications may or may not include a requirement to adhere to a code of ethics, whereas such a requirement is standard with licensing.

Numerous companies and professional organizations offer certifications, and opinions are divided on their value. Many employers view them as a benchmark that indicates mastery of a defined set of basic knowledge. On the other hand, because certification is no substitute for experience and doesn't guarantee that a person will perform well on the job, some hiring managers are rather cynical about the value of certifications. Most IT employees are motivated to learn new skills, and certification provides a structured way of doing so. For such people, completing a certification provides clear recognition and correlates with a plan to help them continue to grow and advance in their careers. Others view certification as just another means for product vendors to generate additional revenue with little merit attached.

Deciding on the best IT certification—and even whether to seek a certification—depends on the individual's career aspirations, existing skill level, and accessibility to training. Is certification relevant to your current job or the one to which you aspire? Does the company offering the certification have a good reputation? What is the current and potential future demand for skills in this area of certification?

Vendor Certifications

Many IT vendors—such as Cisco, IBM, Microsoft, SAP, and Oracle—offer certification programs for those who use their products. Workers who successfully complete a program can represent themselves as certified users of a manufacturer's product. Depending on the job market and the demand for skilled workers, some certifications might substantially improve an IT worker's salary and career prospects. Certifications that are tied to a vendor's product are relevant for job roles with very specific requirements or certain aspects of broader roles. Sometimes, however, vendor certifications are too narrowly focused on the technical details of the vendor's technology and do not address more general concepts.

To become certified, one must pass a written exam. Because of legal concerns about whether other types of exams can be graded objectively, most exams are presented in a multiple-choice format. A few certifications, such as the Cisco Certified Internetwork Expert (CCIE) certification, also require a hands-on lab exam that demonstrates skills and knowledge. It can take years to obtain the necessary experience required for some certifications. Courses and training material are available to help speed up the preparation process, but such support can be expensive. Depending on the certification, study materials can cost $1,000 or more, and in-class formal training courses often cost more than $10,000.

Industry Association Certifications

There are many available industry certifications in a variety of IT-related subject areas. Their value varies greatly depending on where people are in their career path, what other certifications they possess, and the nature of the IT job market. Table 2-4 lists several of the certifications most in demand by employers.

TABLE 2-4 Certifications in high demand

Certification	Subject matter
Microsoft Certified Technology Specialist	Designing and optimizing solutions based on Microsoft products and technologies
Cisco Certified Internetwork Expert	Managing and troubleshooting large networks
Cisco Certified Network Professional Security	Configuring and designing firewalls and the security settings on routers and switches
CompTIA A+	Performing computer and network maintenance, troubleshooting, and installation—including addressing security issues
Project Management Institute's Project Management Professional (PMP)	Leading and directing projects

Source Line: Course Technology/Cengage Learning.

Certification requirements generally oblige an individual to have the prerequisite education and experience, and to sit for and pass an exam. In order to remain certified, the individual must typically pay an annual certification fee, earn continuing education credits, and—in some cases—pass a periodic renewal test.

Certifications from industry associations generally require a higher level of experience and a broader perspective than vendor certifications; however, industry associations often lag in developing tests that cover new technologies. The trend in IT certification is to move from purely technical content to a broader mix of technical, business, and behavioral competencies, which are required in today's demanding IT roles. This trend is evident in industry association certifications that address broader roles, such as project management and network security.

Government Licensing

In the United States, a government license is government-issued permission to engage in an activity or to operate a business. It is generally administered at the state level and often requires that the recipient pass a test of some kind. Some professionals must be licensed, including certified public accountants (CPAs), lawyers, doctors, various types of medical and daycare providers, and some engineers.

States have enacted legislation to establish licensing requirements and protect public safety in a variety of fields. For example, Texas passed the Engineering Registration Act after a tragic school explosion at New London, Texas, in 1937. Under the act and

subsequent revisions, only duly licensed people may legally perform engineering services for the public, and public works must be designed and constructed under the direct supervision of a licensed professional engineer. People cannot call themselves engineers or professional engineers unless they are licensed, and violators are subject to legal penalties. Most states have similar laws.

The Case for Licensing IT Workers

The days of simple, stand-alone information systems are over. Modern systems are highly complex, interconnected, and critically dependent on one another. Highly integrated enterprise resource planning (ERP) systems help multibillion-dollar companies control all of their business functions, including forecasting, production planning, purchasing, inventory control, manufacturing, and distribution. Complex computers and information systems manage and control the nuclear reactors of power plants that generate electricity. Medical information systems monitor the vital statistics of hospital patients on critical life support. Every year, local, state, and federal government information systems are entrusted with generating and distributing millions of checks worth billions of dollars to the public.

As a result of the increasing importance of IT in our everyday lives, the development of reliable, effective information systems has become an area of mounting public concern. This concern has led to a debate about whether the licensing of IT workers would improve information systems. Proponents argue that licensing would strongly encourage IT workers to follow the highest standards of the profession and practice a code of ethics. Licensing would also allow for violators to be punished. Without licensing, there are no clear, well-defined requirements for heightened care and no concept of professional malpractice.

Issues Associated with Government Licensing of IT Workers

Australia, Great Britain, and the Canadian provinces of Ontario and British Columbia have adopted licensing for software engineers. In the United States, the National Council of Examiners for Engineering and Surveying (NCEES) has developed a professional exam for electrical engineers and computer engineers. However, there are many reasons why there are few international or national licensing programs for IT workers in the United States:

- *There is no universally accepted core body of knowledge.* The core body of knowledge for any profession outlines agreed-upon sets of skills and abilities that all licensed professionals must possess. At present, however, there are no universally accepted standards for licensing programmers, software engineers, and other IT workers. Instead, various professional societies, state agencies, and federal governments have developed their own standards.
- *It is unclear who should manage the content and administration of licensing exams.* How would licensing exams be constructed, and who would be responsible for designing and administering them? Would someone who passes a license exam in one state or country be accepted in another state or country? In a field as rapidly changing as IT, workers must commit to ongoing, continuous education. If an IT worker's license were to expire every few years (like a driver's license), how often would practitioners be required to prove competence in new practices in order to renew their license? Such

questions would normally be answered by the state agency that licenses other professionals.

- *There is no administrative body to accredit professional education programs.* Unlike the American Medical Association for medical schools or the American Bar Association for law schools, no single body accredits professional education programs for IT. Furthermore, there is no well-defined, step-by-step process to train IT workers, even for specific jobs such as programming. There is not even broad agreement on what skills a good programmer must possess; it is highly situational, depending on the computing environment.
- *There is no administrative body to assess and ensure competence of individual workers.* Lawyers, doctors, and other licensed professionals are held accountable to high ethical standards and can lose their license for failing to meet those standards or for demonstrating incompetence. The AITP standards of conduct state that professionals should "take appropriate action in regard to any illegal or unethical practices that come to [their] attention. However, [they should] bring charges against any person only when [they] have reasonable basis for believing in the truth of the allegations and without any regard to personal interest." The AITP code addresses the censure issue much more forcefully than other IT codes of ethics, although it has seldom, if ever, been used to censure practicing IT workers.

IT Professional Malpractice

Negligence has been defined as not doing something that a reasonable person would do, or doing something that a reasonable person would not do. **Duty of care** refers to the obligation to protect people against any unreasonable harm or risk. For example, people have a duty to keep their pets from attacking others and to operate their cars safely. Similarly, businesses must keep dangerous pollutants out of the air and water, make safe products, and maintain safe operating conditions for employees.

The courts decide whether parties owe a duty of care by applying a **reasonable person standard** to evaluate how an objective, careful, and conscientious person would have acted in the same circumstances. Likewise, defendants who have particular expertise or competence are measured against a **reasonable professional standard**. For example, in a medical malpractice suit based on improper treatment of a broken bone, the standard of measure would be higher if the defendant were an orthopedic surgeon rather than a general practitioner. In the IT arena, consider a hypothetical negligence case in which an employee inadvertently destroyed millions of customer records in an Oracle database. The standard of measure would be higher if the defendant were a licensed, Oracle-certified database administrator (DBA) with 10 years of experience rather than an unlicensed systems analyst with no DBA experience or specific knowledge of the Oracle software.

If a court finds that a defendant actually owed a duty of care, it must then determine whether the duty was breached. A **breach of the duty of care** is the failure to act as a reasonable person would act. A breach of duty might consist of an action, such as throwing a lit cigarette into a fireworks factory and causing an explosion, or a failure to act when

there is a duty to do so—for example, a police officer not protecting a citizen from an attacker.

Professionals who breach the duty of care are liable for injuries that their negligence causes. This liability is commonly referred to as **professional malpractice**. For example, a CPA who fails to use reasonable care, knowledge, skill, and judgment when auditing a client's books is liable for accounting malpractice. Professionals who breach this duty are liable to their patients or clients, and possibly to some third parties.

Courts have consistently rejected attempts to sue individual parties for computer-related malpractice. Professional negligence can only occur when people fail to perform within the standards of their profession, and software engineering is not a uniformly licensed profession in the United States. Because there are no uniform standards against which to compare a software engineer's professional behavior, he or she cannot be subject to malpractice lawsuits.

IT USERS

Chapter 1 outlined the general topic of how corporations are addressing the increasing risks of unethical behavior. This section focuses on encouraging employees' ethical use of IT, which is an area of growing concern as more companies provide employees with PCs, tablets, cellphones, and other devices to access to corporate information systems, data, and the Internet.

Common Ethical Issues for IT Users

This section discusses a few common ethical issues for IT users. Additional ethical issues will be discussed in future chapters.

Software Piracy

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, software piracy in a corporate setting can sometimes be directly traceable to IT professionals—they might allow it to happen, or they might actively engage in it. Corporate IT usage policies and management should encourage users to report instances of piracy and to challenge its practice. For example, the software piracy rate in China exceeds 80 percent, so it is clear that the business managers and IT professionals in that country do not take a strong stand against the practice.

Sometimes IT users are the ones who commit software piracy. A common violation occurs when employees copy software from their work computers for use at home. When confronted, the IT user's argument might be: "I bought a home computer partly so I could take work home and be more productive; therefore, I need the same software on my home computer as I have at work." However, if no one has paid for an additional license to use the software on the home computer, this is still piracy.

The increasing popularity of the Android smartphone operating system has created a serious software piracy problem. Some IT end users have figured out how to download applications from the Android Market Web site without paying for them, and then use the software or sell it to others. One legitimate Android application developer complained that his first application was pirated within a month and that the number of downloads from the pirate's site were greater than his own. Professional developers become discouraged as they watch their sales sink while pirates' sales rocket.[35]