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Publisher: Routledge

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## Journal of Criminal Justice Education

Publication details, including instructions for authors and subscription information:

<http://www.tandfonline.com/loi/rcje20>

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Available online: 03 Nov 2010

To cite this article: Caroline W. Ferree & Heather L. Pfeifer (2011): The "Write" Stuff: Simple Techniques Designed to Teach Students How to Avoid Plagiarism, *Journal of Criminal Justice Education*, 22:2, 286-303

To link to this article: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10511253.2010.517768>

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# The "Write" Stuff: Simple Techniques Designed to Teach Students How to Avoid Plagiarism

*Caroline W. Ferree and Heather L. Pfeifer*

Presently, plagiarism is a serious problem in academics. Research has shown that the number of students who commit some form of plagiarism has increased in recent years. Studies have also shown that students commit plagiarism for a variety of reasons, including ignorance about what constitutes plagiarism, waiting until the last minute to complete an assignment, and a desire to get good grades. Regardless of the reason, students who commit plagiarism face a variety of sanctions ranging from a "slap on the wrist" to expulsion from school. Because of the potential long-term ramifications of committing plagiarism, it is essential that educators understand why students commit plagiarism and learn ways to teach students how to avoid it. This paper presents a workshop designed to teach students how to avoid committing it and offers a variety of ways in which this material can be incorporated into a program's existing curriculum.

## Introduction

Over the past several decades, the number of college students who have engaged in some form of academic dishonesty has increased significantly (McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield 2001). In fact, for many students, it has "become the norm" (Diekhoff et al. 1996, p. 500). Of the various types of academic dishonesty, one of the most common forms is plagiarism, and a substantial number of students have admitted committing it (Whitley 1998). Specifically, Hale (1987) found that 55% of the students surveyed acknowledged they had plagiarized. Similarly, McCabe et al. (2001) found that 26% of the students surveyed admitted committing plagiarism and 54% admitted to copying "a few sentences of material without footnoting them" (p. 223).

Plagiarism occurs at both undergraduate and graduate levels and is not limited to any particular discipline; students have admitted committing it while studying criminal justice (Eskridge and Ames 1993; Smith, Dupre, and Mackey 2005), social work (Collins and Amodeo 2005), law (Gerdy 2004), business

(McCabe, Butterfield, and Trevino 2006), and education (Love and Simmons 1998). In addition, plagiarism is not limited to any particular type of institution and has been found to occur at even the most prestigious schools. For example, in 2006, Harvard University sophomore Kaavya Viswanathan lost a \$500,000 two-book contract after officials discovered that she had plagiarized passages from another author's work in her book entitled, "How Opal Mehta Got Kissed, Got Wild, and Got a Life" (Poniewozik 2006). Similarly, in 2003, at the United States Naval Academy, a history professor was demoted and received a substantial pay cut after it was discovered that he plagiarized more than 50 passages from other authors in his book about the atomic bomb (Marselas 2003).

Unfortunately, plagiarism is not unique to higher education; it is also committed by professionals in several different fields including journalism and writing. For example, in 2003, Jayson Blair, a *New York Times* reporter, was forced to resign after it was discovered that he had fabricated material, plagiarized the work of others, and violated several standards of reporting (Hindman 2005). Similarly, in 2004, Jack Kelley, a foreign correspondent for *USA Today*, was forced to resign after an investigation revealed that he had plagiarized and fabricated material (Morrison 2004). Finally, well-known authors and historians Doris Kearns Goodwin and Stephen Ambrose both committed plagiarism when they copied text from other sources for their books (Italie 2002).

Given the prevalence of plagiarism in both higher education and the professional world, steps must be taken to educate students about the problem. In addition, students must be taught how to recognize plagiarism and how to avoid committing it. Finally, educators must ensure that students understand that committing plagiarism at *any* time, even after they graduate, may have not only short-term consequences, but possibly life-altering ones as well.

### Literature Review

Plagiarism can have several definitions and may vary in degrees. Specifically, the definition may range from a detailed list of what a writer can and cannot do to a more encompassing description of the offense. However, in general, it means using another's words, ideas, or statistics without giving credit to that person (e.g., Barry 2006; Love and Simmons 1998).

In addition to the various definitions, there are several different degrees of plagiarism. At one end of the spectrum are the severe cases in which a student acts deliberately and intentionally (Roig 1997). An example of a severe case of plagiarism occurs when a student copies information from the Internet by "cutting and pasting" substantial portions or all of another's work and passes the work off as his or her own (Roig 1997). In the middle of the spectrum are the less egregious but still serious forms of plagiarism. An example of this degree of plagiarism occurs when the student writes the majority of the paper but intentionally "mixes in" a few sentences or brief passages of the work of another author without giving credit to that person (Gerdy 2004). Finally, at the far end

of the spectrum are the mild cases of plagiarism. At this end, the student commits plagiarism when he or she insufficiently paraphrases another's work or fails to cite properly (Roig 1997).

### Why Students Commit Plagiarism

Students commit plagiarism for a variety of reasons and may do so intentionally or unintentionally. Some students commit it intentionally because they want to get good grades and feel they cannot do so without plagiarizing (Love and Simmons 1998). Other students intentionally commit it because of poor time management; they put off writing the paper until the last minute and, as such, must resort to plagiarizing in order to get the paper finished on time (Gerdy 2004). Still other students plagiarize because they feel they have too much work to do and must plagiarize in order to get it all done (Love and Simmons 1998). Finally, some students plagiarize merely because they think they can; they believe they will not be caught, or if they are, they will not be punished (Gerdy 2004). Students have adopted this attitude because studies have found that even if institutions implement sanctions for offenders, educators do not always impose or enforce them (McCabe et al. 2001). Instead, in many instances, they "look the other way" (McCabe et al. 2001). As a result of this "do nothing" response, students learn that it is "acceptable" to commit plagiarism (McCabe et al. 2001).

In contrast to students who plagiarize intentionally, some students do it unintentionally; that is, they do not realize that they have committed it (Roig 1997). Typically, these students plagiarize because they do not understand what it is or know how to avoid it (Barry 2006; Landau, Druen, and Arcuri 2002; Overbey and Guiling 1999; Roig 1997). In particular, these students do not understand how to paraphrase or cite properly (Roig 1997). Thus, the students plagiarize because they mistakenly believe it is acceptable to make minor changes to the text, or no changes at all, as long as the author is credited somewhere in the text (Roig 1997). Other students plagiarize because they mistakenly believe it is sufficient to paraphrase and then put a citation at the beginning or the end of a section (Gerdy 2004) or at the end of the paper (Overbey and Guiling 1999). Finally, students plagiarize because they mistakenly feel it is sufficient to directly copy material without using quotation marks as long as they cite to the original source in the paragraph (Gerdy 2004; Roig 1997).

### Educating Students about Plagiarism: What Works?

Because studies have found that many students unintentionally commit plagiarism because of ignorance, it is essential for educators to teach them what it is and how to avoid it. Importantly, in doing so, educators must not assume that college students have been taught those skills (Overbey and Guiling 1999).

Instead, educators must take it upon themselves to teach students what plagiarism is, how to recognize it, and how to avoid it (Landau et al. 2002).

The first step educators must take is to teach students how to recognize plagiarism. In doing so, educators must not provide a cursory definition of it and simply warn students not to do it (Landau et al. 2002; Overbey and Guiling 1999; Schuetze 2004). Instead, professors must have a substantive discussion with students about what plagiarism is, give them examples of it, have them work on exercises designed to allow them to practice identifying it, and give them feedback on those exercises (Barry 2006; Clement 2001; Landau et al. 2002; Overbey and Guiling 1999; Schuetze 2004). According to Landau et al. (2002), undergraduates who completed exercises and received feedback on them were better able to detect plagiarism and rewrite text without committing it.

In addition to teaching students how to recognize plagiarism, educators must teach students how to avoid it. Specifically, they must teach them how to paraphrase and cite properly (e.g., Landau et al. 2002; Schuetze 2004). As with teaching students how to recognize plagiarism, Landau et al. (2002) found that the most effective way to teach them how to paraphrase is to give them examples of proper and improper paraphrasing, paraphrasing exercises, and feedback on those exercises. Landau et al. further found that students who were taught how to paraphrase using this approach were better able to detect plagiarism and more likely to paraphrase without plagiarizing.

Finally, educators must teach students how to cite properly. To do so, Schuetze (2004) recommends that students be given a lecture and a handout, several homework assignments, feedback on those assignments, and the opportunity to discuss the assignments in class. Similarly, Barry (2006) found that students who completed plagiarism exercises had a better understanding of paraphrasing and citing.

### Educating Students: A Hands-on Approach

While several researchers have recommended ways to teach students what plagiarism is and how to avoid it, they have not offered specific exercises for instructors to use (see Clement 2001; Schuetze 2004). Thus, this paper will present sample assignments, handouts, and exercises for educators to use when teaching students about plagiarism. These samples were written for a workshop designed to teach both undergraduate and graduate criminal justice majors.

The workshop was piloted with three graduate and two undergraduate classes ( $N = 65$  students) conducted within a Criminal Justice/Criminology program at a small liberal-arts university in the Mid-Atlantic region of the USA.<sup>1</sup> At the beginning of the workshop, students completed a pre-test to assess their ability to recognize incidents of plagiarism and to articulate the specific reasons for a

1. For the pilot study, we used a convenience sample which reflects the small size of our university and of the student population within our major ( $N = 250$  undergraduate and graduate students).

plagiarism violation (e.g., lack of citation, improper citation, or insufficient paraphrasing). According to the pre-test results, overall, only 8% of the students were able to correctly identify *all* of the incidents of plagiarism and accurately explain the reason(s) for each violation.

Specifically, of the students who failed to correctly identify the incidents of plagiarism, 77% believed that a single citation after only the last sentence in a paragraph meant that all of the information in the paragraph was properly cited and, as such, there was no plagiarism (Pre-test, Question 1). In addition, 42% felt that if a direct quotation from an original source did not have quotation marks but did have a citation at the end of the sentence, it was not plagiarism (Pre-test, Question 3). Finally, 25% did not realize that even sufficiently paraphrased information requires a citation (Pre-test, Question 4). Thus, while most students understood the most obvious examples of plagiarism (e.g., direct copy without quotation marks, citation, or page number), they were unable to distinguish the more subtle forms of plagiarism, such as paragraphs with too few citations or paraphrases that are too similar to the original source. A copy of the pre-test is included as Appendix 1.

Following the pre-test, the students were given a Power Point lecture that taught them a comprehensible definition of plagiarism and ways to avoid committing it, and that gave them an overview of the citation standards used in our profession. After each element of the lecture, students received handouts that covered that material, and completed an exercise designed to help them better understand and practice what they had just learned. Upon the completion of the exercises, students received feedback on their answers.

At the conclusion of the workshop, students completed a post-test. Results of the post-test indicated that the workshop successfully taught students the skills they need to recognize plagiarism and how to avoid it. Specifically, 59% of the students scored better on the post-test than on the pre-test.<sup>2</sup> Thus, those students were better able to identify incidents of plagiarism, and to correctly state why the examples given constituted plagiarism. Further, one-third (33%) of those students who improved their scores had no errors on the post-test.<sup>3</sup>

The following section gives a more detailed discussion of the elements of the pre- and post-tests, and of the workshop's content. It also provides a few examples of the exercises used to teach the students the specific skills. Copies of the pre- and post-tests, exercises, and handouts are included in the appendices.

2. Although both the pre- and post-tests asked students to identify incidents of plagiarism and to explain their answers, the post-test also asked students to paraphrase several paragraphs without plagiarizing them. Because this element was not included in the pre-test, the scores reported reflect only the change in the students' ability to identify and explain the examples of plagiarism.

3. After noting the improvements in the test scores of the students following their completion of the workshop, the division has now incorporated it into the undergraduate and graduate curricula. In addition, another division within our university has requested that we lead a joint workshop with our students and theirs.

## The Plagiarism and APA Workshop

We begin the workshop by having a very frank discussion with the students about plagiarism and why the workshop was created. In particular, we tell them that plagiarism has become a very disconcerting and prevalent issue in academics and that it is important for them to understand what it is and how to avoid committing it. We then discuss with them the potential damaging long-term consequences for them if they are caught plagiarizing. Specifically, we emphasize that as criminal justice majors, many of them will seek jobs in law enforcement, corrections, and the court system, which hold employees to the highest moral and ethical standards. We also point out that if they plagiarize, they will receive a grade on their transcript indicating that they committed some type of academic dishonesty. In addition, we warn them that it is a common practice of agencies conducting background checks on applicants to ask the student's professors whether he or she has had any "academic integrity violations." We conclude our discussion with the warning that having such a "black mark" on their record may result in life-altering consequences, including losing their current job or being denied a prospective job. By including this discussion in the workshop, we give them a "real life" look at what may happen to them if they commit plagiarism.

After the discussion, we give the students a pre-test to measure their baseline understanding of plagiarism.<sup>4</sup> In particular, we ask them to identify various paragraphs as plagiarized or not plagiarized. To do so, the students are provided with an original paragraph from an academic source and then a series of paraphrases that reflect varying degrees of plagiarism (from not plagiarized to blatantly plagiarized). In the instances where the student feels the example qualifies as plagiarism, he or she is also required to state the reason(s).

In response to the pre-test results, which typically indicate a very minimal understanding of what constitutes plagiarism, the first part of the workshop focuses on providing students with a comprehensible definition of it. We begin the discussion by asking them to define plagiarism. Typically, we find that there is a demonstrable disjuncture between the students' ability to articulate what plagiarism is and their inability to actually apply the definition correctly.<sup>5</sup> Thus, we give them the definition of plagiarism as the use of another's words, thoughts, or statistics without giving credit to that person (e.g., Barry 2006).

We then explain to the students that this means that anything that is not "common knowledge" must be cited. Often, students have trouble with this concept because they are unable to separate the notion of what is common knowledge to them (based upon their education and experience) from what is common knowledge to others. Thus, we counsel them that common knowledge

4. Because many of our students enter the program with different levels of research and writing skills, the pre-test helps establish what they do and do not understand about plagiarism.

5. Some examples students have given of the definition of plagiarism are, "copying someone else's work and passing it off as your own" and "the taking of someone else's ideas or words and not giving proper credit to the original author."

means common to “the world” rather than simply to themselves.<sup>6</sup> Another problem arises because what is and is not common knowledge can vary from scholar to scholar, depending upon the individual’s knowledge of the relevant issues and the literature. Hence, what is common knowledge to a long-time scholar is different from what is common knowledge to a student who is just beginning to explore the literature. Accordingly, we inform the students that most of what they will present in their papers is not common knowledge, and will require citations.

To help students practice identifying what is or is not common knowledge, we have them complete a worksheet that requires them to identify general statements as either common knowledge or not common knowledge. For example, “a significant number of people are incarcerated in the United States’ jails and prisons” is common knowledge, whereas “currently, there are 2.1 million people incarcerated in jails and prisons in the United States” is not common knowledge. Further, we advise the students to follow the general rule of thumb that the more specific the statement they present, the more likely it will need a citation. Finally, we impress upon them the bottom line: “When in doubt, cite!”

The second issue students struggle with is how to sufficiently paraphrase the material so that they do not plagiarize. Too often, students simply change a few words, put a citation at the end of the sentence, and mistakenly believe that they have not plagiarized. Another common error is that they paraphrase from the original source sentence by sentence. The problem with both of these approaches is that neither requires the student to *think* about what he or she is writing. Instead, the student is simply regurgitating what he or she has read. In response to this problem, we designed an exercise that teaches students how to take notes when reading an academic source. The goals of this exercise are two-fold: to have students learn how to summarize the material in their own words and to help them improve their critical thinking skills.

To help illustrate the potential pitfalls of improper note-taking, we break the exercise into two parts. In the first part, we give the students a paragraph from a typical academic source (e.g., a journal article, a research report) and give them 10 minutes to read the material and summarize it. While the students are completing the exercise, we watch how many of them repeatedly refer back to the original source. We also note how many of the students spend time trying to craft the perfect sentence(s) (e.g., writing complete sentences, editing as they write). Typically, there are two things we find when conducting this exercise. First, many of the students are unable to finish the exercise within the allotted time and second, more often than not, the students’ summaries closely mirror the original source phrasing and/or sentence structure. Both of these outcomes are problematic.

To address these problems, we discuss two issues. First, we talk to them about how to properly budget their time. Specifically, we tell them that

6. Typically, we instruct them to think about whether the information is something their family, friends, or next door neighbors would know. If it is, it is probably common knowledge.



typically they will have to review 10-15 sources for a term paper and, as such, will not have a lot of time to spend on each paragraph they wish to paraphrase. We also point out that if they spend an inordinate amount of time on the research and note-taking, they will have less time to devote to the writing and editing process. This, in turn, will lead to a poorly written paper.

We then discuss with them the best way to take notes. First, we explain that they should not try to write down everything they read as they will not have time to do so. We also explain that if they do try to write down everything, they will be more inclined to commit plagiarism. Specifically, we caution them that when students have a large amount of material to paraphrase, they typically end up mimicking the phrasing and sentence structure of the original source because it is easier to do that than to spend the time paraphrasing it. In addition, we tell them that when students attempt to take notes on large amounts of material, they are less likely to understand what they have read.

After explaining to them why they should not attempt to take notes on everything, we instruct them to take notes only on the most important elements of a source. In doing so, we tell them to focus solely on the information that is relevant to their thesis statements. Thus, if the student is writing about sexual abuse by babysitters and the original source discusses both sexual and physical abuse, we advise students to take notes only on that part of the article that discusses sexual abuse.

To allow them to practice this approach, we give them another exercise to complete. This exercise is similar to the one given earlier; that is, we have them take notes on a paragraph that is relevant to a particular thesis statement. However, before they do so, we instruct them to read through the material once or twice, then turn it over and take a moment to think about what they have read. We then have them jot down as quickly as they can, two or three of the main ideas they think are instrumental. We caution the students not to write complete sentences during this exercise, but rather to come up with their own shorthand that uses a combination of keywords and bulleted phrases. After they have written their ideas, we encourage them to reread the original paragraph to make sure that what they have written is accurate and that they have not misconstrued any information.

Unlike during the first part of the exercise, we find that this time nearly all of the students easily complete the exercise within the allotted time frame. More importantly, when we have them read their notes out loud, we rarely find evidence of plagiarism. We remind the students that because they will not actually translate those notes into a workable draft of their paper until they have completed all of their research (and when they might not have the original source in front of them), they will be more likely to present the information in their own words. This, in turn, greatly reduces their chances of plagiarism. To further reiterate the value of this strategy, at the end of the workshop, we have the students use their notes to write a summary paragraph, thereby mimicking the delay in time between note-taking and drafting a paper. Many of the students comment afterwards that it required them think more about what they

had previously read because they were required to articulately and succinctly expand upon the key points they had “jotted down.” Hence, this exercise allowed the students to simultaneously practice both their critical thinking and writing skills.

Another strategy we teach students to help them avoid plagiarism is how to “spin” statistics. Specifically, many students do not feel comfortable with quantitative data and, as such, they have difficulty presenting it without plagiarizing the information. Because of this, we have them complete an exercise from which they learn some alternate ways to interpret statistics (see Appendix 2). Basically, we teach students to think of numbers in different formats such as percentages, ratios, and fractions. Thus, if a number is presented in the original source as a percentage, we have them change that number into a fraction (e.g., 10% can be changed into “one out of ten” or “one-tenth”). We also teach them to think in terms of opposite trends. For example, if the source states that one-third of a particular type of crime is committed by women, the student could rewrite it to state that two-thirds of those crimes are committed by men.

Because a statistic can be presented in several different forms when paraphrasing, we instruct students to think about the point they wish to make in their papers when deciding which form to use. Thus, if a student is writing a paper on the recidivism rate of sex offenders and the research found that the rate is 9.2%, the student could spin this figure to either minimize or maximize that fact. Specifically, if the student wanted to minimize the seriousness of the problem, he or she could either report the figure as a straight percentage (e.g., less than 10% of sex offenders recidivate) or highlight the opposite trend (e.g., over 90% of sex offenders *do not* recidivate). However, if the student wanted to emphasize the problem, it would be more effective to present the data in terms of a ratio, stating that “one out of every 10 sex offenders has been found to commit another sex offense after he or she is released from prison.” After we complete the first few exercises with the students, we have them fill in the remainder of the worksheet so that they can use it as a reference when writing their papers.

The final portion of the workshop focuses on teaching students APA citation standards. We have found that the majority of students who enter our program have not been exposed to APA because the standard citation style they were taught in secondary school was MLA. Because the rules for each of these two styles vary, students’ lack of knowledge about APA can further contribute to their plagiarism problems. For example, MLA rules state that when a student presents material drawn from one source and the same page number(s), he or she can place the citation at the end of the paragraph. In contrast, APA does not allow that type of placement. In fact, according to APA standards, if a student places a citation only at the end of the paragraph, that citation refers only to the final sentence of the entire paragraph. Consequently, that student could be accused of plagiarism for failing to cite properly.<sup>7</sup>

7. This type of error was emphasized in the pre-tests when three-quarters of the students failed to identify the statement as plagiarism.

Because many students are unfamiliar with APA style, we spend the remainder of the workshop teaching them its basic rules. These include how to construct a reference list and how to incorporate citations in a paper. In teaching students how to construct a reference list, we use the types of sources students most commonly use when researching papers (e.g., journal articles, research reports, books, Internet articles, etc.). To help them remember the information, we provide the students with several handouts that summarize the different rules and provide examples for them to follow when writing their papers. A copy of each handout is provided in Appendices 3 and 4.

At the end of the workshop, we administer a post-test to measure the students' level of comprehension of the various skills covered (see Appendix 5). As with the pre-test, we have the students read several paragraphs and identify which ones are plagiarized and give the reasons for their answers. In addition, we provide the students with a few paragraphs drawn from a research report and ask them to write a summary paragraph and to insert the citations where they are required. During the post-test, we have observed that, unlike during the exercise they completed during the workshop, many students actually jot some notes using the shorthand technique we taught them before drafting their summary paragraph. In addition, the post-test results typically indicate that the students are better able to identify and explain the incidents of plagiarism.

### The Workshop: In Practice

Although the workshop was designed to be taught by a member of our department at our University, in practice, it can be taught in a variety of ways. Specifically, because we recognize that professors may feel pressed for time and unable to include it in their class, we offer several ways for institutions to incorporate it into their curricula. First, because the workshop is fairly brief (it can be taught in 90 minutes), an institution could offer it as part of its freshman orientation program. This would allow the institution to target incoming students and teach them from the "get go" what plagiarism is and how to avoid it.

A second alternative is for an institution to offer the workshop through its Writing Center. In this scenario, several departments (e.g., criminal justice, psychology, sociology, etc.) could benefit from the workshop by requiring their majors to attend it within their first semester of coursework. As with the freshman orientation option, this alternative would ensure that students understand what plagiarism is and how to avoid it as they begin their field of study. Another benefit of offering it through the Writing Center is that it would allow students who feel they need the instruction to participate in it, as well as allowing professors to require certain students to attend it. A final alternative for larger universities would be to incorporate the workshop into a writing-intensive course within each major. Specifically, an assigned teaching assistant could lead it during one of the designated discussion sections.

## Conclusion

This paper has focused on proactive ways to reduce plagiarism among criminal justice students; that is, by educating them about what it is and how to avoid it. In doing so, it has presented some exercises, handouts, and assignments for educators to use. It has also briefly discussed the importance of reinforcing with the students the fact that if they commit plagiarism, they may face damaging long-term consequences. Finally, it has suggested various ways for institutions to incorporate it into their curricula.

It is important to note, however, that in addition to this proactive approach, educators must also continue to consistently enforce sanctions against offenders. This is especially important because McCabe et al. (2001) found that students who believe their cheating will be reported and that it will result in harsh sanctions are less likely to cheat (McCabe 2001). Conversely, McCabe et al. 2006 also found that students who believe their cheating will not be reported learn that it is "acceptable" to cheat. Thus, even if students are properly taught how to avoid plagiarism, students may feel that the benefit to be gained from doing so outweighs the risk of being caught (McCabe et al. 2001).

Accordingly, in order to successfully reduce plagiarism in higher education, instructors must educate students about plagiarism *and* they must work together with their institutions to ensure that students who commit plagiarism are sanctioned accordingly. In particular, educators must report offenders, and institutions must support those faculty members. It is only by using this comprehensive approach, that educators will be best able to reduce the incidences of plagiarism in higher education.

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## Appendix 1

## Plagiarism and APA Workshop

*Pre-test**Directions:*

*Read the original passage and then identify which of the following examples could be classified as plagiarism by marking either "P" (plagiarized) or "NP" (not plagiarized) next to each scenario. For those examples you believe are plagiarized, provide a brief explanation of why you believe it is plagiarism.*

## Original Source

"Historically, the focus of media attention and scholarly research has been on crime-related trauma involving adults. However, increasingly it is recognized that many children and adolescents are exposed to violence in their own neighborhoods and schools. Furthermore, community violence is now recognized as a public health issue, especially among the young. Accordingly, researchers and clinicians concerned with community violence are intensifying their focus on youthful victims, and the consequences of their trauma exposure, including the development of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)"

(Goguen, 2007, p. 1)

1. Historically, the majority of research on crime-related trauma focused on adults. With community violence now classified as a public health issue, particularly for today's youth, greater attention is now being paid to children who have been exposed to violence. In particular, researchers and clinicians have begun to examine the consequences of these traumatic experiences, especially how it may contribute to the development of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder among these young victims (Goguen, 2007).
2. Given the increase in the amount of community violence today's children are exposed to, greater attention has been directed at exploring how such traumatic experiences may negatively affect a child's psychological well-being (Goguen, 2007).
3. Researchers and clinicians concerned with community violence are intensifying their focus on youthful victims, and the consequences of their trauma exposure, including the development of Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) (Goguen, 2007).
4. In the past, most research on crime-related trauma focused on adult victims. Recently, there has been a significant shift in focus as researchers and clinicians have witnessed a dramatic rise in the number of children who have been exposed to incidents of serious violence in their communities, as well as at school. As a result, greater attention has been dedicated to understanding the negative psychological consequences associated with these types of traumatic experiences among children.

- Given that "community violence is now recognized as a public health issue" for today's youth, both the clinical and academic professions have begun to focus increased attention on the negative effects children suffer as a result of exposure to these types of traumatic incidents (Goguen, 2007).

## Appendix 2

### Alternate Ways to Interpret Statistics for Papers

Original	Alternate #1 (%)	Alternate #2 (ratio)	Alternate #3 (fraction)	Alternate #4 (opposite)
9.2%	Approximately 10%	Approximately one out of ten	Approximately one-tenth	Approximately 10% do (or do not)
20%				
24.2%				
33%				
55%				
64%				
76.9%				
92%				

### Comparisons

Often times you will be required to compare statistics across "groups" ... "X% of females reported being sexually abused as did Y% of males" ... What are some alternative ways you could represent those relationships in your own words? How could you use a *ratio* to express the difference between the proportion of males versus females who have been physically abused? What about sexual abuse?

<i>% reporting different types of childhood abuse</i>	<i>Males</i>	<i>Females</i>
<i>Physical abuse</i>	23.1	11.6
<i>Sexual abuse</i>	8.7	33.9

## Appendix 3

## Most Common Sources (APA Reference List)

*Journal article*

Weitekamp, E. G., Kerner, H. J., Schindler, V., & Schubert, A. (1995). On the dangerousness of chronic/habitual offenders: A re-analysis of the 1945 Philadelphia birth cohort data. *Studies in Crime and Crime Prevention*, 4(2), 159-175.

*Research report*

Widom, C. S., & Maxfield, M. G. (2001, February). *An update on the "cycle of violence."* [Research in brief]. Washington, DC: National Institute of Justice.

*Chapter in book*

Gottfredson, D. M. (1987). Prediction and classification in criminal justice decision making. In D. Gottfredson & M. Tonry (Eds.), *Crime and justice: A review of research* (pp. 1-20). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

*Book*

Champion, D. J. (1994). *Measuring offender risk: A criminal justice source-book*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.

*Article on Internet*

Porter, R., Lee, S., & Lutz, M. (2002, May). *Balancing punishment and treatment: Alternatives to incarceration in New York City*. Retrieved from [http://www.vera.org/publications/publications\\_2c.asp?publication\\_id=164&publication\\_content\\_id=253&section\\_id=16&project\\_id=&sub\\_section\\_id=2](http://www.vera.org/publications/publications_2c.asp?publication_id=164&publication_content_id=253&section_id=16&project_id=&sub_section_id=2)

## Appendix 4

## Summary of APA Rules for Citing in the Text

*End of sentence:*

One author: (Smith, 2001).

Two authors: (Smith & Jones, 2001).



Three to five authors: First time: (Oakley, Wilson, & Jones, 2001). Every subsequent time: (Oakley et al., 2001).

Six or more authors: Every time: (Wilson et al., 2001).

Government agency is author: First time: (National Institute of Health [NIH], 2001). Every subsequent time: (NIH, 2001).

Several sources, same information:

(Alphabetical by first author's last name)

(Oakley & Smith, 2001; Smith & Jones, 2003).

(Oakley, 2003; Smith, 2001; Wilson, Edwards, & Jones, 2000).

Same author, different years: (Smith, 1997, 2001).

Same author in same year: (ref. list): Smith, J. C. (1999a). An Analysis of ...  
Smith, J. C. (1999b). Evaluation of ...

So, in the text -

(Smith, 1999a)

(Smith, 1999b).

*In text:*

One author: "According to Smith (1999) ..." (NOT, "In 1999, Smith said ...")

Two authors: "In contrast, Smith and Jones (2003) argued that ... They also found ..."

Three to five authors:

First time: "According to Smith, Jones, Walker, and Gable (2000) ..."

Every subsequent time: "Furthermore, Smith et al. (2000) noted ..." or  
"Additionally, Smith and colleagues (2000) found ..."

Six or more authors: Every time "According to Walker et al. (2003) ..."

*Rule:* Once you introduce another source, you must give a full cite.

Source A > Source B > Source A

## Appendix 5

### APA and Plagiarism Workshop Post-test

*Directions:*

*Read the original passage and then identify which of the following examples could be classified as plagiarism by marking either "P" (plagiarized) or "NP" (not plagiarized) next to each scenario. For those examples you believe are plagiarized, provide a brief explanation of why you believe it is plagiarism.*

## Original Source

"According to a study, abused and neglected girls are nearly twice as likely to be arrested as juveniles. Researchers find that children exposed to multiple forms of family violence report more than twice the rate of youth violence as those from nonviolent families. At the Harvard School of Public Health, scholars studied the connection between delinquency and depression and found that 82% of girls suffering depression committed crimes against persons, compared to 42% of other girls in their study" (Schaffner, 2007, p. 1230).

1. Girls who are abused and neglected are more likely to be arrested than girls who are not abused or neglected. Similarly, girls who suffer from depression are more likely to engage in delinquency than their female peers who are not depressed (Schaffner, 2007).
2. Researchers have found that girls who are neglected and abused are two times more likely to be arrested than girls who are not abused or neglected. Studies have also found that girls who witness violence at home also engage in more violence with other youth than girls who come from stable homes. In fact, researchers at Harvard found that almost 80% of girls who are depressed acted violently towards other people (Schaffner, 2007).
3. "According to a study, abused and neglected girls are nearly twice as likely to be arrested as juveniles. Researchers find that children exposed to multiple forms of family violence report more than twice the rate of youth violence as those from nonviolent families. At the Harvard School of Public Health, scholars studied the connection between delinquency and depression and found that 82% of girls suffering depression committed crimes against persons, compared to 42% of other girls in their study" (Schaffner, 2007).
4. Research has shown that many of the girls who are arrested come from homes in which they were abused or neglected or where they witnessed acts of violence (Schaffner, 2007). Similarly, girls who suffer from depression are also more likely to become involved in delinquency (Schaffner, 2007).

*Directions:*

*Read the following paragraphs obtained from a report published by the Urban Institute on prisoner re-entry. Using the skills you learned in the workshop, write a summary paragraph on the back of this paper that highlights the difficulties many offenders face upon being released from prison. Be sure to incorporate the appropriate citations into your text.*

Visher, C., Kachnowski, V., La Vigne, N., & Travis, J. (2004, March). *Baltimore prisoners' experiences returning home*. Washington, DC: Urban Institute.

"Very little is known about the circumstances surrounding the first hours, days, and weeks after a prisoner's release. Anecdotal evidence suggests that prisoners may be released at any hour of the day and night, without any place to go, and may spend their first few nights homeless on the streets. The experiences

of those in our sample were somewhat encouraging with regard to these initial reentry challenges. Nearly all respondents were released during daylight hours. This timing is advantageous for released prisoners - they are more likely to be able to meet immediate needs if they are released when parole and social service agencies are open and transportation is more readily accessible. Friends or family met 39 percent at the prison gates, while the remainder took buses or taxis, or walked to their destination. Most of the respondents in our sample were released from facilities located in Baltimore City, close to the communities where their families live. On their first night out, none of the prisoners in our sample slept on the streets (figure 3), with the largest share (42 percent) staying at homes of family or friends.

Most prisoners in our sample left prison with few financial resources; however, they had many financial obligations. In many cases the only money Maryland prisoners receive upon release comes from their own accounts, often savings from work release jobs. Some prisoners also receive "gate money" from the prison upon their release. Eighty-five percent of respondents reported having some money at the time of their release in amounts ranging from \$3 to \$2,340, with the median of \$40.30." (p. 5)