

Plagiarism Overview: What Research on Plagiarism Tells Us

As Rebecca Moore Howard writes in “The Search for a Cure: Understanding the ‘Plagiarism Epidemic,’” “The whole world, it seems, is worried about what is often regarded as “the plagiarism epidemic.” But this notion of a “plagiarism epidemic” has NOT been borne out by research—or, more accurately, it has AND it hasn’t. As Howard writes:

Clearly, people are more concerned about plagiarism than in previous years, but that does not necessarily signal an increase in plagiarism. It may be instead that because of the availability of text on the Internet, readers are more *aware* of plagiarism when it occurs. It may also be that the ways in which the Internet is complicating the notion of original, individual authorship is inciting greater cultural anxiety about individually authored, original texts.”

Or it just may be that, in fact, plagiarism is increasing.

The fact is, we don’t really know exactly how much student plagiarism there is. In his 1998 review of the research on student cheating, Whitley noted that the amount of student plagiarism found in various studies over the years ranged from 3% to 98% of students sampled, with a mean, then, of 47%. In reporting on their extensive, national survey of student cheating in 1993, McCabe and Treviño compared their findings with those of Bowers, reported in 1964, and found no increase in the amount of plagiarism. They reported that 84% of students admitted to having plagiarized at least once.

Much depends on how you define plagiarism and how you go about determining the amount. And it is at this point that we need to make a rather delicate but crucial distinction between “*responsible*,” research-based, evidence-based scholarship on plagiarism and “*irresponsible*” articles, books, blogs, webpages, commentary, etc., that make claims about plagiarism, unsupported by the scholarship, or inaccurately report research conclusions, or misrepresent what the research says by selectively citing small portions of the research in order to support their authors’ personal agendas. Some prestigious journals in a variety of disciplines have published articles that offer up conclusions about student plagiarism that are not supported by research and that tend to be based purely on anecdote, interpreted through a highly biased and emotional lens.

How to Tell the “Good” Scholarship from the “Bad”

Irresponsible “scholarship” can appear to be responsible, but there are 2 give-aways:

1. The selectivity AND manipulation of sources. For example: assuming that Donald

McCabe's findings about student *cheating* in general can be reported as findings about student *plagiarism* in particular. In fact, McCabe has findings about student plagiarism that appear contrary to his more general findings about student cheating.

2. The moments where the authors of these irresponsible writings slide into rants (the "Oh, the horrors of the plagiarism epidemic" kind of thing). Examples of these moments include Theodore Pappas' remarks that plagiarism is "an act of mendacity" and the plagiarist is a "two-bit thug" (*Plagiarism and the Culture War: The Writings of Martin Luther King, Jr., and Other Prominent Americans*. Tampa: Hallberg Publishing, 1998); and Jonah Goldberg's claim that some scholars' lenient attitudes toward student plagiarism proves that universities are filled with "tweedy, French-bathed barbarians in pursuit of destroying Western Civilization" ("Plagiarism Is Rape?" *National Review Online*. March 15, 2000, <http://www.nationalreview.com/articles/204620/plagiarism-rape/jonah-goldberg>). Such emotive, inflammatory commentary clearly is not based on any evidence derived from responsible research and seems more directed by a highly biased agenda than by any genuine desire to understand plagiarism.

Is There a "Plagiarism Epidemic"?

Most responsible scholars who have read the research on plagiarism have concluded that the alarmist claim of a plagiarism "epidemic" by many outside and inside the academy is overstated. The research findings on student plagiarism tend to be very mixed and complicated. The amount of plagiarism appears not to have increased much over the last 50+ years—but it appears not to have decreased either. The impact of the Internet on plagiarism is still unclear. Claims that the Internet has increased the amount of plagiarism are simply premature at best and tend to be unnecessarily inflammatory—and have not been supported by empirical research.

On the other hand, there is a consensus that the percentages do indicate a significant number of students have plagiarized at least once, but how much of it is intentional or unintentional is still very much up in the air. Roig's research suggests that most undergraduate college students have difficulty determining what plagiarism is and thus, are likely to commit plagiarism unintentionally. Scanlon suggests that, with a new generation of student writers, grown up with the Internet, the amount of plagiarism from the Internet could well increase, although research results on the amount of Internet plagiarism remains mixed. There is no hard evidence of such an increase.

The most responsible conclusion at present, then, seems to be that not every student is plagiarizing on every written assignment; that some students, in fact, are not intentionally plagiarizing at all but may well be plagiarizing unintentionally; and that certainly, some students are giving into the temptation to plagiarize intentionally and thus, that teachers do need to inform themselves about why students plagiarize, about the nature of that plagiarism, and about the best teaching practices that could help

reduce the number of students both intentionally and unintentionally plagiarizing.

Imitation and the Distinction between adopting text and adapting text.

Howard (1995) notes that "prior to the modern era, mimesis was the means whereby Western writers established their authority, and textual collaboration was their method of composition." In the past in Western cultures (and in the present in many non-Western cultures), imitation has been common. It has only been in modern times, in Western academic culture, where credit for authorship has taken on a function in some contexts of procuring status and advancement within certain communities, that policies against plagiarism have arisen. That said, we should note that classical mimesis meant more than simply **adopting** another person's text, which has been generally frowned upon throughout history, unless it was being done as an educational exercise. Classical imitation involved **adapting** text: emulation more than deception. (More on this distinction between adopting and adapting below.)

Defining Plagiarism

The WPA (Writing Program Administration) Guide defines plagiarism this way (<http://wpacouncil.org/node/9>):

In an instructional setting, plagiarism occurs when a writer deliberately uses someone else's language, ideas, or other original (not common-knowledge) material without acknowledging its source.

Generally, however, the definition of plagiarism remains unsettled. Writing handbooks, institutional plagiarism policies, and teachers have come to no firm consensus on what plagiarism is, which explains why students remain confused about plagiarism. Confusion in defining plagiarism tends to be focused in three areas: (1) the role of intent in plagiarism, leading to questions over the possible kinds of plagiarism that exist; (2) what is being plagiarized, leading to questions over the forms that plagiarism can take; and (3) the lack of clarity in defining common knowledge.

Intent is, by far, the most contentious element in the whole plagiarism controversy. Clearly, the Council of the WPA assumes that any copying of material that is not "deliberate" is not plagiarism. Many others would disagree. And some would erroneously contend that all copying of others' language, ideas, and other material is never unintended. Research has shown that unintentional copying is, perhaps, a greater problem than intentional copying. (More on kinds of plagiarism below.)

In classes, workshops with faculty, and discussions with administrators, I have found that it is easier to distinguish between intentional and unintentional plagiarism than to distinguish between plagiarism (defined as always deliberate) and unintentional copying that looks like deliberate plagiarism but somehow isn't plagiarism. Therefore, I define plagiarism as the presentation as one's own of already existing "text," broadly defined (that is, ideas, written discourse, visual art, formulas, inventions, statistical

information, software, etc.) that is not considered "common knowledge." Once we all agree not to include intent as a defining feature of plagiarism, we can then begin clarifying distinctions within that domain that allow us to create reasonable and fair plagiarism policy.

Common Knowledge

"Common knowledge" is a license for acceptable plagiarism. (And there are other such licenses. See the discussion of *The Contexts of Plagiarism* below.) Common knowledge is often defined *too broadly* as its own domain:

- "[F]acts that can be found in numerous places and are likely to be known by a lot of people" (Writing Tutorial Services, Indiana University, Bloomington, <http://www.indiana.edu/~wts/pamphlets/plagiarism.shtml>).
- "Generally speaking, you can regard something as common knowledge if you find the same information undocumented in at least five credible sources" (Purdue Online Writing Lab, Purdue University, <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/589/2/>).
- "Common knowledge includes such information as 'December has thirty-one days,' and well-known proverbs ('a penny saved is a penny earned') or historical information such as the date of the Declaration of Independence" (Hodges, John C. *Harbrace College Handbook*, 13th Edition, 1998).

In fact, content alone does not define knowledge as "common." Common knowledge is knowledge that is presumed to be ubiquitous *among members of the specific community being addressed*, such that (1) it is impossible to identify the original source of the knowledge; and/or (2) it is considered unnecessary to cite the source of the knowledge, because everyone knows that source; or (3) the knowledge has become so widespread that no one really cares who the source is.

Examples of common knowledge include many mathematical formulas. Some mathematician somewhere will have come up with whatever formula you might use, but you are under no obligation to cite that source—*unless you, in fact, are under an obligation to cite that source*. Who decides? The members of the community for whom and to whom you produce your text decides what is common knowledge and what isn't and the various contexts within that community where citation of a source is necessary. Common knowledge can differ from subject to subject, community to community, and thus, can be difficult sometimes to identify. To avoid plagiarizing, one should acknowledge the source from which the ideas or material originally came, as best as can be determined. This acknowledgement of a source is typically referred to as **citation**. The delivery of information relating to the publication or presentation of source material (a book's or article's bibliographic information, for example) is referred to as **documentation**.

Unfortunately, simply citing sources for every bit of knowledge that you are uncertain

of in your text has its own dangers:

1. It can detract from your credibility. It alerts your reader to the fact that you are not a full member of the community, not immersed enough in the community to know what's common knowledge and what isn't.
2. It can make your text difficult to read.

Good Faith Efforts

Most responsible scholars who have studied plagiarism in depth agree that scholars and students who make good faith efforts to cite their sources should not be punished when they erroneously cite sources, fail to cite sources, do not adequately paraphrase or summarize source material, or incorrectly follow the punctuation rules for citation and documentation of sources (e.g., fail to place quotation marks around copied material when the source of that material, nevertheless, has been clearly identified. In other words, the primary criteria for punishing plagiarism should be the *intent* of the person accused and our sense of whether the act rises to the level of **academic dishonesty**. Which is why some scholars want to make intent a defining feature. But there are other complications.

Not all plagiarism—even intentional plagiarism—rises to the level of academic dishonesty. Although many teachers and scholars find this claim hard to believe, in practice, it is true. In *Crisis on Campus: Confronting Academic Misconduct*, Wilfried Decoo notes how complicated the integration of source material can be, even for the most experienced scholars: "[A]t what point does a rephrased sentence become 'sufficiently different' to be allowed? One can easily understand why students [and the rest of us, too, for that matter] can get confused. On the one hand, the message says 'read the passage and then express it in your own words;' on the other hand, 'paraphrasing [can be] plagiarism'" (p. 121). Glynda Hull and Mike Rose argue that plagiarists making the effort to adapt source material (rather than simply adopting it) are doing what successful non-plagiarists do, just less successfully: "Interact with the text, relate it to your own experiences, derive your own meaning from it" (p. 150).

Decoo suggests that the quantity of plagiarized material in practice is and should be a major criterion in determining how we view specific cases of plagiarism (p. 129). He does note that context also must be a factor in determining plagiarism. The same amount of plagiarized material can be serious in one case but not serious in another context (p. 129). Decoo warns us that "the intense attention paid to plagiarism in the past few decades" could have a chilling effect on intellectual scholarship, if we don't watch out (p. 131).

Plagiarism vs. Copyright Infringement

Our use of legal metaphors (e.g., "stealing") when talking about plagiarism can be misleading. There are no U. S. laws against plagiarism, only institutional policies against it. The U. S., of course, does have laws against copyright infringement, which

can involve plagiarism, but that crime has a much narrower definition than plagiarism. It requires that the copying be substantial and the person doing the infringing have benefited economically from it. In other words, not all copyright infringement involves plagiarism, and not all plagiarism rises to the level of copyright infringement.

Forms of Written Plagiarism

Plagiarism comes in many forms¹:

- **Word-for-word plagiarism:** copying words, phrases, sentences, even whole passages from someone else's text without acknowledging the source. Putting word-for-word copying in quotation marks while still failing to cite the source is still plagiarism.
- **Paraphrasing plagiarism:** changing the words of a sentence or passage or whole work and submitting them as one's own without acknowledging the source.
- **Plagiarism of secondary sources:** copying quotations, paraphrases, summaries, and/or just references to an original source taken from a secondary source without double-checking the quotation or reference information and without citing the secondary source.
- **Plagiarism of the form of a source:** using the organization of an argument or report of information without acknowledging the source of the form, even if the content is completely different.
- **Plagiarism of ideas:** using an idea or ideas from another source without acknowledging that source, even if the ideas are presented in a different form and with different words.
- **Plagiarism of authorship:** simply putting one's name on an entire text produced by someone else and thus, claiming to have created that text.

Some of these forms may surprise some people. Some scientists, in fact, might be shocked to discover that their routine use of the conventional organization of a report of empirical research (intro, lit review, methodology, results, discussion, & implications) could be construed as plagiarism. It never is so construed, of course, if for no other reason than that such an arrangement is common knowledge.

But what about "plagiarism of secondary sources"? I've asked a number of academics if they have ever simply used source material quoted in a secondary source without going back to the original. Virtual all of them reported having done so.

Kinds of Plagiaristic Activity

Not all plagiarism is the same. Not all plagiarism is intentional. We can identify three categories of plagiaristic behaviors from the research on plagiarism: intentional, unintentional, and developmental.

¹ Adapted from Brian Martin's "Plagiarism: A Misplaced Emphasis," *Journal of Information Ethics* 3.2 (Fall 1994): 36-47.

- **Unintentional plagiarism.** As Wells notes, use of source material in writing is “more of an art than we generally realize, full of pitfalls for students . . .” (63). And research has shown, without doubt, that students—and people generally, for that matter—plagiarize unintentionally. Unintentional plagiarism has several causes:
 1. Inadvertent copying can be due to *inadequate knowledge* of how to integrate source material into one’s work, which can be due to inadequate instruction and/or inadequate learning. Support for claims of unintentional plagiarism due to inadequate knowledge comes not only from teachers’ anecdotal evidence but also from quantitative empirical research, focus group research, and individual student self-reports.

Perhaps the most compelling of this research is Miguel Roig’s study, reported in his 1997 article “Can Undergraduate Students Determine Whether Text Has Been Plagiarized?” Roig developed a “Plagiarism Knowledge Survey” that included an original passage followed by 6 different paraphrases of that original passage. Two of these paraphrases were identified as acceptable (not plagiarized) by 4 independent judges from English and Psychology. The rest were identified as plagiarized to various degrees. A sample population of 231 undergraduate students from 2 private colleges was asked to identify the plagiarized and non-plagiarized paraphrases. 72% of these students correctly identified the 2 correctly paraphrased versions. However, nearly 50% of these students also identified other versions as correctly paraphrased, not plagiarized. Roig concluded, “If PK scores reflect the students’ own paraphrasing practices, the present findings represent evidence for the position that the majority of students probably engage in inadvertent plagiarism.”

In 1999, Roig reported on a further study, in which he asked 196 undergraduates to actually paraphrase themselves the original passage from his earlier PKS. Based on a definition of plagiarism as “the appropriation of strings of 5 consecutive words or longer” from the original passage, Roig determined that between 41% and 68% of the paraphrases consisted of plagiarism. In a second study with a different sample of 196 undergraduates, Roig used a textbook passage that was easier to read and found that between 9% and 19% of the paraphrased paragraphs included plagiarized material. This study, like Roig’s earlier study, showed that unintentional plagiarism is clearly possible, if not probable, depending on the difficulty of the source material being paraphrased or summarized.

Further compelling evidence for unintentional plagiarism comes from focus group research. Lori Power, for example, conducted focus groups with 31 first- and second-year undergraduates, along with eleven individual interviews, at a small Maine university. Part of what she found was that student misunderstanding about what constituted and did not constitute plagiarism

"became a frequently recurring phenomenon among the participants" (650). In a separate, impromptu surveying of 61 incoming first-year students, Power asked them "If you rewrite something you get from a book completely in your own words, do you need to cite that?" Only 14 of the 61 students answered correctly, "Yes." Power concluded that these students "have only a superficial understanding of what [plagiarism] means" and thus, undoubtedly have "a difficult time applying that definition in real situations" (650).

2. ***Different cultures may have different understandings of what constitutes authorship and of when and how sources should be cited.*** Joel Bloch rightly points out, the relationship between plagiarism as conceived in Western academic cultures and understandings of what authorship is in non-Western cultures is much more complex than we might think.

For example, there has been considerable debate over how different Asian attitudes toward plagiarism are from those of Western academic cultures. Based on his study of Japanese education, Dryden believes that there is "one undeniable conclusion: plagiarism is not the culturally universal transgression that many Western academics assume it to be." Dryden, Sowden, and others, then, believe that what is considered plagiarism in Western academic cultures is often considered acceptable practice in educational and scholarly contexts within these non-Western societies—and thus, international students from these cultures should be expected to inadvertently plagiarize.

On the other hand, Dilin Liu argues "that the claim that copying others' writing as one's own is allowed, taught and/or encouraged in China is not accurate" and that "the concept of 'plagiarism' as immoral practice has existed in China for a very long time" (235). One source of the resistance to the idea of cultural differences in authorship expectations may be explained as part of anyone's and everyone's resistance to being identified as "Other." Bloch, paraphrasing linguist Alton Becker, writes, "[W]hen you tell someone they are different, they think you mean they are inferior" (140). As Bloch points out, there is a "danger of dichotomizing concepts of memory, imitation, and originality across cultures [such that we] can oversimplify the complexity of these concepts" (148).

The research does seem clear that students in Asian and other non-Western cultures are not taught to cheat, but it appears equally true that their cultures often include substantial periods of imitation prior to allowing students to produce original texts. Research has shown that Asian and some other non-Western cultures tend to emphasize the lower levels of learning in Bloom's Taxonomy (recall & comprehension) rather than have their students practice application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Together, these pedagogical emphases throughout the school years can become habituated in student practices, making it difficult for students from these cultures to adequately learn Western citation requirements.

Chris Shei provides a set of distinctions for plagiaristic behaviors of Chinese students that allows us to see the complexity of the culture-plagiarism relationship and how the claims of both sides on this issue may have validity. These distinctions might well apply to plagiaristic behaviors in many other non-Western and indigenous cultures, too. Shei's three categories of plagiaristic behaviors are as follows:

- **Blatant stealing**, where the person copies entire "text" or parts of text and submits it as his or her own work with few, if any, changes. Shei states that this kind of plagiarism "is not culture specific" (4) and is considered cheating in every culture.
- **Close imitation**, where the person closely follows the content, organization, and expression of an already existing text. In some cultures, such imitation is employed as a mode of learning.
- **Integrated borrowing**, where the person embeds in her or his new text certain aspects of an already existing text (phrases or sentences in writing, for example) without properly acknowledging the already existing text (3). This adapting of a text requires the person to absorb aspects of the text, to make those aspects part of his or her own thinking. In writing, Shei argues that integrated borrowing amounts to what some Western scholars now call "patchwriting" (see below under "Developmental Plagiarism").

It's also true that some non-Western learning cultures, even in higher education, have much looser strictures against plagiarism than do Western learning cultures.

3. **Cryptomnesia**, or unconscious plagiarism, where writers have internalized knowledge so well that they have simply forgotten that it did not originate with them, may be a source of plagiarism. Cognitive psychologist and cryptomnesia researcher Richard Marsh explains, "When you put people into a creative task like coming up with new ideas or solving puzzles, they're directing conscious processing at the task itself, which leaves fewer resources to monitor [the sources of their ideas]." Research conducted throughout the 1990s and into this century has shown that cryptomnesia is a lot more common than we might think.

Marsh & Bower write:

Cryptomnesia is the unconscious influence of memory that causes current thoughts to be (wrongly) experienced as novel or original inventions Cryptomnesia may occur whenever people compose a melody, solve a pressing problem, write a verse of poetry, or generate a research idea under the belief that the product is original and stems from their own creativity; in fact, however, what was generated is someone else's innovation (or even one's own) encountered sometime previously and then forgotten. When cryptomnesia arises in published literature or

scholarly ideas, the phenomenon constitutes unconscious or inadvertent plagiarism.

The research isn't clear how closely the language of the copied material can be when caused by cryptomnesia, but it seems likely that such material is limited linguistically. Ideas could be far-reaching, perhaps, but exact wording and phrasing is probably not very extensive. That is, it's doubtful that I can place in my memory a particularly long passage and reproduce it *word-for-word* or as a close paraphrase as if it is my own, although students sometimes do memorize and remember longish poems and mathematical formulas. It seems more likely that a longish plagiarized passage is either intentional, developmental, or due to carelessness.

4. **Carelessness**, especially in note taking (e.g., failure to record the source of some exactly copied wording in one's notes) is probably far more likely to be a cause of unintentional plagiarism. There are lots of examples, such as quoting material in your notes, forgetting to cite the source, and then copying the quoted material, thinking that it is your own.

Here's another all too common example from research papers and reports: After reading lots of sources and taking notes, the writer begins writing her literature review, while continuing to do research. She includes long summaries in some places, including appropriate citations of sources. But as she encounters new sources during her research, she decides to incorporate new summaries in with the others. She breaks apart a long summary by entering a summary of ideas from the new source, and she includes the appropriate citation for the new source, but she forgets that now, she needs to cite the source for the orphaned material, now separated from the earlier, longer summary—and its citation.

- **Developmental plagiarism** (including what's called *patchwriting*) occurs when an outsider (a person not fully integrated into the community that she or he is addressing) attempts to mimic the language, organization, and ideas of that community but in doing so, includes exact wording that is not common knowledge. **Patchwriting**, for example, is a strategy inexperienced writers use to learn the ideas and forms of expression of the community they are writing to. The writer becomes so absorbed in trying to fit into the community that she or he neglects the community's strictures against plagiarizing.

Below are examples of acceptable paraphrasing and then patchwriting. In both cases, I have bold-printed exact language shared by the texts and underlined words that have been only changed slightly.

Original passage from Atkinson, M. (2002). Fifty million viewers can't be wrong: Professional wrestling, sports-entertainment, and mimesis. *Sociology of Sport Journal*, 9 (1), 47-66.

"Where mainstream sports typically refrain from displaying unapologetically violent acts, professional wrestling dives in head first. A large portion of wrestling's cultural appeal is generated by the psychological arousal/excitement provided by witnessing highly aggressive and violent forms of physical interaction in this sphere. Wrestling takes that which is pushed behind the scenes of social life and places it in the center ring" (Atkinson, 2002, pp. 62-63).

Acceptable Paraphrase:

Most *sports* do not encourage blatant acts of violence while *professional wrestling* embraces the same behaviour. Wrestling *appeals* to audiences because people enjoy watching aggressive and violent acts in the ring. What is normally not condoned in *social* life is made acceptable in wrestling (Atkinson, 2002, pp. 62-63).

Unacceptable Patchwriting:

Mainstream sports refrain from showing unremorseful violent acts while *professional wrestling unapologetically* revels in the same type of *violence*. *A large part of wrestling's appeal is generated by the very aggressive and violent interaction in this* sport. While such violence is usually *behind the scenes of social life*, it is the *centre* of wrestling's existence. (Atkinson, 2002, pp. 62-63)

We can see differences that distinguish the above paraphrasing and patchwriting:

- Most of the shared language used in the paraphrase is isolated vocabulary. Sentence structures generally differ from the original. Not so with the patchwriting, where the sentence structures are much the same.
- Most of the shared vocabulary in the paraphrase includes words that are commonly used. One could argue that the phrasing "aggressive and violent" ought have quotation marks around them. On the other hand, the amount of shared vocabulary and of grammatical structures used in the patchwriting is considerably more than in the paraphrase. The patchwriting shifts words and phrases around but does little to actually provide new language.

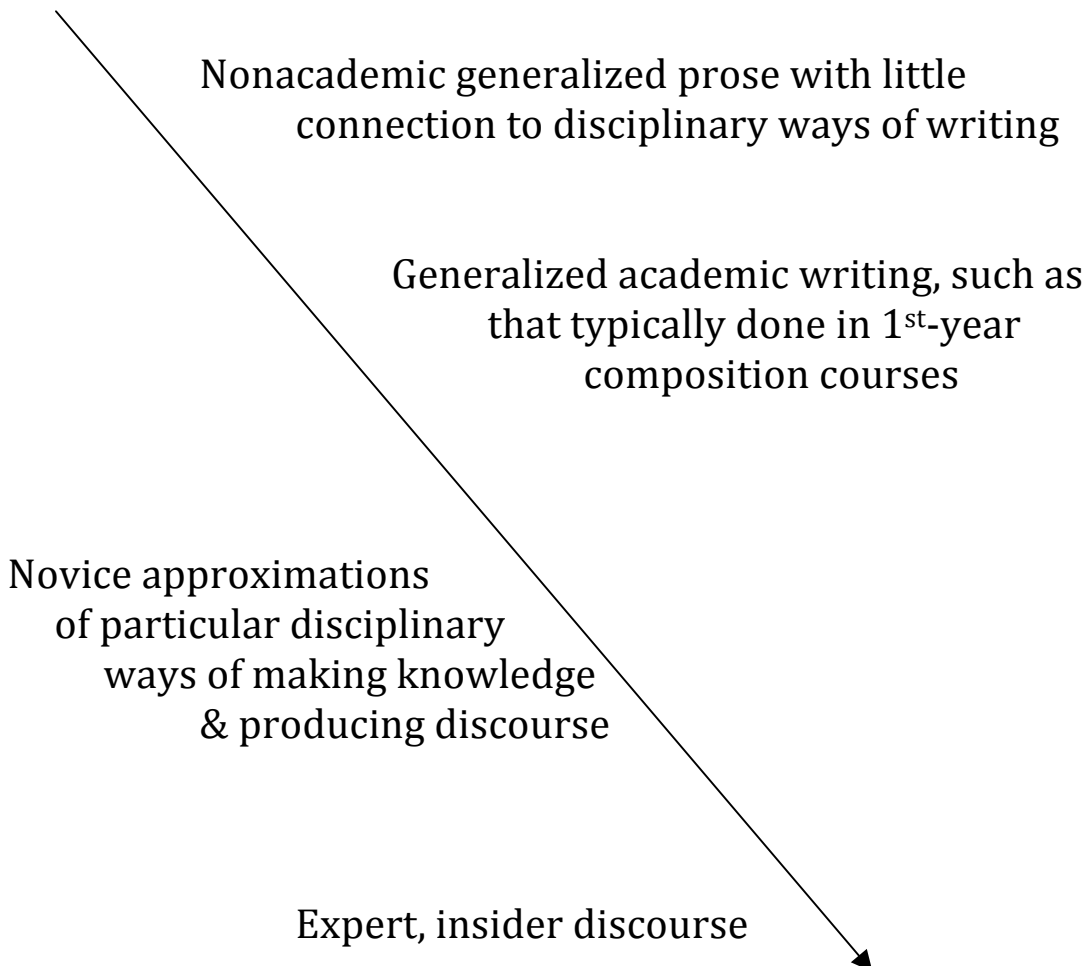
Developmental plagiarism can be seen as another form of unintentional plagiarism, although, technically speaking, the writer does intend to sound like her or his source or sources. Perhaps the best way of viewing developmental plagiarism is as a mode or stage in learning, an extension of the way that human beings typically go about learning: observation, imitation, repetition, trial-and-error, revision, and retrieval.

In order to best understand how patchwriting can be "developmental"—that is, can be a stage in student learning—we should look at "The Learning To Write Continuum" on the next page. This continuum is based on the work of Susan Peck MacDonald from her book *Professional Academic Writing in the Humanities and*

Social Sciences (Southern Illinois University Press, 1994). It shows the development seen in students' learning to produce academic discourse and the major milestones of that process, beginning with generalized academic writing (the kind of writing often taught in 1st-Year Composition courses) moving into novice approximations of disciplinary discourses (the kind of writing expected of most students as they work through their majors) and finally to expert, insider discourse. It is unclear if many—or any—undergraduate students actually achieve this final milestone before graduation from college. Indeed, it's not clear that many graduate students achieve this stage of writerly development by the time they get their final degrees. It's important to reiterate that this development is incremental; the arrow indicates a continuum, a movement from being an "outsider" in relation to disciplinary discourse to being an "insider."

Patchwriting, then, can be seen as a potential strategy, especially evident as the writer attempts to move from generalized academic writing to more novice approximations of disciplinary discourse. But patchwriting is also possible as the student writer moves into generalized academic writing. Any effort to move from being outsider to being insider brings with it the danger of plagiarism.

THE LEARNING TO WRITE CONTINUUM



- **Intentional plagiarism** is defined by behavior that falls under the larger category of cheating, where the writer deliberately attempts to pass off work done by someone else as her or his own. That said, we need to acknowledge that *intentional plagiarism frequently is as much the result of educational factors as lapses in ethics*. A number of extenuating circumstances have been identified as reasons why students give in to the temptation to cheat—AND all of them have also been identified by researchers as significant obstacles to student learning:
 - 1) Pressure to succeed: from parents, from self, because of financial aid.
 - 2) Peer pressure.
 - 3) Inadequate time management. Efficient use of time is crucial to academic success. Failure to adequately manage one's time can result in not having enough time to complete assignments, thereby increasing the temptation to plagiarize.
 - 4) Workload pressure.
 - 5) Cognitive overload. When students are assigned a lot of work at the same time, they can experience cognitive overload, and plagiarism offers a way of reducing that overload.
 - 6) Lack of motivation, which may be due to students' inability to motivate themselves and/or due to inauthentic and/or boring assignments.
 - 7) Failure to value the need for citation. Several recent studies suggest that students differ dramatically from their teachers on how seriously they consider plagiarism. Based on her ethnographic study of university students, Susan Blum concludes that "our students are different from us, textually speaking. They listen to different music, they surf different Internet sites, they watch different movies, they hold different values and have different priorities," and these differences "contribute significantly to the disjunction between how they and we understand the appropriate use of source materials, the accompanying rules of academic citation, plagiarism, and cheating Students' cultures are driven by more informal principles and values informed by sharing and remixing" (5).
 - 8) Low self-efficacy. **Self-efficacy** is the level of belief one has in her or his capability to accomplish a particular task. Albert Bandura operationally defines both high and low self-efficacy in his essay on self-efficacy in the *Encyclopedia of Human Behavior*:
 - **High Self-Efficacy:** "People with high assurance in their capabilities approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided They set themselves challenging goals and maintain strong commitment to them. They heighten and sustain their efforts in the face of failure. They quickly recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks. They attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills which are acquirable. They approach threatening situations with assurance that they can exercise control over them" ("Self-Efficacy," ¶2).
 - **Low Self-Efficacy:** "In contrast, people who doubt their capabilities shy away

from difficult tasks which they view as personal threats. They have low aspirations and weak commitment to the goals they choose to pursue. When faced with difficult tasks, they dwell on their personal deficiencies, on the obstacles they will encounter, and all kinds of adverse outcomes rather than concentrate on how to perform successfully. They slacken their efforts and give up quickly in the face of difficulties. They are slow to recover their sense of efficacy following failure or setbacks" ("Self-Efficacy," ¶3). People with low self-efficacy, then, may be more likely to turn to plagiarism as a solution to their belief that they are incapable of accomplishing the work required of them.

The fact that the above factors have been shown to impact student learning, as well as create a context for plagiarizing, should suggest to us a need to address these obstacles not as moral failings but as educational problems. Sadly, while all of these factors have been researched and research-based strategies for addressing them have been offered, little has been done institutionally to help students deal with these problems. In general, students have been left to their own devices to learn how to best manage their time, to best deal with workloads and cognitive overload, to self-motivate, to generally address the various "outside" pressures they face that impact their learning, and to self-regulate their confidence in themselves as learners. And while we might acknowledge differences in student cultural attitudes toward technology and intellectual property, we rarely more deeply explore these differences with students. Typically, we simply tell them they have to accept traditional conventions of intellectual property or suffer the consequences. And worse, we tend to ridicule student cultural beliefs and characterize them as inferior. As such, we should count ourselves as much to blame for students' intentional plagiarism as students themselves, if we have not made an effort to incorporate these issues into our pedagogies.

Adopting versus Adapting

One way of describing the above difference between genuine paraphrasing, intentional plagiarism, and patchwriting is through the distinction between **adopting** source material and **adapting** source material.

- When **adopting**, the source material is assumed or copied mindlessly. Generally, adopting source material involves little manipulation or change of the source material. When writers **adopt** text, they simply copy ideas and/or language from sources without much reflection or deliberation about how these ideas and/or language might fit with their discursive purposes. Thus, while some isolated words might be changed, the overall structure of the textual material remains the same. The most flagrant manifestation of adopting behavior, of course, is *authorship plagiarism*, where the plagiarist merely substitutes her or his name for that of the true author, while the text as a whole remains unaltered.
- When **adapting** source material, the text will show signs of a more mindful selection

and modification of the source material in order to accommodate differences in purpose and audience between the original source and the target text. When writers *adapt* text, they reflect and deliberate on the integration of the source material into their discourse, and the text will typically show evidence of that effort to integrate the source material, although such reflection can lead the writer to word-for-word copying of source material, if the writer determines that such copying is appropriate. **Example:** Employing a previously used business memo in a context very similar to that of the source memo.

The Contexts of Plagiarism

In addressing student understandings of intellectual property and plagiarism, we must confront a reality that most of us do not acknowledge and, when confronted by it, resist acknowledging but which is, nevertheless, a reality. ***In some contexts (indeed in many contexts), plagiarism is acceptable—in fact, not only acceptable, but expected and encouraged!!*** Audience expectations and the intellectual property conventions of the community for which the text is produced determine whether and in what way sources are cited. Brian Martin distinguishes between two major contextual categories:

- **Independent (what Martin calls “competitive”) contexts.** Most discussions of plagiarism assume an independent, competitive context of authorship, where the claim for ideas and expression is typically employed to determine one’s status and advancement of status within a community. Plagiarism, in this context, is seen as a threat to an individual’s status within that community.
- **Institutionalized contexts.** In much of our everyday world, an individual’s claim to “official” authorship does not represent a means of achieving and advancing one’s status. In these contexts, the individual works and writes within a culture (often hierarchical) that places greater value on the collective (the corporate group), and plagiarism is acceptable, even expected and encouraged.

Examples of institutionalized contexts include the following:

- Many (maybe even most) business situations, where the individual’s status is determined by being a “team” player, not by being an individual author.
- Speechwriting and ghostwriting for others, such as politicians, celebrities, business executives, and college & university administrators, where the individual writer is hired to create text for another and paid not to claim authorship.
- Bureaucratic writing for colleges and universities, such as writing mission statements and policies.

Even within more pedagogical academic contexts, institutionalized authorship exists. Instructors often plagiarize colleagues’ syllabi, PowerPoint slides for lectures, and assignments. Thesis and dissertation directors often provide content

suggestions in their feedback on their students' texts. Those faculty members writing accreditation self-studies and other program evaluations often will plagiarize from past reports and from others' reports. And faculty members have confided to me that in writing up statements of their teaching philosophies, they copied phrasing—and even longer passages—from others' statements.

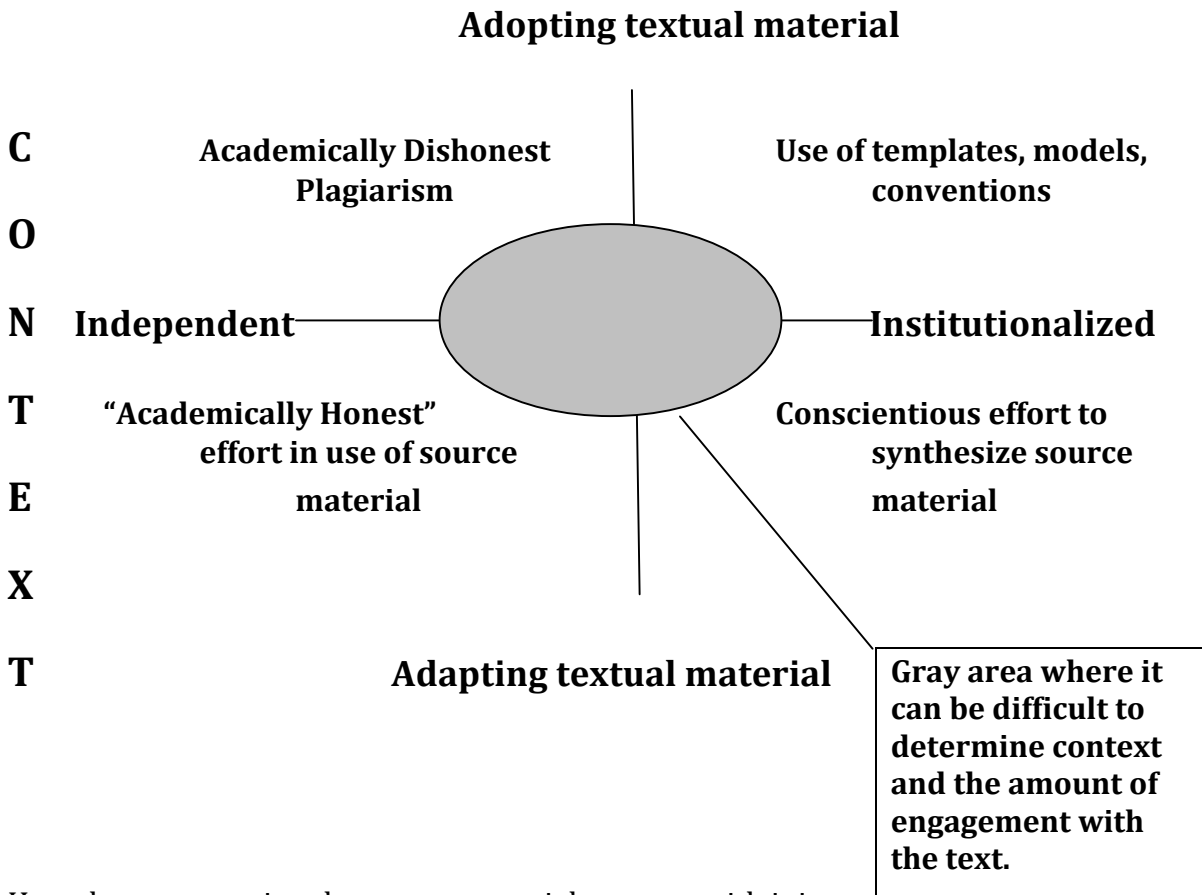
The main point to be made here is that plagiarism is ubiquitous and shouldn't be considered a dirty word. It is sometimes a problem that needs to be corrected. And sometimes, it is simply a commonly accepted strategy for efficiently completing one's work.

What students need to understand, however, is that only very, very rarely in their schoolwork are they located within an institutional context that allows plagiarism. Students, then, are held to a double standard, because plagiarism is rightly not seen as educationally productive. That said, students need to be made aware of the distinction between institutionalized and independent contexts, because many (if not all) of them, at some point, will enter into institutionalized contexts. Students need to learn that school primarily is a site of learning how to create "original" texts. Institutions of higher learning and their faculty should understand that students also need to learn how to transition between independent and institutionalized contexts. What message do students get when they move from the classroom, where plagiarism is unacceptable, to a "real-world" context of an internship or service learning course, where plagiarism is institutionalized and expected in some cases—if they have not been introduced to the distinction between independent and institutionalized contexts? No wonder students sometimes think academic citation and documentation amounts to meaningless busywork that teachers assign, because they have no idea how the "real world" works.

Plagiarism Investigation

We clearly need to bring a research-based knowledge of plagiarism to every plagiarism case that we investigate. One way of understanding when plagiarism becomes academically dishonest is to view the adopting/adapting distinction and the distinction between independent and institutionalized contexts as intersecting continua (see next page):

ENGAGEMENT WITH TEXT



How the person using the source material engages with it is presented as a vertical continua between two extreme poles of adopting and adapting. The context in which the use of the source material is being used is presented as horizontal continua between two extreme poles of independent contexts and institutionalized contexts.

This graphic reveals that plagiarism is not really academically dishonest except when a person intentionally adopts a text within an independent (or “competitive”) context—that is, within only one of the four quadrants of source material use created by the intersecting axes.

A plagiarism investigation, however, must be more than simply an abstract analysis. Every case comes with its own context. What we know about plagiarism strongly suggests the need for care and a conscientious attention to fairness when dealing with plagiarism accusations. The following questions should be addressed—and probably in the following order:

1. *Were ideas or language of a source or sources employed by the writer without acknowledgment of the source—that is, is it really plagiarism?*

If not, then further investigation is not warranted. If the writer acknowledged the source but did not appropriately format the citation (e.g., fails to put quotation marks around quoted material), then the case presents an opportunity to educate the writer on proper citation formatting.

2. *Does the amount or significance of the plagiarism rise to the level where further investigation is warranted?*

If not, then further investigation is not warranted. Unless a pattern of plagiarism is revealed, small glitches in source acknowledgement and/or citation can be viewed like typographical errors, not evidence of a serious absence of knowledge or of an effort to cheat.

3. *Was the plagiarism committed within a context where the use of others ideas and/or language is considered acceptable?*

If so, then further investigation is not warranted. A student writer might misinterpret an assignment, assuming that the assignment allows for institutionalized plagiarism when you did not intend for it to, and the appropriate response to such a case is to ask the student to redo the assignment. The best way to determine if the student has made such a misinterpretation is through the one-on-one conference.

4. *Does it appear that the writer made an effort to adapt the ideas and/or language of the source, rather than merely adopt those ideas and/or language?*

If it appears the writer attempted to adapt the source material, then the writer may have unintentionally or inadvertently plagiarized and further investigation of the effort as plagiarism may not be warranted, although investigation into why the student unintentionally plagiarized is a pedagogical imperative. Sometimes, intent simply is not clear, and the only truly effective way to determine if a student writer has unintentionally plagiarized is by talking to the student in a one-on-one conference. Mechanized detection, such as Turnitin.com, will identify copied material but NOT the intent behind it. And as the research shows beyond a doubt, simply identifying copied material does NOT constitute sufficient evidence of intentional plagiarism.

5. *Does the plagiarism appear to be the result of a lack of familiarity with the conventions of the community the writer is attempting to address?*

If so, then the plagiarism may not have been intended to deceive, and further investigation may not be warranted. Patchwriting should be viewed as an educational opportunity.

Crucially important, then, in any investigation of student plagiarism accusations is ***the teacher-student conference***, where questions of intent can be examined. Too

often, the teacher-student conference is viewed as a criminal interrogation, where the investigator seeks to maneuver the criminal student into a confession. However, as responsible scholarship on plagiarism tells us, many students who plagiarize do so without consciously intending to do so. Instead, the teacher-student conference should seek to reveal the reasons for the plagiarism and the best educational response to resolve the problem. The teacher-student conference should be viewed as a crucially important investigative tool that should not be abused. Students should be given due process and treated with respect. The goal should be to understand the following:

- If plagiarism has really occurred;
- If the amount or significance of it rises to the level where further investigation is warranted;
- If the student understood the context in which the text was produced—that is, not mistaking the context as institutionalized;
- The intent of the student: If the student appears to have been trying to **adapt** the ideas &/or language of the source(s) and not simply **adopting** source material; and
- If there are extenuating & mitigating circumstances involved.

Ways to Help Students Avoid Plagiarizing

Over the last 25 years or so, responsible scholarship on student plagiarism has increasingly emphasized addressing the problem proactively—that is, implementing ways to help students NOT plagiarize. The following are tips drawn from that scholarship:

1. View plagiarism, even much intentional plagiarism—perhaps plagiaristic behaviors—as an educational opportunity: an opportunity to help students improve their abilities to integrate source material into their own writing and thinking; an opportunity to help students understand better how academic writing amounts to broad, ongoing “conversations”; an opportunity to help students understand the conventions of the particular disciplinary discourse they are seeking to use; and an opportunity to help students become more ethical writers and persons. Be a teacher before being a judge. Teach to prevention, which can save you from having to respond to plagiarism.
2. Familiarize *yourself* with the research-based scholarship on plagiarism and let it guide your responses to plagiarism cases.
3. Know the discourse conventions and citation/documentation standards of your discipline and communicate them to your students. Research suggests that not only undergraduates AND graduate students but also university and college professors can be unclear on exactly what plagiarism is and is not.
4. Teach note taking. It’s not just summarizing, paraphrasing, and quoting. Teach your

students how to read source material, determine relevant information, and digest that information, AND how to include subjective responses, which can connect source information with personal experience, with prior knowledge, and with information provided by other sources.

5. Teach students how to effectively summarize individual sources. Practicing summarizing forces students to actually engage with the source, and not simply skim the source.
6. Teach your students how to synthesize source materials—that is, to summarize what multiple sources have to say on a topic, both where they agree and where they disagree. A major reason for unintentional plagiarism is a lack of familiarity with how to bring together information from multiple sources—that is, how to see relationships and overlappings among sources and how to summarize multiple sources together. Novice writers tend to present source material source-by-source, but source synthesis involves identifying meaningful information and suppressing irrelevant information (summarizing), finding connections among different sources (synthesizing), and summarizing that information together (integration)—that is, summarizing ideas put forward by the multiple sources, not simply summarizing each source one-by-one.
7. Teach your students how to integrate source material into discourse. Source integration involves more than citation. Writers incorporate source material in order to support their claims, refute counter-claims, illustrate a claim, and provide background information. Integration takes three forms: quotation, paraphrase, and summary. All three require introduction: "According to Nelms, . . ."; "As Nelms has written, . . ."; "Nelms has argued that . . ."; "In his lecture, Nelms stated that . . ."; etc. Graff and Birkenstein provide an extensive list of the conventional frameworks for integrating others' ideas with your own ideas and the contexts and rationale for the use of these frameworks.
8. Teach your students how to cite and document sources. Citation and documentation are dry topics for discussion and are best learned through practice. Lecturing on citation and documentation is NOT an effective pedagogy. Instead, you might provide exercises in revising plagiarized passages, thus requiring students to practice citing and documenting source material. And in fact, perhaps the best way to teach citation and documentation is by showing students a good online source for citing and documenting sources in your discipline and just relying on them eventually absorbing these conventions through practice both in your class and beyond it.

One obstacle in learning to document sources is the confusion of what information is needed for documentation and how that information should be organized in presenting that documentation. Remember, documentation simply means providing the bibliographic information for each source. Documentation *styles* provide the rules for organizing that information—and, as well all know, different

documentation styles organize the information differently. So, a good beginning is to help students understand that distinction. One way of doing that is to have them fill out, for each source they use, a source documentation template like the one provided in the Appendix at the end of this document.

9. Discuss with students the differences between *institutional* contexts where plagiarism is accepted and *independent or competitive* contexts, where it is not. Make sure that students understand that they will be expected to adhere to Western academic ideas of authorship and plagiarism. Most academic assignments present independent contexts, not institutionalized ones. A good rule of thumb for students is to assume that all academic assignments present independent contexts, unless they are specifically told otherwise.
10. Define and discuss plagiarism thoroughly with students, allowing students themselves to express their thoughts and feelings about plagiarism. Perhaps even allow students in your class to help you shape a policy on plagiarism that would be allowable at your institution. Research suggests that many students have strong feelings about plagiarism and also have misconceptions about it.
11. Clearly describe the plagiarism policy your course will be working under. You might provide a printed statement (textbook chapter or handout) defining plagiarism from your discipline's perspective, offering examples, and outlining the consequences.
12. Be specific about your expectations of students, especially with regard to citation and documentation, collaboration, and self-plagiarism—that is, turning in the same paper for assignments in different courses. Collaboration is especially important. Some teachers want students to talk to other students about their writing and to get feedback and share ideas. Other teachers prefer that students not discuss their work with other students.
13. Offer guidelines for collaborative writing, if you assign or allow collaboratively written papers, and require individually written and confidential progress reports and final evaluations from each group member of each group member, including self-evaluations.
14. Discuss hypothetical cases. Ask your students how they would handle these cases, and let them know how you would handle them.
15. Consider making plagiarism the subject of a writing assignment. This strategy is especially powerful in a writing course. Have students read sources on plagiarism (see the "References and Other Readings on Plagiarism" listed below). Maybe have them practice summarizing individual sources and synthesizing sources on particular topics. Maybe have them share their summaries and syntheses in small groups. Maybe have students write up a proposal for a plagiarism policy.
16. Make your assignments clear and provide them to students in writing. Provide

contexts for writing assignments. Include a purpose and an audience for the text to be produced. Let the students role-play as experts on the subject matter.

17. Where appropriate, break longer assignments into component parts and set deadlines for completion of each part. Then, evaluate each part as it is submitted.
18. Allow students opportunities to receive feedback from you and then to revise their written work. This process allows you to catch unintentional plagiarism early and educate students in proper integration, citation, and documentation methods.
19. Have students write reflections on the processes they used when writing their papers or other written documents, describing how they chose their topic, the processes they used to complete the assignment, and the obstacles they encountered and how they overcame them. This reflective assignment forces students to talk in-depth about their work. Writers who plagiarize sometimes do not take the time to become familiar with their subject matter and, of course, often do not have a process they care to describe. Also, having them reflect on their writing processes can help them make decisions about how to improve those processes.
20. Hold one-on-one conferences with your students to talk about their writing processes.

Plagiarism Detection

This section might seem out of place to many. Some might say that detecting plagiarism is actually the first stage in plagiarism investigation. I place plagiarism detection last in order to make a point: that detecting plagiarism is the least important aspect of student plagiarism. Not that it isn't important, but it is not as important as understanding why plagiarism occurs and understanding the complexities that surround that understanding. That said, detecting plagiarism of any kind is, nevertheless, the first step in addressing the problem pedagogically.

The first thing to note about detecting plagiarism is that sometimes you can be wrong. Scholarship and anecdotal testimony record a lot of student claims of false plagiarism accusations, and these student reports should concern us. Some argue that student claims of false accusation simply represent lies students tell, but that argument implies a deeply cynical view of students—and humanity generally—and contempt for the basic hope of education. Of course, some students will lie about having plagiarized but scholarship on student self-reporting suggests the number is fewer than you might think. And given the antagonism that educators typically display toward those who plagiarize, is it any wonder that students would want to avoid having that antagonism aimed in their direction?

Moreover, we have scholarship reporting on false plagiarism accusations. In an article in *College English* from 1990 ("Anorexia: The Cheating Disorder," *College*

English 52.8 (December 1990): 898-903), writing teacher Richard Murphy tells the story of a particularly distressing false accusation of plagiarism that he made. In a young woman's drafts of a paper on her personal experience with anorexia, Murphy found "[s]omething canned about the writing, its professional sentiment exactly like the cases in the magazines" (898). He accuses her of plagiarism and she finally admits that the experiences were not hers but a friend's, which Murphy doesn't believe. He fails her paper, and the student completes the course. After the semester is over, reading through her journal for the course, Murphy finds a series of entries detailing her hospitalization due to anorexia, and he realizes that her paper really had detailed her own experience, that the "canned" writing and her passivity at being accused of cheating probably indicated her hesitancy in admitting that she was anorexic and possibly her own self-loathing, and that he had pressured and intimidated the student into admitting to something she had not done and had failed her on a paper that should not have been failed and probably taught her to be suspicious and cynical about higher education.

Most of the time, the misidentification of plagiarism occurs when a student becomes genuinely engaged with the subject matter that she or he is writing about and then, produces a better text than the instructor expects. Detecting plagiarism without falling into false accusations of plagiarism can be tricky business. We need to use all our skills and resources as instructors to make sure we do so.

The Plagiarism Detection Process

1. **Textual signals, cues.** Teachers should not read student papers suspiciously, expecting to find plagiarism. That kind of distrust will inevitably undermine education. Consciously looking for plagiarism also blinds the teacher to actual progress being made by the novice writer. That said, teachers should be alert to the signals that should cue the teacher into the possibility of plagiarism. Below are behaviors that should make a teacher suspicious of a text:

- ***Anomalies of style:*** prose style that is noticeably different (a) from the student's typical style and/or (b) from most prose styles of students at that level of academics.
 - ⇒ Does the writing sound too sophisticated for a first-year student?
 - ⇒ Does the text have a sophisticated rhetorical structure that the student author has not impressed you with before?

A student who has been turning in writing with a limited vocabulary and fairly unsophisticated syntax (e.g., few cumulative sentences), who has shown difficulty adequately supporting a thesis, and who then turns in a paper with a wider vocabulary and more sophisticated syntax and effective argument has probably plagiarized. But be careful not to confuse plagiarism with ***thesaurusitis***: the use of words drawn from a thesaurus without first looking

up the words. And don't confuse plagiarism with a student's genuine attempts to use a thesaurus responsibly to increase her or his vocabulary. The latter can occur occasionally, and we want to encourage experimentation with a wider vocabulary.

- ***Anomalies of diction:*** Most undergraduate students are unfamiliar with the concept of levels of diction or levels of discourse formality. They tend to think of all words as equally acceptable in formal writing, no matter how informal. Thus, students who cut-and-paste papers often will mix paragraphs or passages from formal writing with text that they have written themselves, which includes more informal language. Also, those who simply turn in another writer's work may not have changed the elevated diction of the source material to fit their own less formal level of diction.
- ***Mixed citation and/or documentation styles:*** For example, citing in MLA style on one page and then, in APA style on another. Such mixings of citation styles indicate what's been called a ***paste-up***. Paste-ups are not patchwriting. Patchwriting involves the writer's attempt to summarize in *adapting* textual material to the writer's own ideas. Paste-ups, however, involve simply *adopting* passages from multiple other texts.
- ***Lack of documentation or quotations:*** a text with passages of well-written chunks of prose and sophisticated ideas but without any footnotes, references, or works cited. Such a text might well have been taken from a general knowledge source, such as an encyclopedia or popular magazine or website.
- ***Unusual formatting:*** Inconsistent margins, inconsistent table formatting, mixed subhead fonts and styles, and other anomalies of formatting.
- ***Content that is off-topic:*** a text that is on subject matter other than what was assigned or other than what the student had indicated to you earlier she or he would be writing on. Also, if you feel a disconnect between the introduction and the rest of the paper—that is, the paper does not develop the topic that it announces it will be addressing in its introduction—then the bulk of that paper might have been plagiarized. It's also possible, of course, that the student is innocent of plagiarizing and simply misunderstood the assignment or changed topics without telling you or got off-topic as he or she went along. But it may be worth investigating.
- ***Signs of datedness,*** such as no references after some well-past date (e.g. 1985) or if some data presented (e.g., in a table) is dated (e.g., 1981-1994), then you should become a little suspicious—especially if the paper is particularly well written.

- **Anachronisms:** references to past events as if they are currently still in progress (e.g., "Only after the Clinton administration is out of office will the country be safer from international terrorism.")
- **Vagueness in oral discussions,** such as when talking about his or her text, the student is not able to adequately summarize the main points or answer questions about decisions he or she made during the process of writing that text.
- **Smoking guns.**
 - References to an experiment or research study done for the paper that is not included in the paper.
 - You find within the text use of British spelling and/or punctuation—and the student is not British or an international student from an English-speaking former British colony.
 - The text is recognizable to you, one you have read before.
 - The text is one that you wrote.
 - The name of actual author of the text is left on the title page or in the header of a page or more.
 - Reference is made to an institution that's obviously not your institution: e.g., "Here at Southern Indiana, . . ."
 - The headers of the paper include a website URL.
 - At the end of the text, you find a label that states, "Thank you for using TermPaperMania."
 - You find efforts to whiteout any of the above indicators.

2. **Searching online.** The following are the major sources of texts in electronic form:

- **Free and for-sale term paper sites.**
- **The free, visible World Wide Web.**
- **The free, less visible Web:** Sites that provide articles and essays free to users but whose content cannot be located by using a search engine but only by going directly to the site. Some magazines, newspapers, reference works, encyclopedias, and subject-specific sites fall under this category.
- **Paid databases over the Web:** Commercial databases for consumers (such as Northern Light's Special Collection) and databases that libraries subscribe to, containing scholarly journals, newspapers, court cases and so on. Providers like LexisNexis, UMI Proquest, Infotrac, JSTOR, and others fall into this group. To find texts through sites in this category, a person must have access to the database (through password or an on-campus computer at an institution which subscribes to the database) and search on the database directly.

- **CD-ROM resources.** Encyclopedias and some databases available on CD-ROM.

If you suspect the paper may have come from the Internet, try these strategies to find the original:

- a) Identify a phrase from the suspect text that has two or three unusual words in it to use in your online searching. Try several of the large-database, full-text search engines such as Google, and perform an exact phrase search on a word phrase of at least four to six words from a suspect part of the paper. Remember, no search engine covers more than about a third of the visible web, so you should try several engines before you give up.
 - b) Go to your library's online database subscriptions and search on subject-appropriate databases using keyword searches.
3. **Using Plagiarism Detection Services and Software.** A number of different services and software, such as Turnitin.com, exist to help teachers tell if a paper is plagiarized, but none are absolutely foolproof. The bottom line on the use of any of these services is this: Don't rely solely on these services, and never use them surreptitiously; always inform students that their papers could be checked, if not ask for their permission to submit their texts to these tests. A selected list of such services includes the following:

There has been much debate over not simply the usefulness of plagiarism detection services and programs but the pedagogical wisdom of using them to check student writing. Brian Martin concludes in "Plagiarism: policy against cheating or policy for learning?" (<http://www.uow.edu.au/arts/sts/bmartin/pubs/04plag.pdf>) that requiring the use of such services and software creates an atmosphere of distrust that undermines education but that allowing individual students to check their texts for inadvertent plagiarism using these services can be beneficial and does not create distrust. Martin also argues that use of these services by professors for student texts may be warranted "on a case-by-case basis," as a quick way to check suspicious texts. Still, students should be informed that their papers could be checked in this way before they submit them. And, once again, teachers should not rely on these services alone as a way of addressing plagiarism in their classes.

4. **Traditional, manual searching.** In their 2002 study ("Internet Plagiarism among College Students," *Journal of College Student Development* 43.3, pp. 374-385), Scanlon and Neumann found that the numbers of students plagiarizing via the Internet was about the same as the numbers of students plagiarizing conventionally. Their findings suggest that popular beliefs of an epidemic of online cheating may be an overreaction. In "Student Online Plagiarism: How Do

We Respond?" (*College Teaching* 51.4 [Fall 2003]: pp. 161-165), Patrick Scanlon concludes, "Internet plagiarism does present a challenge for colleges, but its prevalence may not be as widespread as popular reports and anecdotal evidence suggest" (161). On the other hand, examining Donald McCabe's research on plagiarism by high school students², Scanlon goes on to suggest that the new generation of students, "reared on the Internet" and, according to McCabe's conclusions, often holding the belief that material on the Internet is free for the taking, may increase the amount of online plagiarism in years to come (162).

If Internet plagiarism is not as prevalent as it has been made out to be but the amount of plagiarism hasn't decreased, then, clearly, we need to focus our attention on the still possible plagiarism of hard copy, plagiarism of material found in printed paper versions of texts: books, articles in journals and magazines, student papers provided by friends, family members, roommates, etc., or printed or printable documents held in fraternity and sorority dormitory files or databases. This fact means, if you suspect a student text has been plagiarized and you can't find the text through an online search, it may be that the original text has yet to make it online but may be in print somewhere out there. You still may have to do a physical library search.

5. **Talking to the suspected student.** The student sometimes will prove to be the best plagiarism detector you have. We should not automatically accuse the student of plagiarism. There is always the possibility of false accusation. Asking the right questions can help you determine the truth:

- "You're writing style in this paper is much improved over what I've been seeing from you. What did you do to improve your writing so quickly?"
- "Some of your writing in this paper is remarkable, but in other parts of the paper, you fall back into a much less sophisticated style. [Provide examples.] What can we do to help you produce more consistently good writing? Have you used someone else's writing without citing your sources?"
- "You use some unusual vocabulary in this paper. [Provide example(s)]. You're not using someone else's words without citing them, are you?"
- "This long passage doesn't sound like your normal style. Is this a quotation where you accidentally forgot the quotation marks?"
- "These ideas look familiar. Did you forget to cite a source here?"
- "You begin your paper stating that it will be about this, but it's not; it's about that. What happened?"
- "None of your sources were written before 1990. Surely, there has been research on this topic since then, hasn't there?"

² See McCabe, "Academic Dishonesty among High School Students," *Adolescence* 34.136 (Winter 1999): 681-687; and McCabe, "Cheating: Why Students Do It and How We Can Help Them Stop," *American Educator* 25.4 (2001): pp. 38-43.

- "I was surprised by the quality of your paper, so I did some investigation into it. Before I tell you what I found out, is there anything you want to tell me about it?" With the appropriately serious demeanor and tone, a well-phrased question like this will often result in a confession. If the student is innocent or just hardened and replies, "No," you can always reveal some innocuous fact and go on.

Why Some Instructors Don't Do More to Stop Students Who Cheat

Research has shown that a significant number of college instructors are reluctant to report cheating. Researcher Donald McCabe summarizes the research this way, "In the majority of cases of trivial cheating, I think most professors turn a blind eye The number who do nothing is very small, but the number who do very little is very large" (Schneider, Alison. "Why Professors Don't Do More To Stop Students Who Cheat." *Chronicle of Higher Education* 45.20 (22 Jan. 1999): ¶ 5). A number of reasons have been given: lack of administrative support; threats of violence; and most importantly, the amount of time it takes to investigate suspected plagiarism.

There are no doubt many good arguments we could use to counter our temptation to ignore perceived plagiaristic activity, but two stand out:

- ***It's in the student's best interest.*** All plagiarism is an opportunity for education, *even intentional plagiarism!* Given what we know of the many reasons for intentional plagiarism, we can see that punishment alone does not address the underlying reasons for the plagiaristic activity, whether it's bad time management, low self-efficacy, inability to self-motivate, pressure to succeed, peer pressure, or a combination of these reasons, which is more likely.
- ***It's in society's best interest.*** Students like to think that college is simply a ticket to a career. Institutions of higher education often portray themselves simply as portals to a better life for each individual student. Higher education at every institution, however, is more than simply a business. College molds future leaders and citizens. Obviously, it is in our society's best interest that college graduates not only be able to communicate well, think critically, problem solve, and have a knowledge of their discipline but also be ethical human beings. Students who get away with cheating not only learn how to cheat; they also come away with the belief that cheating is normal behavior in the pursuit of success. That kind of cynicism will not serve our society well.

Preparing for the Student-Instructor Conference

"Plagiarism irritates, like a thin wood splinter in the edge of one's thumb. With any sort of reasonable perspective, I realize that one student's possibly copying part of one paper on James Joyce is a small matter. In a typical semester, I teach 120 students and read perhaps 600 papers. In a typical

day, I have two classes to prepare and teach, committee meetings to attend, conferences with individual students, the utility bill to pay, a child to pick up from a Cub Scout meeting. But everything I touch rubs the sliver in my thumb and sets its irritation pulsing. As much as I try, I cannot ignore it." – Richard Murphy, "Anorexia: The Cheating Disorder," *College English* 52.8 (December 1990): 898-903.

Many teachers will identify with Richard Murphy's description above. Something that is often left out of the literature on student plagiarism is its affective aspect. Emotions can run high. On the student's side: anxiety, fear, self-loathing, relief, elation. On the instructor's side: distrust, anticipation, irritation, loathing, relief, elation. It's difficult to see any upside to intentional plagiarism. Nevertheless, we should not let emotions set the tone for plagiarism investigation and accusation. Keeping cool is especially important during the student-instructor conference.

Preparation for that meeting will help, and Robert Harris (*The Plagiarism Handbook*, Pycszak Publishing, 2001) provides us with a helpful list of strategies for such preparation:

- **Review all relevant policies, rules, and guidelines** provided by your institution. "Exact knowledge of policies and processes will give you a greater flexibility as you work with the student, who may have several creative turns in store for you. A student may claim ignorance, claim the prohibition or definition of plagiarism is ambiguous, attempt to interpret policy to exonerate himself or herself, or try some maneuver based on written rules" (84).
- **Follow due process.** Follow the steps lined out for you in your institution's policies and procedures for dealing with student misconduct.
- **Remember you may be wrong.** "Depending on their personalities and style, some professors are intentionally rough on students accused of cheating, hoping to scare them out of committing the act again. Others try to make the meeting a redemptive one in an attempt to salvage the academic attitudes and performance of the student" (84-85). Both approaches might be appropriate, but Harris suggests, "[B]efore taking any approach that assumes guilt, it is better to treat all accused students with respect and dignity . . ." (85). After all, you don't want to psychologically harm a student, but also, you could be wrong. "Whatever the evidence looks like, wait until you hear the student's explanation" (85).
- **Remember how varied plagiarism is.** "Depending on the amount of evidence you have and what kind of training you have presented in class, you might not know how intentional the plagiarism was" (85). *Unintentional plagiarism and developmental plagiarism should not be punished.*
- **Verify evidence from third parties.** "If you use software reports from a service or an in-house software application, verify the copying by a personal look at the source and copied texts" (86).

- **Have the evidence ready for the meeting.** You will want the evidence with you at your student-instructor conference, though not visible to begin with. Harris suggests making a general accusation prior to revealing your evidence: "I'm concerned about the authorship of this paper." That way, you can see how the story changes when the evidence is revealed (86).
- **Recognize your legal standing.** Harris cites Standler ("Plagiarism in Colleges in USA," 2000, <http://www.rbs2.com/plag.htm>), an attorney specializing in higher education legal issues, as reporting that faculty members "have little or no liability for reporting plagiarism if it is done in good faith" (87).

Why not have a colleague as a witness to the meeting? First, there are privacy issues. The reason the student plagiarized might involve personal reasons that the student will not want to reveal to you with a stranger present. Second, having another person listening in, especially if a stranger will only create more anxiety or hostility in the student. Third, the witness could be a distraction (Harris 87).

Tips for the Student-Instructor Conference (from Harris' *The Plagiarism Handbook*, pp. 88-102).

1. **Allow plenty of time for the conference.** Fifteen minutes may not be enough. Schedule at least half-an-hour.
2. **Treat the student with respect.** "Avoid raising your voice; avoid scolding or overly admonishing the student. Your goal is to help the student grow into a responsible adult" (88).
3. **Ask questions rather than make accusations.** Remember, the plagiarism might have been unintentional or developmental instead of intentional. In most cases, you will need to determine which it is, and you won't necessarily do that by accusing the student of plagiarism.
4. **Be circumspect about the evidence you use.** Harris tells us we need to keep the following in mind:
 - There is no single, certain sign of deception.
 - Many commonly believed signs of deception (e.g., eye movements; posture; look of sorrow) are not reliable.
 - Many supposed signs of deception (e.g., fidgeting; playing with objects like pens or paper clips or hair; high-pitched voice) are actually signs of nervousness, fear, or anger.
 - The better you know the students and his or her habits of speech and behavior under normal (of "baseline") conditions, the more accurate you can be in evaluating the cues displayed during an interview about plagiarism. (91)
5. **Remember that deception may occur in several forms.** Be especially aware of attempts to deflect attention away from the issue of plagiarism. Examples:

- "A friend showed me his paper as a guideline."
 - "I did my best to cite every source."
 - "This is about punctuation and mechanics, isn't it? I was never good at those."
6. **Provide an environment for telling the truth.** Use neutral language: instead of "cheating," "lying," and "stealing," use "copying," "not citing," and "using someone else's text." But make sure the student knows you consider "lying to you an offense in itself." "Ask questions that will relax the innocent but worry the guilty," such as "I'm sorry if this process makes you nervous. If you help me figure this out, we can be finished quickly. Will you help me with that?" (Harris, 92-93).
7. **Ask nonspecific questions.** "Because few students are hardened cheaters, many will break down at the first suspicion that they have been caught. Therefore, you can sometimes ask a question that seems to imply that the student has been caught, to see what happens" (94):
- "Tell me about this paper."
 - "Do you have something to tell me about this paper?"
 - "I was surprised by your paper, so I did some investigation into it. What do you think I found?"
 - "Your writing style changes significantly at times in this paper. What made you write so much better here?"
 - "This long passage on page 3 doesn't sound like your normal writing style. Is this quoted material where you accidentally forgot to use quotation marks?"
8. **Ask repetitive questions about plagiarizing:** Did you write this paper? Did you write all of it? Did someone help you write or edit it? Did you get help from The Writing Center? Did you cite every reference you used? Are you familiar with the rules of paraphrasing? You understand that you have to cite a source even if you're paraphrasing and not quoting it? What about some of the individual words you use? Where did you come up with "topic-associative oral styles"? That's pretty sophisticated phrasing. Not many students would know phrasing like that.
9. **Ask questions about content.** This is an especially good strategy when you think (or know) a student has simply adopted an entire text or a substantial portion of it. The authorship plagiarist, who has adopted an entire text written by someone else, often will not have taken the time to read the text carefully, and so will not be able to talk cogently about its content. Examples:
- "What exactly do you mean here by 'dynamic equivalence'?"
 - "In what sense are you using 'soporific' here?"

- "I can't quite separate the arguments here. Are you making two points or only one? Could you summarize your points for me?"

10. Ask questions about process and sources. Like questions about content, these questions are intended to reveal how familiar with the text—and the production of the text—the student writer is:

- "It may be that the problem I'm having understanding this text might be resolved if I know something more about the process you used. What were the steps you made in writing this text?"
- "Where did you look for sources?"
- "Did you find this book in our library?"
- "Where did you find this article by Edwards? It sounds interesting. I'd like to look at it. Can you bring me a copy?"
- "This quotation seems slightly out of context. What was Follet's main point in the chapter?"
- I see you made extensive use of Tom Freland's book on welfare. What is your overall opinion of that book? Where did you locate a copy of it? What did you think of his argument that welfare is a political rather than an economic problem?"

As Harris points out, "some students may say (either quite honestly or otherwise) that they went home over a break . . . and used resources in a local public or college library" (97). You can check up on that to see if the book or journal or magazine is in that library. Many now have online catalogs. Otherwise, it just takes a phone call.

11. Be prepared for rationalizations. Once having admitted to plagiarizing, students sometimes offer excuses, defenses, or justifications for having done so, seeking to shift the blame for the infraction or to mitigate the circumstances. Here are some typical rationalizations students use (Harris, pp. 98-102):

- The plagiarism was someone else's fault:
 - "My typist [or mom who types my papers] left out quotation marks [or the citation(s); or forgot to block indent that part]."
 - "I was taught to do it that way in high school."
 - "The Writing Center tutor told me it was okay."
 - "The computer crashed when I was writing the paper and must have lost the citation."
 - "I put the citations in last but must have accidentally saved an older version of my text."
- The plagiarism was the instructor's fault:
 - "You're the only professor who does not allow this."
 - "I had you look at my paper and you said it looked okay."

- "I listed the book in the bibliography, so you could have looked it up."
- "You didn't teach me that stuff in a way that I could understand."
- The plagiarism resulted from ignorance or confusion, which may, in fact, be the case:
 - "I didn't know you had to cite sources when you paraphrased a source."
 - "I thought the information was common knowledge and didn't require citation."
 - "I confused my notes and forgot which words were my own thoughts and which were quotations."
 - "I thought that was an acceptable way to paraphrase."
- The plagiarism resulted from insidious causes:
 - "I put in the citation, so you can see I didn't cheat intentionally." Harris notes how this "clever technique" works: "The student plagiarizes, copies a paragraph, perhaps two, word for word but includes a citation at the end of the plagiarized material. If the paper passes by and the instructor does not catch it, the student gets away with the offense. If the instructor checks and finds the plagiarism, the student has a built-in excuse To be fair, under some circumstances, this could be an honest claim from an ignorant or mistaught student" (101).
 - "But if I cited everything I used, my paper would be nothing but citations."

This complaint also could be genuine—and is certainly an educational moment, whether genuine or not. What's missing from the student's understanding is the purpose of the particular text she or he has written. Purpose will dictate how source material is used. If the assignment simply calls for the communication of information, then the student text could easily end up a patchwork of quotations and paraphrases, especially if the student has had little practice synthesizing source material into summaries of material from multiple sources. Typically, students look for one source that covers this point and another that covers the next point and another that covers the point after that, and so on, rather than immersing themselves in a subject matter, taking notes, and synthesizing information from multiple sources for each point. A lot may depend on the assignment itself.
- Miscellaneous rationalizations:
 - "We wrote it together to save time."
 - "The book said it better than I could, so I used those words."
 - "In my native country, this is acceptable."
 - "Everybody else in class is doing the same thing."
 - "My roommate in another section of this course was told by her professor that this was okay."

12. Think about what the penalty should be for the plagiarism—but not too much. The instructor-student conference is often the first step in the process of adjudication for any cheating, but it is also often viewed as an “unofficial” one. That is, the administrative hope is often that the case can be resolved unofficially between student and instructor. So, you should think ahead to what penalty you believe is appropriate for the plagiarism you suspect or you know occurred. But have several alternatives in mind, based on whether there are extenuating circumstances. And remember, you could be wrong, and remember, don’t let emotions determine the tone or outcome of the case. Always remain open to the possibility that the plagiarism might be unintentional or developmental, or, even if intended, may involve extenuating circumstances that should mitigate the punishment.

Below are some possible responses that an instructor might consider, depending on the circumstances of the plagiarism and the time left in the term. These are possible responses that could be offered in informal discussions with the student. In many cases, if the student does not agree to the penalty, then the case must go forward; the instructor cannot simply impose the penalty. At those institutions where the instructor is allowed to impose a penalty without the student’s acquiescence, students still have recourse to appeal the instructor’s verdict.

- **Rewrite.** Simply have the student redo the assignment. This response is purely pedagogical and is appropriate for situations involving unintentional or developmental plagiarism and possibly for situations involving intentional plagiarism that is not serious and/or where the reasons for the plagiarism were low self-efficacy, bad time management, and/or serious grade pressure.
- **Rewrite but for a reduced grade.** In this case, the student has to redo the assignment but grade points are automatically taken off for the infraction. This response is partially pedagogical but also partially punitive. This response seems most appropriate for intentional plagiarism with mitigating circumstances where the student still would have been able to resist—and should have resisted the temptation—but where the student is genuinely contrite about having plagiarized.
- **An “F” on the assignment.** This response is primarily punitive. Punishment can have pedagogical value (reinforcing ethical standards for the student plagiarizer), but the actual value of the punishment depends, of course, on the student’s character and the circumstances of the plagiarism. This penalty seems appropriate for those situations where the student gave into temptation without mitigating reasons but where you are persuaded this was atypical of this student’s behavior.
- **An “F” for the course.** Almost purely punitive, this response is inappropriate for any plagiarism where the student has mitigating reasons for having plagiarized.

As a plagiarism case officially goes forward, the range of possible penalties expands. In addition to the above penalties, institutions can decide to impose other, sometimes harsher punishments:

- **A reprimand**, usually in the form of a letter in the student's file;
- **Academic probation**;
- **Loss of all or part of academic scholarships'**
- **Suspension from the institution**;
- **The expelling of the student from the institution**; and
- **Revocation of a degree.**

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Appendix: SOURCE DOCUMENTATION TEMPLATE

1. Author(s) , Interviewee, Director, Composer, Performer(s).	
2. Agency ; Institution; Sponsoring group; Film distributor	
3. Article Title, Chapter Title, Recording track Title	
4. Primary Title (book; periodical; document; website; email subject; lecture; recording; name of item advertised)	
5. Editor(s) of Volume (No need to include editor[s] of periodical.)	
6. Volume/Issue number(s) (periodical volume; book volume in series)	
7. Edition number ; Congressional number	
8. Place or Venue (of book publication; of performance, including television network, program, station, theater or auditorium name)	
9. Publisher, Manufacturer, Database, Listserv	
10. Date (of publication; of film, recording, or performance; of website or of last revision and when website was accessed; of email sent; of listserv message; of interview, of letter)	
11. Page or Screen numbers	
12. URL	
13. Form (Print; Web; Email; Personal Interview; CD; Letter; Videocassette or DVD; Television; Advertisement)	
14. Email Recipient	

GUIDE FOR SOURCE DOCUMENTATION TEMPLATE

If a category of information is not appropriate or if you cannot find the information indicated in the source, then leave the space for that information empty.

For names and titles, make sure to fill in the full names and titles and any appropriate abbreviations, if referred to by its abbreviation.

BOOK, PAMPHLET, CD-ROM

1. Author(s). If no author is named, then "Anon." (for anonymous).
2. Blank, unless a particular sponsoring agent is named on the title page.
3. Blank.
4. Title.
5. Editor(s), if a collection of works by others
6. Volume number, if the work is published in multiple volumes.
7. Edition number, if there have been multiple editions.
8. Place of publication: city, state (if in U.S.) or country, if not United States.
9. Name of publisher, manufacturer (for CD-ROM), or sponsoring institution or group (for pamphlet).
10. Date of publication.
11. Blank.
12. URL, if provided on the Internet.
13. Whatever is appropriate: Print, Web, CD.

SECTION (Chapter, Essay, Preface, Forward, Introduction, or Afterword) of a Collection (usually in book form) with works by different authors

1. Author(s) of the chapter, essay, preface, forward, introduction, or afterward.
2. Blank, unless a particular sponsoring agent is named on the title page of the collection.
3. Title of chapter, essay, etc. For prefaces, forwards, introductions, and afterwards, the title may simply be those designations: "Preface," "Introduction," etc.
4. Title of the collection.
5. Editor(s) of the collection.
6. Volume number, if the work is published in multiple volumes.
7. Edition number, if there have been multiple editions.
8. Place of publication: city, state (if in U.S.) or country, if not United States.
9. Name of publisher, manufacturer (for CD-ROM), or sponsoring institution or group (for pamphlet).
10. Date of publication.
11. Page numbers or Screen numbers, if on the Internet, of the chapter, essay, preface, forward, introduction, or afterward.
12. URL, if provided on the Internet.
13. Whatever is appropriate: Print, Web, CD.

PERIODICAL ARTICLE (journal, magazine, newspaper article)

1. Author (s) (if no author, then "anon" for "anonymous")
2. Blank.
3. Title of article.
 - For reviews, "Rev. of title of work by author(s)/editor(s), if a collection."
 - For letter, "Letter."
 - For editorial, "title of work. Editorial."
4. Title of the periodical.
5. Blank.
6. Volume number and Issue number, if provided.
- 7-9. Blank.
10. Date of publication. Typically, periodicals are published by months or quarters of the year (Spring, Summer, Fall, Winter) or by exact days and months. Also, include the year.
11. Page numbers of the article.
12. URL, if provided on the Internet.
13. Whatever is appropriate: Print, Web, CD.

GOVERNMENT DOCUMENT

1. Author(s), if identified. If not, then the government entity name (e.g., United States, Illinois, United Nations).
2. Government Agency or Organization. Use abbreviations, if readily understood (e.g., NASA, FBI, but not NIH, National Institutes of Health).
3. Blank, unless using one section of document.
4. Title of document. If a report, then indicate like this: "Report of . . ."
- 5-6. Blank.
7. Congressional number, session, and house of Congress (S for Senate, HR for House of Representatives), if appropriate. If not, then leave space empty.
8. Place of publication (normally, city and state, if not already indicated; if international, indicate country, if not already indicated).
9. Publisher (could be the agency, the GPO—that is, Government Printing Office—or an independent publisher).
10. Year of publication.
11. Blank.
12. URL, if on the Internet.
13. Whatever is appropriate: Print, Web, CD.

INTERNET WEBSITE (File Transfer Protocol)

1. Author, if named or Organization producing website
2. Agency; Institution; Organization; or Sponsoring group, if provided.

3. Blank.
4. Title, if provided.
- 5-9. Blank.
10. Date of publication, if provided; **and** Date of visit or downloading or retrieval.
11. Number of screens.
12. URL
13. Web

EMAIL COMMUNICATION

1. Author of the message.
2. Agency, institution, sponsoring group, if appropriate.
3. Blank.
4. Subject line of the message.
- 5-9. Blank.
10. Date (day, month, year) of email.
11. Blank
12. Blank.
14. Email Recipient: Also, include person who received the message, if different from the designated recipient. (Might be you, but could be person who has forwarded email to you).

PERSONAL INTERVIEW (If published in a journal or book or other forum, use those guidelines.)

1. Person(s) interviewed. Fill out form for each person separately interviewed. Fill out one form for interview of multiple interviewees.
- 2-7. Blank.
8. City and state (if U.S.), country (if not U.S.) where interview took place. Also, the location within the city where the interview took place: e.g., interviewee's office or home; name of local coffeeshop.
9. Blank.
10. Date of interview: day, month, year.
11. Blank.
12. Blank
13. Personal Interview

PERSONAL LETTER (If letter was published in journal, newspaper, or other forum, use those guidelines.)

1. Author of letter
2. Agency, institution, sponsoring group to which author is affiliated.
- 3-9. Blank.
10. Date of letter
11. Blank.
12. Blank
13. Letter.

FILM, VIDEO, DVD

1. Director of film or video
2. Agency, institution, or sponsoring group, if appropriate.
3. Blank.
4. Title of work.
- 5-6. Blank.
7. Indicate if a special edition.
8. Television network &/or station, if viewed on TV. Otherwise, blank.
9. Name of company who distributed the original film or video.
10. Year of the original release.
12. Blank.
13. URL, if viewed on the Web.
11. Whatever is appropriate: Videocassette, DVD, Web, Television

PERFORMANCE (TV, Radio, Theater, Concert)

Title

Director, Narrator, Main actors, Dramatist, Composers, Orchestra and Orchestral

Director or Conductor, other important contributors, as appropriate

Network, if TV or Radio performance; Place, if Theater or Concert performance

Local Station, if TV or Radio performance

Date of performance

SOUND RECORDING

Composer, Performer (individual, group, band, orchestra), or Conductor, depending on whose

work you will be citing. If unsure, record as much information as you can

Title of individual composition or track of the recording, if that is what is relevant.

Title of recording

Manufacturer (for example, record label). Music recordings can be confusing. Often listings

include the music company copyrighting the material, the music label

distributing the material, the composer(s) of the material, and the performer(s).

List the distributor. If independently released, no distributor may be listed. In that case, list the performer(s) as manufacturer.

Year when recording was issued.

LECTURE OR SPEECH

Speaker

Title; if no title, then "Lecture" or "Speech"

Sponsoring institution or group

Place where lecture or speech occurred

Date of lecture or speech

ADVERTISEMENT

Name of the item or organization being advertised

"Advertisement"

Location of the advertisement: title of magazine, newspaper, website; name of TV network or

radio program; name of local TV station or radio station; URL, if website. If advertisement is an unattached flyer, then "Flyer."

Date of publication, date of airing on TV or radio, or date of viewing on website.

Page number(s), if published.