Towards Consistency and Transparency in Academic Integrity

This book is an outcome of the 4th International Conference Plagiarism across Europe and Beyond organized by Canakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Mendel University in Brno, and the European Network for Academic Integrity. The conference is co-funded by the Erasmus+ Strategic Partnerships Programme of the European Union. It aims to be a forum for sharing best practices and experiences by addressing issues of academic integrity from a wide-scope global perspective. With regards to the crucial role of ethics and honesty in academic work, universities are in need of more effective policies against infringements of academic standards. The papers in this book therefore aim to contribute to the standardization of consistent and transparent approaches to issues of academic integrity from several perspectives.

The Editors
Salim Razi is Associate Professor at the English Language Teaching Department of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey and a Board member of ENAI.
Irene Glendinning is based in the Office of Teaching and Learning at Coventry University, UK and Vice President of ENAI.
Tomáš Foltýnek is an academic integrity coordinator at the Faculty of Business and Economics, Mendel University in Brno, Czechia, and President of ENAI.

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The fourth international conference – “Plagiarism across Europe and beyond 2018” – was special in two aspects. Firstly, the conference left its birthplace in Brno, Czechia and was held in Ephesus, Turkey. Secondly, this was the first in a series of conferences to be held annually; previous conferences were organised every other year.

The participants had two options for publishing their papers: the International Journal for Educational Integrity (IJEI) or this book. Splitting the papers between these two venues was not an easy task. In the end, the international dimension of the paper was the most decisive factor. Considering the mainly-international readership of IJEI, we selected multinational and country-independent studies to be published in that journal.

This book, on the other hand, brings together chapters investigating national and local issues, relevant especially for a regional readership. Put together, these papers give a fascinating insight into academic integrity in Northern, Central and South-East Europe, as well as in the Middle East and Asia.

Regarding the topics, the most prevalent one is plagiarism. Apparently, this is the main integrity issue in developing countries. However, you will also find papers on the challenges faced in publishing, contract cheating, academic integrity skills training, and integrity in high schools.

All papers included in this book went through a double blind-peer review process before the conference. Only papers with sound methodology and results contributing to the field were accepted for presentation. Authors were given the opportunity to re-work their papers based on questions from the conference audience. Final versions of papers were reviewed by the editors.

We believe that this book will inspire academics, higher education institution managers and policy-makers with evidence to support their decisions leading to improvements in the academic integrity culture of their institutions.

Salim Razi, Irene Glendinning, and Tomáš Foltýnek
Acknowledgments

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Section 1:
Students’ and Teachers’ Perspectives on Academic Integrity Issues
English Language Teaching Students’ Attitudes towards Plagiarism and their Locus of Control

Abstract: Any relationship between personal locus of control and attitudes towards plagiarism may offer pedagogical insights since the locus of control may change through instruction and training. This study aims to investigate departmental policy on plagiarism, reveal student opinions about plagiarism, and discover any correlation between attitudes to plagiarism, academic externalization, and academic success. The participants were 58 under- and post-graduates and three lecturers in the English Language Teaching Department of a Turkish state university. The data were collected via two scales and semi-constructed interviews. The data revealed that the students did not hold positive values towards plagiarism, despite a significant difference between undergraduates’ and post-graduates’ opinions and significant correlations among variables. Qualitative data showed that the students consider plagiarism as resulting mostly from contextual factors as well as a few individual factors. It is noteworthy that necessary precautions against plagiarism proposed by the student and instructor interviewees match each other, and also suggestions made on how to eliminate these factors.

Keywords: Attitudes to plagiarism, externalization, locus of control, plagiarism

Introduction

There has been growing interest in research on plagiarism, which is basically defined as using “words, ideas, or work products attributable to another identifiable person or source without attributing the work to the source from which it was obtained … to obtain some benefit” (Fishman, 2009, p. 5). Institutional academic integrity policies may take the “intention” into consideration. Therefore, it is important to examine these concepts with the various types of plagiarism. Plagiarism that emerges due to lack of academic literacy or linguistic deficiencies is categorised as unintentional plagiarism; while that conducted on purpose, such as paying someone else for an assignment, is defined as serious intentional
plagiarism (Grigg, 2010). However, the wide array of definitions reveals that plagiarism cannot be defined merely with a dual categorization, since there are sometimes contextual reasons (Löfström & Kupila, 2013) behind it. Moreover, types of plagiarism vary, such as unauthorised collaboration (McCabe, 2005) or self-plagiarism (Bretag & Carapiet, 2007).

When all the varied perceptions are considered, it seems necessary to construct a shared definition and understand students’ perceptions of plagiarism at the higher education (HE) level. As Lakoff and Johnson (1980) put it, the metaphors used in studies referring to the plagiarism concept reflect the negative perceptions of plagiarism, such as “sin” (Bombaro, 2007, p. 296), “fraud, excessive repetition” (Howard, 2000, p. 475), “theft” (Robillard, 2009, p. 406), and “Pandora’s Box” (Sutherland-Smith, 2005, p. 83).

Despite the negative connotations that plagiarism creates in western academia (e.g., Rets & Ilya, 2018), Share (2006) proposes a different, intertextuality perspective, which requires dealing with plagiarism in regard to the cultural and contextual variations in text interpretation and construction. It is also claimed that academic behaviour is extensively determined by the values of the academic community (Payne & Nantz, 1994). For instance, more students tend to plagiarise if lecturers neglect to review their assignments (Burnett, 2002), whereupon students’ perceptions of plagiarism gradually resemble those of their instructors (Sims, 1995).

**Underlying Roots of Plagiarism**

The relevant research highlights the impact of both contextual and individualistic factors on students’ attitudes towards plagiarism. The effects of contextual factors on their attitudes are various. Both institutional policies and lecturers’ strategies on plagiarism exert an impact on student attitudes regarding plagiarism (Comas-Forgas & Sureda-Negre, 2010). Also, students’ attitudes apparently contain traces of their home cultures (McCabe, Feghali, & Abdallah, 2008). Provided that the students continue their study in the same education system, level of the programme (Stănescu & Iorga, 2013) appear to create a significant difference between the attitudes of undergraduates and postgraduate students, and the discipline (Yeo, 2007) seems to have a role in differentiating the attitudes of students. Contextual factors such as time constraints may encourage students to plagiarise, despite their generally negative attitude towards it (Eret & Gokmenoglu, 2010). Consequently, attitudes towards plagiarism and the social or academic context may be linked.
In addition to contextual factors, several studies indicate that individual differences may influence a tendency towards plagiarism. For example, a low level of foreign language proficiency may be linked to unintentional plagiarism (Eret & Gokmenoglu, 2010). Regardless of language proficiency, some socio-cultural genre-based studies also demonstrate a lack of academic literacy as a factor in plagiarism and the need for instruction in academic skills (Abasi & Graves, 2008). Academic achievement in relation to plagiarism has also been investigated to see if there was any correlation; however, no direct connection was detected (Siaputra, 2013).

Granitz and Loewy’s (2007) study on the ethical theories employed by students to justify their acts of plagiarism revealed that the most common are deontology (behaving as if they were not aware of what they did), situational ethics (following different codes in different situations), and Machiavellian reasoning (taking the opportunity to plagiarise and blaming others if they are exposed).

Studies on the link between personality factors and attitudes to plagiarism have generated similar results except for a few conflicting examples. Although some studies indicate no significant association of attitudes towards plagiarism with certain personality traits (Lewis & Zhong, 2011); in general, a link between personality and academic dishonesty tendencies has been supported (Siaputra, 2013; Stănescu & Iorga, 2013). Anomia, defined as lack of integrity in social life (Caruana, Ramaseshan & Ewing, 2000), seeking excitement, absence of conscientiousness (De Bruin & Rudnick, 2007), and narcissism (Menon & Sharland, 2011) are among the factors which may be linked with academic integrity and plagiarism. Academic locus of control and tendencies towards plagiarism have also been shown to be factors associated with self-efficacy (Yesilyurt, 2014); nevertheless, a direct link between locus of control and attitudes regarding plagiarism has not yet been studied.

Some personality trait associations may be pedagogically problematic since instructional precautions cannot alter them, such as with narcissism. However, others may be tackled with covert programme alterations and direct training. One of these is the student’s locus of control, which refers to an individual’s beliefs about the possibility of control over their lives. People tend to belong to two groups, externalisers and internalisers, regarding their locus of control. Externalisers believe they cannot change what happens to them in life; therefore, they assume fate or external factors direct their lives. In contrast, Internalisers believe that their own actions can change their lives (Rotter, 1966).
Aims of Study

Locus of control can be altered with training or education (Hill, 2011). Thus, discovering any possible relationship between attitudes towards plagiarism and externalization may have pedagogical implications. However, the relevant research lacks a study that investigates such a relationship in the Turkish context.

Relevant literature (e.g. Comas-Forgas & Sureda-Negre, 2010; Payne & Nantz, 1994) reveals that student tendencies are under the impact of context and institutional policies; therefore, discovering attitudes towards plagiarism in specific contexts may help in interpreting how they are connected to each other. The views of language teachers are particularly important as their outlook may influence the intertextuality of foreign language learners. Accordingly, the purpose of this descriptive case study is threefold: (1) to investigate implicit departmental policy regarding plagiarism; (2) to reveal students’ attitudes towards plagiarism; and (3) to discover any possible correlation between attitudes to plagiarism, academic externalization, and academic success.

Methodology

Setting and Participants

The data were collected from an English Language Teaching (ELT) Department with both BA and MA programmes at a state university in Bursa, Turkey. The students are admitted to the department according to their score in the centralised university entrance assessment process. The department offers courses where aspects of plagiarism are taught to sophomores as a module in their research skills course and postgraduate students as a regulation by the Council of Higher Education to prevent unintentional plagiarism.

Table 1: Demographic Information of Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>N_female</th>
<th>N_male</th>
<th>M_age</th>
<th>M_GPA*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Undergrad</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgrad</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total/M</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>2.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*GPA: Grade point average

As illustrated in Table 1, there were a total of 58 student participants whose ages ranged from 18 to 40. All participants were selected from among those who declared that they had heard about plagiarism before; thus, they were considered
to have developed attitudes towards plagiarism. As Table 2 demonstrates, formal lectures and informal talks by lecturers were identified as the main sources of learners’ familiarization with plagiarism.

Table 2: Means of Plagiarism Familiarisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means of familiarisation</th>
<th>Undergrad</th>
<th>Postgrad</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Via lectures</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Via informal lecturer talk</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Via friends</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Via online sources</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Via other sources</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to collecting data via a questionnaire, 8 of the student participants (undergrad: \(n_{\text{male}} = 1, n_{\text{female}} = 2\); postgrad: \(n_{\text{male}} = 1, n_{\text{female}} = 4\) and 3 female instructors, two of whom lecture in both graduate and MA programmes while one lectures only in the graduate programme, were interviewed to enable triangulation.

**Data Collection Tools**

To identify students’ attitudes about plagiarism, the Attitudes Towards Plagiarism scale (ATP – Mavrinac, Brumini, Bilić-Zulle & Petrovečki, 2010) was used. ATP consists of three factors, namely, a ‘positive attitude towards plagiarism (PAP)’, ‘negative attitude towards plagiarism (NAP)’, and ‘subjective norms towards plagiarism (SNP)’. The items under PAP do not consider plagiarism as misconduct whereas the items under NAP indicate that plagiarism is not acceptable under any circumstances. Additionally, the items under SNP illustrate excuses used by plagiarisers to defend their behavioural misconduct. Those excuses are mostly contextual. The present study obtained reliable Cronbach alpha values for each section of the instrument (PAP, \(\alpha = .70\); NAP, \(\alpha = .75\); SNP, \(\alpha = .82\)).

PAP and SNP are expected to positively correlate, while PAP and NAP are supposed to negatively correlate (Mavrinac, Brumini, Bilić-Zulle, & Petrovečki, 2010). PAP establishes that the participant has a positive attitude that considers plagiarism as an unimportant incident. NAP consists of items that reveal a personal disapproval of plagiarism. SNP however, includes items that are expected to positively correlate with PAP and reflect a perceived acceptance of plagiarism in the academic community.

To find out students’ direction of locus of control, the participants were asked to answer Trice’s (1985) Academic Locus of Control Scale for College Students
(ALCSCS), consisting of 28 dichotomous items (True / False). The items were coded in the direction of externalization (EXT) so that a higher score indicates a higher level of externalization. ALCSCS was chosen as it is the only locus of control scale created for university students, and more exact results are obtained regarding locus of control with instruments designed for specific fields rather than general behaviour (Rotter, 1975).

Semi-constructed interview sessions with 8 students and 3 instructors were initiated with two sets of questions and inter-coder reliability was ensured by an independent rater.

**Data Collection and Analysis**

The data were collected through to the end of the 2016–2017 academic year by means of ATP, ALCSCS, and interviews. The quantitative data were first analysed via Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests and the results were not significant (p > .05). The values for each set of data were between the -1 and +1 values of Skewness and Kurtosis; therefore, they were normally distributed. In addition to descriptive statistics, Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to reveal any significant differences between under- and postgrad programmes; while Person Correlation test was used to check the correlation between PAP, NAP, SNP, EXT, and GPA. Meanwhile, semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with the 8 volunteer students and 3 instructors. Thematic and content analyses were used to analyse the qualitative data. The content analysis of the interviewees’ definition of plagiarism and the personality traits they associated with plagiarism were conducted using Lextutor.com, and the results are given with their frequencies. The rest of the qualitative data were analysed by means of theme-coding.

**Findings**

**Implicit Departmental Policy on Plagiarism**

Two instructors stated that the policy each instructor followed was decided by individually considering the nature of the assignment; however, they reported that the application of text-matching software was mandatory for MA theses. Although the decision regarding cases of reported plagiarism was made by the University Senate, the lecturers stated there was no institutional policy regarding procedures to be followed in the case of breaches.

The common point regarding a definition of plagiarism by the three lecturers is that they consider plagiarism as not only taking someone else’s words but also their ideas, without giving any references or citations. One of them said
that she considered “a text with long quotations and very few original ideas” as a plagiarised text, even though it cites appropriately. Despite variations in their understanding of plagiarism, all three instructors found self-plagiarism as serious and punishable as plagiarizing the work of others.

The instructors identified seven factors that lead to plagiarism under two themes. The first theme related to contextual factors and included ‘time limitations/workload’ ($n = 3$), ‘lack of information about plagiarism concept’ ($n = 1$), and ‘traditional acceptance’ ($n = 1$). The second theme related to individual factors including ‘lack of academic writing skills’ ($n = 3$), ‘low language proficiency’ ($n = 2$), ‘personality’ ($n = 2$), and ‘students’ insensitivity’ ($n = 1$).

The lecturers associated plagiarism with four different negative personality traits, namely, ‘dishonest’ ($n = 3$), ‘too ambitious’ ($n = 1$), and ‘lacking integrity’ ($n = 1$). However, they also stated that students sometimes plagiarised as they lacked enough information about the boundaries of plagiarism. One of the interviewees considered personality as the most important factor in student sensitivity to plagiarism.

Two of the lecturers stated that both students and instructors were equally responsible for the prevention of plagiarism and emphasised the necessity of reviewing assignments and declaring certain standards. However, one of them claimed that the students should be held more accountable for any plagiarism “as long as they were previously informed about plagiarism and its consequences”.

The instructors proposed six measures to prevent student plagiarism: ‘Using text-matching software’ ($n = 3$), ‘giving students information about plagiarism’ ($n = 2$), ‘developing students’ academic writing skills’ ($n = 2$), ‘ethical values education from an early age’ ($n = 1$), ‘feedback from instructors who are knowledgeable in their fields’ ($n = 1$), and ‘being clear about expectations from the students’ ($n = 1$).

The interviewees were unanimous that text-matching software discouraged plagiarism; although one of them called attention to the fact that the algorithms of such software may not show all similarities. However, lecturers added that awareness of their learners’ capabilities and being experienced in the field should help to reveal incidents of plagiarism in the case of failure by text-matching software.

**Student Attitudes towards Plagiarism and Level of Externalization**

As indicated in Tables 3 and 4, the PAP mean value implies that the participants did not hold highly positive attitudes toward plagiarism act on average, which means they did not declare a total personal acceptance of plagiarism; instead, as the NAP mean revealed, they held relatively negative attitudes towards plagiarism in all classes when compared with PAP means. Also, the mean value of SNP shows that the participants’ perceived acceptance of plagiarism acts in accordance with
their academic context and subjective reasoning is not high on average, either. However, it is also seen that students in their senior year and at postgraduate level have lower mean values of PAP while students in their first, second, and third years seem to have more positive attitudes towards plagiarism on average. Overall, the externalization scale mean value was 14.26 (SD = 4.33), which reveals a mediocre level of externalization on average since the highest possible score is 28.

Table 3: Mean Values on the Level of Externalization and Attitudes of Students to Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Classes</th>
<th>$M_{\text{PAP}}$</th>
<th>$M_{\text{NAP}}$</th>
<th>$M_{\text{SNP}}$</th>
<th>$M_{\text{EXT}}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshman</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>17.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>13.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>15.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>15.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgrad</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>3.95</td>
<td>2.21</td>
<td>12.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: Mean Values on the Level of Externalization and Attitudes of Students to Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>$M$</th>
<th>$SD$</th>
<th>$M_{\text{Grad}}$</th>
<th>$M_{\text{Postgrad}}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PAP</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NAP</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SNP</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXT</td>
<td>14.26</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>15.33</td>
<td>12.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mann-Whitney $U$ tests indicated a significant difference ($z = -3.14$, $p = .002$) between undergraduates ($Md = 34.35$) and post-graduates ($Md = 19.55$) over PAP values; and between undergraduates ($Md = 24.92$) and post-graduates ($Md = 38.39$) over NAP values ($z = -2.97$, $p = .003$). There were significant differences between undergraduates ($Md = 37.03$) and post-graduates ($Md = 14.05$) regarding SNP values ($z = -4.87$, $p = .000$); and also undergraduates ($Md = 33.63$) and post-graduates’ ($Md = 21.03$) concerning EXT values ($z = -2.68$, $p = .007$). In the light of those statistically significant differences, it can be claimed that the undergraduates held relatively more personal acceptance of plagiarism and felt less negative about plagiarism acts than the postgraduate students. Also, they apparently declared a higher level of subjective acceptability of plagiarism concept in relation with their own reasoning and their context instead of developing objective or stable principles or values. Therefore, undergraduates seem to tend to plagiarise or approve plagiarism more than undergraduates. Similarly, undergraduates tend to externalise the results of their behaviours more than the postgraduate students.
The content analysis of interviews indicated that student participants used seven acts to define plagiarism, namely, as ‘stealing’ \( (n = 6) \), ‘theft’, \( (n = 3) \), ‘pretending’ \( (n = 3) \), ‘copying’ \( (n = 2) \), ‘cheating’ \( (n = 2) \), ‘crime’ \( (n = 1) \), and ‘fraud’ \( (n = 1) \). Plagiarism was most associated with the act of stealing and theft by the interviewees in five different ways: ‘stealing someone’s scientific effort’ \( (n = 1) \), ‘stealing someone’s work’ \( (n = 4) \), ‘stealing someone else’s words and reputation’ \( (n = 1) \), and ‘a kind of scientific or academic theft’ \( (n = 3) \).

The participants reported that they believed people who had the following 15 personality traits tended to plagiarise more than others: ‘lazy’ \( (n = 7) \), ‘non-respectful’ \( (n = 3) \), ‘dishonest’ \( (n = 3) \), ‘impatient’ \( (n = 2) \), ‘self-interested’ \( (n = 2) \), ‘careless’ \( (n = 1) \), ‘too ambitious’ \( (n = 1) \), ‘unenthusiastic’ \( (n = 1) \), ‘not idealistic’ (i.e. not seeking perfection/high standards) \( (n = 1) \), ‘insecure’ \( (n = 1) \), ‘greedy’ \( (n = 1) \), ‘worried’ \( (n = 1) \), ‘liar’ \( (n = 1) \), ‘feeling incompetent’ \( (n = 1) \), and ‘bad at time management’ \( (n = 1) \). Almost all the interviewees associated plagiarisers with laziness, and almost half of them stated disrespect as associated with plagiarism in two ways, either related to disrespect as to what they were doing themselves and/or the acts of other people.

When it comes to self-plagiarism, student attitudes were categorised under three themes: ‘self-plagiarism is not plagiarism’ \( (n = 3) \), ‘as bad or punishable as plagiarizing the work of others’ \( (n = 3) \), and ‘self-plagiarism is as serious as other types of plagiarism’ \( (n = 2) \).

The students reported 10 factors that lead to plagiarism under two themes. The first theme contextual factors included ‘time limitations’ \( (n = 6) \), ‘workload lack of an academics’ \( (n = 4) \), ‘irrelevant / useless assignments’ \( (n = 3) \), ‘lack of training on plagiarism concept’ \( (n = 2) \), ‘lack of adequate feedback’ \( (n = 1) \), and ‘lack of access to main sources’ \( (n = 1) \). The second theme of individual factors covered ‘low language proficiency’ \( (n = 3) \), ‘lack of academic writing skills’ \( (n = 3) \), and ‘people’s personality’ \( (n = 2) \).

Although only two participants reported in the survey that personality traits were a factor resulting in a tendency to plagiarism, when asked in person all the student interviewees declared that they thought both personality traits and contextual factors might cause such a tendency. Whereas five of the interviewees thought that both contextual factors and personality traits had an equal effect on committing plagiarism, two of them claimed that personality traits had much more impact.

Five of the student interviewees proposed that both professors who made no attempt to detect plagiarism and students who plagiarised shared equal responsibility for plagiarism; while three of them insisted that the lecturers’ responsibility was greater.
All of the interviewees claimed that it was possible to prevent extensive plagiarism although they found it unlikely it could be stopped entirely. The precautions against plagiarism they proposed are listed below:

- Using text-matching software ($n = 4$)
- Training on plagiarism ($n = 3$)
- Giving students enough time to review the literature ($n = 2$)
- Developing better academic writing skills ($n = 2$)
- Raising learner motivation ($n = 2$)
- Encouraging lecturer-student collaboration ($n = 2$)
- Becoming more proficient in a foreign language ($n = 1$)
- Having access to academic sources ($n = 1$)

Student interviewees also indicated that there should be committees to standardise academic integrity policies at institutional, national and international level including both lecturers and students. They said that the involvement of student members on these committees would create a ‘democratic’ environment and ‘increase autonomy’.

Interestingly, all the lecturer interviewees thought that undergraduates paid little attention to the issue of plagiarism in their assignments, despite the efforts of the lecturers; however, post-graduates were regarded as being more sensitive on this issue.

### Correlation between Attitudes, Externalization, and Academic Achievement

Quantitative data from the two instruments of ATP (Mavrinac et al., 2010) and ALCSCS (Trice, 1985) were taken into consideration to reveal any correlations among the factors involved in these scales. The matrix in Table 5 presents the correlation coefficients between GPA, PAP, SNP means, and EXT scores retrieved via Pearson Correlation test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$r_{GPA}$</th>
<th>$r_{PAP}$</th>
<th>$r_{NAP}$</th>
<th>$r_{SNP}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$r_{PAP}$</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_{NAP}$</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.37*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_{SNP}$</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>.67**</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.49**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r_{EXT}$</td>
<td>-.13</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>-.29*</td>
<td>.35*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p < .05, **p < .001
As Table 5 indicates, there is a strong correlation between SNP and PAP ($p < .001$), a moderate negative correlation between SNP and NAP ($p < .001$), and a moderate negative correlation between PAP and NAP ($p = .004$), similar to the findings of Mavrinac et al. (2010), which is expectable since the ones who feel more positive about plagiarism tend to hold less negative attitudes towards it. Also, students with more subjective view of plagiarism in accordance with the contextual variables tend to have less negative perception about plagiarism. More insightfully, the results also reveal a moderately positive correlation between EXT and SNP ($p = .008$) and a small negative correlation between EXT and NAP ($p = .03$). This may imply that those who externalise the responsibility of their actions more hold more subjective norms about plagiarism and develop their attitudes towards plagiarism according to the contextual variables instead of depending on any objective and stable values. They also tend to feel less negative about plagiarism concept personally, therefore they are more likely to conduct plagiarism.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

When the PAP and SNP values are viewed together with the negative personality traits associated with plagiarism by students and the negative metaphors with which they described plagiarism (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), it is apparent that students have low positive attitudes towards plagiarism in general. However, when Mann-Whitney $U$ test results and lecturers’ perceptions are considered together, it is seen that undergraduates have more positive attitudes and subjective norms towards plagiarism than postgraduate students, similar to Stănescu and Iorga’s (2013) findings. It might be the contextual variables that altered their attitudes towards plagiarism. As the lecturer interviewees declared, there was a stricter policy against plagiarism in the postgraduate programme. These results also seem to confirm other studies in the literature that claim contextual factors influence people’s attitudes over time (Burnett, 2002; Payne & Nantz, 1994). Another reason may be that the attitudes of postgraduate students towards plagiarism become similar to their instructors gradually over the time they spend at university, as claimed by Sims (1995).

However, it is especially noteworthy that both the lecturer and student interviewees agreed that only contextual factors could not lead someone to plagiarise without a pre-existing personality factor, as it is possible to change some personality influences, such as the locus of control, with training (Hill, 2011). In addition to training, student-inclusive decision-making processes, which were proposed by some of the student participants, could help reduce students’ externalization about their plagiarism acts and intentions.
The negative correlation between EXT and NAP and the positive correlation between EXT and SNP imply that the direction of locus of control is a factor in students’ attitudes towards plagiarism. Externalisers seem to feel less negative about plagiarism and hold positive attitudes towards plagiarism under the effect of external factors. Within this perspective, externalisers might be considered to be more prone to committing plagiarism.

Consequently, policies against plagiarism can make even the externalisers employ situational ethics (Granitz & Loewy, 2007) and avoid plagiarism because contextual perceptions on plagiarism have been shown to influence people’s attitudes (Payne & Nantz, 1994). Similarly, as both instructor and student interviewees agreed, an effective policy against plagiarism might prevent unintentional and intentional contextual plagiarism (Löfström & Kupila, 2013).

All in all, it seems that there is a desire for an institutional academic integrity policy that functions in a reliable and consistent manner and be developed cooperatively with the involvement of all stakeholders, including students. In this respect, the lecturers, administrators, and policy makers are expected to take personal locus of control and attitudes towards plagiarism into consideration, in addition to other factors, to prevent plagiarism in student assignments.

References


The Student Voice: What We Know About the Students’ Perspective of Academic Integrity

Abstract: ‘Contract cheating’ can be very difficult to detect, yet it threatens the very essence of educational integrity. Whilst detection and fair penalties are important, it would be more effective to tackle the root cause by understanding student attitudes. This paper explores existing research to determine the extent to which the student voice has been heard within surveys, research papers and other sources discussing Academic Integrity, Plagiarism and Academic Misconduct. Relevant surveys were categorised using a number of metrics; a review of written papers was performed and themes drawn out, and social media sources were assessed to establish how much student-centred content there is. Findings suggest there are very limited qualitative data and discussion directly with students about their understanding of academic integrity, reasons for ‘cheating’ and the value they give to their degree. Suggestions are made as to how the problems of contract cheating can be resolved.

Keywords: attitude, contract cheating, integrity, student voice

Introduction

The face of plagiarism is changing. From the simplicity of the cut-and-paste mentality of the early Internet years (and of course, much before that, from print), there is now a much more difficult type of plagiarism to spot – which goes by the name of ‘contract cheating’, ‘academic outsourcing’ or ‘ghost writing’ (Lancaster, 2017; QAA, 2017). Academics, educational institutions and awarding bodies realise that the foundations of education are at risk as degrees may be awarded on the merit, not of the student who submits it, but on the merit of some unknown and unseen person, paid to produce an original assignment that will achieve a certain grade as specified by the student (Newton & Lang, 2016). As it is much more difficult to detect, it would be more effective to prevent these behaviours than to penalise them. However, in order to prevent them, it is first necessary to develop a good understanding of students’ opinions and perspectives on academic
integrity, and their attitudes towards their degrees, to help us understand why they might turn to this course of action as a viable option.

Once this information is available, activities, training and other relevant options can be put in place to help students avoid cheating. Detection and fair penalties are important (Adam, 2016; Lancaster, 2017), but it would be more effective to tackle the root cause by understanding student attitudes. This research aims to ascertain whether there is currently sufficient information from the students themselves to enable us to make accurate assumptions about their views on this matter, as this will be key to changing cheating behaviours. The theoretical framework is that there is insufficient information directly from students, but this is critical to understanding student attitudes. Reviewing the literature to date will help establish what information exists from students, and how this impacts the way academics and institutions address the problem of contract cheating.

To this end, a search was carried out to explore where evidence of the student voice has been heard within surveys, research papers and other sources discussing Academic Integrity, Plagiarism and Academic Misconduct. The current and most significant works in this area to date were studied (for example, surveys by Bretag, 2014; ICAI, n.d.; McCabe, 1993; McCabe & Trevino, 1993, 1997; McCabe, Trevino & Butterfield, 1996, 1999; QAA, 2017). Early findings suggest there is a reasonable amount of discussion around what constitutes ‘cheating’ or academic misconduct in general and why students might be tempted to either bend or blatantly disregard the rules of their institution. However, there is limited discussion directly with students about their perspective of academic integrity, asking them why they ‘cheat’, what they think constitutes academic misconduct, whether they think their education sufficiently prepares them for academic careers – and indeed, whether they want an academic career or simply want to get their degree. There is some quantitative data on academic misconduct, and some qualitative data has been gathered via open-ended questions in some written surveys (Bretag et al., 2014; McCabe & Trevino, 1993; Office of Academic Integrity, 2013). However, there are only a limited number of focus groups and student interviews that have been documented (for example, Foltýnek & Glendinning, 2015; Michalska, 2014; Park, 2003). This is an area that provides rich data for our understanding of contract cheating and plagiarism from the student perspective, and as such, warrants further exploration.

The research questions are as follows:

- What is the focus of existing research into academic integrity / misconduct?
- What types of data already exist?
- To what extent is the student voice heard in existing research?
• How could student perceptions be more accurately gathered?
• How will hearing the student voice help in reducing plagiarism, in particular, contract cheating?

Method
An initial search for journal articles was carried out using a University database, which included access to a wide variety of scholarly databases including Academic Search Complete, Wiley, ERIC, Elsevier, Emerald, ProQuest, Springer and others. Searches were carried out for peer-reviewed journal articles employing the keywords and phrases ‘Plagiarism’, ‘Academic Integrity’, ‘Academic Misconduct’ and ‘Cheating’ using Boolean operators. The focus was on publications within the last 20 years. The primary search yielded just under 170,000 results. Due to the volume of results, a ‘subject’ search was then used to refine the results. This uses the data from the MARC 650 field, based on the National Library of Congress subject headings, and yielded a much more focused set of results of just under 4,200 publications. Because of the variety of issues discussed surrounding plagiarism, no exclusion criteria were used for fear of missing useful results.

Results were then scanned by title. Since the focus of this research is the student voice, it was possible to exclude a large number of results quickly – articles about academic misconduct in the business place and contract cheating markets, for example. Abstracts were then read to determine whether there was likely to be any information on the student voice and they were dismissed if not. References within relevant articles were also considered as a potential source of further reading, and were investigated as appropriate.

Following this, an online search was carried out using the same keywords and phrases, with the aim of identifying websites and online sources specifically focusing on this area (as opposed to articles or information on more general websites). The author made use of links within an Academic Integrity Facebook group to help identify a number of these resources. Findings were discussed with University colleagues having an interest in the field to determine whether any other sources of value had been missed.

Surveys
Surveys were categorised by number of respondents, who the respondents were (e.g. faculty or student), format of questions (e.g. qualitative, quantitative, open, closed, free text, tick boxes, Likert scale) and purpose of questions (e.g. understanding of academic integrity, confessions of cheating, awareness of policy). This
was followed by a less formal review of the author’s summary to establish how the data had been interpreted. Ten major surveys were identified as a starting point, and these are summarised in the findings section.

**Written Discussions and Guidelines**

Following the search on the university library database, articles were scanned for relevance and then skim read to locate any references specifically to student dialogues or quotes. An initial coding analysis was carried out as a scoping exercise to identify key themes and to identify in which articles evidence of the student voice emerged that could be developed with more detailed coding in further research. In addition, some specific documents known to the authors were reviewed, including a recent document released from the QAA, as this has considerable importance in raising awareness of contract cheating in UK HEIs (Higher Education Institutions), among others.

**Internet Sources**

Internet sources found were reviewed with a search for information directed towards students, or from students themselves.

**Limitations**

There are many papers on the topic of academic misconduct, contract cheating and plagiarism, and whilst a full categorisation of all articles in this field would be useful, it would be considerably time-consuming. It is possible therefore that this paper will have missed some important studies. In addition, the phrase ‘ghost writing’ was not used within the search criteria, and this may have led to some important omissions. It would be useful to take the International Center for Academic Integrity list of the top 42 Academic Integrity articles and book chapters from 1992 to 2012 (Bertram Gallant, 2012) and revisit this with a view to systematically searching for evidence of the student voice. Combining this with further survey and article categorisation would provide a comprehensive set of data on where the student voice can be found and would ensure no major omissions have occurred.

**Findings**

Surveys provided a good source of quantitative information, although this was primarily factual information about why students chose to cheat, how they cheated, their views on academic integrity and appropriate punishment of cheating, etc. Some papers discussed student perspectives but did not refer directly to
conversations or forums with students themselves. Social media sites occasionally reported on events which suggested some direct interaction with students, but this is not comprehensively documented. Full details are provided below.

**Surveys**

Several large-scale surveys have been carried out over the last 30 years or so. These include a number of surveys carried out by Don McCabe (United States and Canada), The Academic Integrity Standards Survey (Australia), The Amber project, the IPPHEAE Project and Rebecca Awdry’s GEMS (Global Essay Mills Survey) Project, which is currently underway. A summary is given below:

*Table 1: Summary of Academic Integrity Surveys*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Detail</th>
<th>Includes student responses</th>
<th>Open ended / free text questions as part of survey</th>
<th>Face-to-face discussions with students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bowers (1964, cited in McCabe et al., 2001)</td>
<td>5,000 students from 99 US colleges and universities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Not stated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCabe and Trevino (1993)</td>
<td>6,096 students, 31 colleges and universities, carried out 1990–91</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCabe (1993)</td>
<td>800 faculty from 16 US colleges and universities</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCabe and Trevino (1997)</td>
<td>1,800 students at 9 medium-to-large universities, carried out 1993–94</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCabe et al. (1999)</td>
<td>31 colleges and universities (repeat of 1990 survey, carried out 1995–96)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield (1996)</td>
<td>318 alumni of two private liberal art colleges</td>
<td>Yes (alumni)</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>McCabe, Trevino, and Butterfield (1999)</td>
<td>Qualitative study, 21 campuses</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bretag et al. (2014)</td>
<td>15,000 students, 6 universities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foltýnek and Glendinning (IPHEAE, 2015)</td>
<td>3,980 students, 27 EU countries, 116 participants in student interviews and focus groups</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEMS (ENAI, 2017)</td>
<td>Global Essay Mills Survey (2017-)</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Don McCabe’s academic integrity survey

From the early 1990s through to 2015, McCabe and colleagues surveyed a large number of academic institutions and their students. The total number of students surveyed by the end of the survey period was in the region of 70,000 undergraduates.

A summary of the data compiled from McCabe’s research between 2002 and 2015 available at the International Center for Academic Integrity shows that over two-thirds (68%) of undergraduates who completed the survey admitted to cheating in some form or another (International Center for Academic Integrity, retrieved 2017). The surveys comprise mainly quantitative questions, with several open-ended free text questions at the end. McCabe also carried out a survey which focused on qualitative questions (McCabe et al., 1999) and reported on the student’s perspective, including observations from students such as “Focus on learning, not on grades”, and “Provide deterrents to cheating (e.g. harsh penalties)”. This appears to be the most comprehensive work on student perspectives.

Academic integrity standards survey – UNISA

In 2014, Bretag et al. (2014) published the findings of a survey of around 15,000 students in six Australian Universities. The focus of this survey was on training and understanding, asking questions about awareness of academic policies, type and timing of support given, and so on. Alongside the quantitative questions were four open-ended questions allowing text responses. Comments from students included “I think everyone has a different understanding of what academic integrity is and I think that needs to be fixed” (p. 1159), and “over my four years at [this university] I have always been unsure whether I am satisfactorily meeting the academic integrity policy with my work” (p. 1159). The report concludes that whilst students indicate a good awareness of academic integrity, applying this to their studies needs further development.

Impact of Policies for Plagiarism in Higher Education across Europe

This study (Foltýnek & Glendinning, 2015) reviewed policies on academic integrity in Higher Education across Europe. Focusing primarily on policy rather than student perspectives, the methods used to gather data included surveys and a number of focus groups and student interviews to allow for less structured discussion. A total of 3,980 students took part in the research. Written surveys included mainly Likert-style questions and multiple-choice questions with an ‘other’ option, where free text boxes were provided with the instructions ‘If you selected “other”, please specify’. Of the focus groups and interviews, 116 students
What we know about the students’ perspective of academic integrity

participated across 11 of the 27 EU countries studied. The authors note the ‘very rich data’ resulting from these focus groups and interviews, which were conducted by PhD students. It is not clear how the students were selected to take part, and it would be interesting to know whether the samples were selected by the researchers, or whether they were self-selecting.

**European students’ voices on plagiarism and academic practices**

Michalska (2014) provides very interesting information because it is one of few papers found which does not use surveys to gather data, but instead uses only qualitative data. Michalska believed that by using semi-structured discussions ‘it was possible to build a rapport and obtain more information about attitudes and practices among focus group participants, as well as document the unheard voices of ordinary students’. The study examines students’ views and links this with nationality, using a phenomenographical approach (i.e. how people understand plagiarism depends on their own experiences and viewpoint). In particular, it looks at students’ morality and values, and provides an analysis of the Higher Education system in which students gain their knowledge. Seventeen focus groups and 2 interviews were held, and these provide extremely interesting data, including discussion on how to categorise it.

**South East European project on policies for academic integrity**

This research project (SEEPPAI, 2017) gathered information from six European countries and also includes focus groups and interviews. Frank and open discussions with students were carried out, and it details student attitudes, suggestions of sources (such as Facebook and toilet stalls) as a place to hire essay-writing services. The findings indicate that students would like more support from teaching staff in developing skills in academic integrity.

**GEMS project – Global essay mills survey – Rebecca Awdry**

The GEMS project (European Network for Academic Integrity, 2017) aims to provide a global perspective on cheating covering the Americas, Europe and Australasia. Released in October 2017, it comprises two parts. The first considers students’ own study behaviours and reasons for being at University; and why and when they used essay mills or obtained work from others (and if so, from whom). The second part asks students to discuss other students’ cheating habits, and what the outcomes for those students should be. There are a small number of open-ended questions to allow for limited qualitative data collection, but these
are very broad in nature, such as “If you wish to say anything else on this topic, please leave a comment below”.

**Written Reports and Guidelines**

There are a number of other reports and guidelines that are worthy of mention. The AMBeR project (Tennant & Rowell, 2007) focuses on the range and spread of penalties given for student plagiarism gathered from over 150 UK Higher Education Institutions. The UK QAA report (Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, 2017) draws together the UK’s framework for addressing contract cheating in Higher Education, and of the 16 members of the advisory panel for this document, two are representative of the student population. The Good Practice Note (Australian Government, 2017) created by the Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency in Australia in conjunction with Tracey Bretag references a number of student surveys conducted across the work from 2005 through to 2010, though there is no data from the UK. In 2012, the International Center for Academic Integrity published a list of the top 42 Academic Integrity articles and book chapters from 1992 to 2012 (Bertram Gallant, 2012); an updated version of this would be useful.

Additionally, the 10 Principles of Academic Integrity for Faculty (Academic Integrity Seminar, accessed 2017) focuses on faculty members, but includes reference to students and making assessments more engaging, tuition less tedious, and so on. The focus is on virtue, honesty / dishonesty and ethics. There appears to be no discussion with students directly.

**In other (people’s) words, Park (2003)**

This article forms a very useful starting point for discussion. Park’s research examined seven themes relating to plagiarism including meaning and context, forms of plagiarism, reasons for plagiarising, the extent of the problem, challenges posed by digital plagiarism, the need to promote academic integrity, and student views on plagiarism. This research includes very interesting and varied points of view and demonstrates the enormity of trying to define ‘plagiarism’ from political, moral, academic, social and international standpoints. Park references a number of articles looking at student perspectives, but very few of these articles actually discuss or demonstrate conversations with students. Sutton and Huba focus on ethnicity and religious participation, with students selected using random sampling techniques (or all African-Americans). Participants were asked to complete a survey consisting of 39 Likert-style questions and 8 multiple-choice questions and there were no open-ended questions or discussions. Barnett and Dalton used
a faculty-student survey that includes no discussion, and Payne and Nantz (1994) use long interviews to ascertain student perspectives to look at how students describe “cheating situations” – the students in this study were self-selecting, responding to advertisements in college newspapers. The work of Ashworth (1997) is also discussed, which comprised 19 interviews and provides some very rich data. It is not clear how students were selected for response, but attempts were made to ensure there was a diverse group. Additionally, Park cites the studies of Lim and See (2001) and Evans and Craig (1990); both of which are written surveys and include no discussion.

**Handbook of academic integrity**

Bretag’s (2016) Handbook of Academic Integrity is a reference work on plagiarism, contract cheating and international perspectives, and includes a chapter on student perspectives (Adam, 2016). This suggests that students are confused about what plagiarism is and how they can avoid it, and goes on to say that more research is needed into what students think and understand about referencing and citations, as well as becoming competent academic writers. It discusses the perceived difference between intentional and unintentional cheating and the punishment for such. The author comments that there is limited research into students’ perceptions of plagiarism.

**Other Sources of Information and Social Media / Internet Sources**

There are a number of useful online resources in relation to academic integrity. These include ENAI (European Network for Academic Integrity), which focuses on a top-down approach in its objectives (European Network for Academic Integrity, 2017), ICAI (The International Center for Academic Integrity, 2017), who state that membership extends to students but has no specific resources for students, and the Academic Integrity Facebook page (maintained by Gary Pavela), which has no specific resources for students. These sites would be an excellent way to promote the student voice.

**International day of action against contract cheating**

19th October 2017 was the second International Day against Contract Cheating. This promoted a wealth of activity with regard to ‘contract cheating’ with hashtags on twitter such as #defeatthecheat and #excelwithintegrity. ICAI tweeted “On our 2nd Day of Action Against Contract Cheating, we had 671 #defeatthecheat posts making 1,175,667 impressions!” (International Center for Academic Integrity, 2017).
Discussion and Recommendations

It is apparent, through analysis of the survey data and articles reviewed, that a wide variety of different foci exist within the literature. Policy, detection, attitudes, forms of plagiarism, academic perspective, student perspective and many other areas are discussed. In many ways, this is one of the difficulties of the research area, as there are many facets to this complex issue.

In terms of the types of data available, there is again a wide range, including surveys, literature reviews, HEI processes, penalties, statistics relating to recorded number of offences and policy review. Surveys primarily focus on quantitative data, though there are pockets of qualitative data, and whilst these provide a very detailed source of information, how respondents are selected, categorising the information gathered, and making use of it in a meaningful way, is less clearly documented.

There is research into different types of academic misconduct and guidance to institutions on how they could mitigate occurrences of academic misconduct. There are wide-scale surveys which ask for students’ ‘confessions’ of academic misconduct, and patches of qualitative data on why they might have engaged in cheating behaviours. But, as Lancaster (2017) suggests, students need to take leadership of this themselves and start having difficult discussions with their peers to protect the value of their award, and universities need to address the gap between academic integrity policy and practice (Bretag et al., 2014).

Focus groups and interviews undoubtedly provide very interesting data, because participants are free to explore a much wider (and possibly unexpected) range of issues. This, of course, throws up its own problems. Attempts have been made to categorise the data through arranging it under themed headings (Ashworth, Bannister, & Thorne, 1997) or using frameworks for analysis (Payne & Nantz, 1994). However, this in itself is challenging, and how the findings can be used to improve student understanding of academic integrity and thus reduce cheating is not significantly covered. Neither are studies which revisit students after a period of academic study to see if changes in behaviour can be evidenced.

To be certain of the extent of the problem, it would be useful to firstly review the incidences of academic misconduct in institutions; summarise the penalties and guidelines surrounding academic misconduct; and then carry out a series of discussions with students themselves about what would make them less likely to engage in these behaviours, how they suggest academic integrity could be better taught in universities, and what support they really need if we are to eradicate this behaviour altogether. Specifically, the author suggests carrying out focus groups with a clearly identified group of students (whether that be a whole cohort, a demographically-selected group of students, and / or students who have been
through an academic misconduct panel, for example), recording any activities which take place throughout an academic year to help students learn about good academic behaviours and academic integrity, and then holding secondary focus groups to see if social, cultural and academic change has occurred. After all, “If we’re not doing a good enough job of supporting learning, then we need to look at what we can do better.” (Eaton, 2017, para. 16).

Conclusion

Understanding student perspectives is vital if we are to reduce plagiarism. Considerable research has been done into plagiarism and the many and varied issues surrounding this area; and suggestions have been made as to how it can be detected and discouraged. Detailed qualitative evidence of student perceptions on their academic journey is more limited, particularly when reviewing where students start on this journey, and what helps or hinders them in their progress. This evidence is a vital ingredient in developing a supportive, effective and successful learning experience.

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Abstract: Many universities around the world grapple with ways to manage plagiarism successfully. The approach taken depends on the understanding of plagiarism within institutions. This emerges from a study on the conceptualisations of and responses to plagiarism in the South African Higher Education system. Data was collected from 25 South African public universities primarily in the form of what are known as ‘plagiarism policies’ and other related documents, supplemented by interviews with plagiarism committee members. Data suggest that the approach to plagiarism signifies a common-sense understanding of teaching and learning, and in particular, the acquisition of disciplinary writing practices. These understandings are centred on personal experiences and dominant discourses rather than on theoretically interrogated positions.

Keywords: academic integrity, academic misconduct, common-sense, plagiarism, teaching and learning

Introduction

Global changes including internationalisation, massification, and the rise of the ‘knowledge economy’, have had an enormous impact on higher education (Barnett, 2005; Lee, 2016). These shifts have brought about a highly diversified staff and student body and assumptions about shared literacy practices have been challenged (Angélil-Carter, 2000). Alongside these pressures has emerged a growing concern with incidents of plagiarism (Chauhan, 2018). While plagiarism is indeed a real problem that threatens the credibility of our universities and the knowledge produced within them (Kharat, Chavan, Jadhav, & Rakibe, 2013), there are concerns that our conception of plagiarism is often un-theorised and not particularly helpful (Elander, 2015).
This article traces the relationship between common-sense understandings of plagiarism within teaching and learning. It argues that these un-theorised common-sense understandings are mutually sustaining in ways that fail to address the core concern about appropriate academic citation specifically and academic integrity more generally.

‘Common-sense’ here is understood as an “uncritical and largely unconscious way of perceiving and understanding the world that has become common in any given epoch” (Gramsci 1971, p. 322). While Gramsci was primarily concerned with the construction of broad social systems through a set of unquestioned assumptions, he points out that these manifest in multiple contexts, including in education. Common-sense approaches in education are understood to sustain the idea that knowledge is natural and obvious rather than cultural and political (Boughey & McKenna, 2016). In this regard, common sense approaches to teaching and learning focus on instrumental acquisition of the canon, which is largely seen to be beyond critique. Gooding-Brown (2000, p. 36) calls for a disruption of such ideas through “a critical dismantling of the concept of structures” which inform social and cultural practices. Disruption brings “a sense of uncovering and dismantling, in order to question the structures and systems through which people are constructed” (Belluigi, 2012, p. 122).

Common-sense beliefs about language are hugely powerful in academia. There is a dominant belief that language is merely a conduit for meaning (Christie, 1993) and as far back as 1916, Dewey was raising the issue that language is understood as if it is unrelated to the norms of the discipline (Dewey, 1916). In such understandings, language is seen to be a unitary phenomenon centred around proficiency and the perfection of grammar. This common-sense understanding of language fails to create a link between the formal literacies of educational institutions and the power structures within institutions (McKenna, 2004).

In contrast to this, a large body of research shows that teaching and learning are political, and that the social and cultural writing practices in academia are complex. In contrast to an autonomous understanding of texts as separate from their contexts, an ideological understanding perceives literacies as a set of social practices, which cannot be made sense of separately from the people who use them (Street, 1996). Sutherland-Smith calls for a transformational approach to teaching that foregrounds how the student comes to construct knowledge within the discipline. Language here is understood to be political and social, and its use in different disciplines is seen to emerge from the values and norms of that field (Angelil-Carter, 2000; Sutherland-Smith, 2008). Such social understandings of teaching and learning entail a move away from common-sense generic skills approaches and understand the significance of inducting students into the particular practices of academia.
The concept of *academic literacies* is defined as the “academic writing conventions and practices with which students are expected to engage” (Lillis & Scott, 2007, p. 14). It not only refers to literacies within different subjects and disciplines but incorporates genres and conventions of the academic discourse as a whole. It also includes issues of identity, institutional relationships and power, authority and the diverse writing practices students bring into academia (Lea & Street, 1998, 2006).

These social understandings of academic literacy have implications both for how teaching and learning are understood and how the issue of plagiarism is engaged with in the curriculum. Referencing is understood as entailing a host of issues pertaining to identity and how knowledge is produced, rather than simply the acquisition of technical referencing skills (Hendricks & Quinn, 2000). If the very notion of referencing is understood as a means of knowledge production and as entwined with developing a voice, then the understanding of and approaches to plagiarism will be very different.

The aim of the study reported on here is to interrogate the understandings being brought to bear on the concept of plagiarism across the higher education sector of South Africa.

**Method**

Twenty-six public universities in South Africa formed the population of this study, but only 25 were sampled and their data is included in this paper. One newly-established university was excluded because no information related to plagiarism could be located on its website or obtained from the university itself. The primary data used in this study were institutional policies related to incidents of plagiarism (see Table 1), and supplemental data in the form of interviews with seven participants from six universities, who were numbered Participant 1 to 7. These participants were members of committees managing plagiarism issues in universities. The universities are numbered ‘University 1 … 25’.

*Table 1: Different Policies Used in Universities*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Policy Number</th>
<th>Policy Name</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Policy 1</td>
<td>Plagiarism policies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Policy 2</td>
<td>Teaching and learning policies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Policy 3</td>
<td>Student assessment policies</td>
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<td>Policy 4</td>
<td>Research/Higher degree policies</td>
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<tr>
<td>Policy 5</td>
<td>Student manuals on plagiarism and/referencing</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Ethical clearance was obtained from the relevant institutions, and interviews were conducted with the consent of participants. The participants represented the three institutional types found in the public higher education sector in South Africa: traditional universities, comprehensive universities, and universities of technology. Some interviews were conducted face-to-face while others were done via Skype, and all were recorded with the permission of participants.

This study has Critical Realism as its underpinning whereby events and experiences in the world are understood to be partial and relative, requiring the researcher to look beyond, using methods such as abduction and retroduction to identify the causal mechanisms from which the events and experiences emerge (Bhaskar, 1998). Data were thus analysed using the notion of depth ontology (Bhaskar, 1998) where causal mechanisms were identified through methods such as abduction and retroduction (Danermark, Ekström, Jakobsen, & Karlsson, 2002). The idea of causal mechanisms requires an understanding that what we come to know of the world is not all that there is. In particular, Archer’s social realism (1995) was useful in identifying the structural, cultural and agential mechanisms at play. While agents (students, academics, members of disciplinary committees, and so on) have the ability to act, they are constrained or enabled by structures (the university, plagiarism policy, assessment requirements, etc.) and cultures (beliefs, ideologies and discourses related to students, assessment, plagiarism and suchlike). Using Archer’s notions of structural, cultural and agential mechanisms allowed us to make sense of how the particular conceptions of and responses to plagiarism found in the data emerged. In this paper, the focus is on the relationship between notions of plagiarism in the data and the conceptions of teaching.

**Results and Discussion**

Sutherland-Smith (2008) argues that plagiarism arises along a spectrum from intentional to unintentional. It is important, she argues, that attempts to raise awareness about plagiarism and respond to it take this into account. While researchers of plagiarism agree that it is a pernicious problem that needs to be rigorously attended to (Bretag, 2016), they also agree that not all incidents of plagiarism can be characterised as a moral sin warranting punitive responses (Bretag et al., 2011). Novice writers often plagiarise because they are not yet aware of disciplinary norms (Angelil-Carter, 2000). The research reported here, however, found limited evidence of an understanding of unintentional plagiarism, with its various implications for teaching and learning.

Almost all references to plagiarism in the policies analysed indicated an understanding that it was always intentional and required clear punishment. While
there was some reference to educational rather than punitive responses to plagiarism, these generally took the form of awareness raising and warnings to students, rather than developmental interventions. There was ample reference to the availability of warnings in regards to plagiarism. Documents about plagiarism are publicised on departments’ websites and study guides and other public areas such as in the library or through pamphlets (Policy 1, University 22). There was a recommendation by some universities that “reference to plagiarism and the consequences of plagiarism appear on all relevant assessment criteria/rubrics/marking guides” (Policy 1, University 7).

The Student Handbook and the General Rules Book should in future include general information about the nature of plagiarism and about the University’s policy with respect to plagiarism and should indicate that plagiarism is considered a serious offence (Policy 1, University 15).

All module outlines must carry a reminder clause on plagiarism, cheating, academic dishonesty or misconduct and copyright protection. (Policy 1, University 3)

A pop-up message with links to the [university] webpage on plagiarism that warns against plagiarism appear whenever a student visits the [university] website. An online tutorial including guidelines on plagiarism in [university] webpage. Universities 10 & 19: identical wording. (Some universities have similarly-worded policies, whilst others have chunks of text copied from each other without attribution.)

In interviews, there was reference to such measures being educational in nature but in essence, all these measures approach plagiarism from the common-sense perspective; that it is always an intentional act perpetrated by not implementing technical referencing rules. Students are left to infer what might be required in order to make claims in academia based on prior research. When students are left to figure out on their own how to deal with learning issues related to academic writing, they are likely to approach it using their own experiences and theories due to lack of sufficient guidance or what Vosniadou (2007) calls instruction-induced conceptual knowledge. Acquiring the knowledge production processes of academia normally takes many years (Angelil-Carter, 2000). Policies, study guides, flyers and other forms of communication media alone may not be enough to help students sufficiently, especially as they warn against plagiarizing without engaging with why and when we reference. These initiatives may help to address technical issues related to writing, but they neglect the students’ need to acquire academic norms of writing to produce knowledge. However, it was evident from our research that universities assume that this kind of exposure is adequate, and therefore claims of ignorance about the issue of plagiarism are not accepted. Such references cautioning against plagiarism are then used to build a case against those
students caught in acts of plagiarism. It is assumed that the information alone should prevent unintentional plagiarism, making any incidents of plagiarism intentional, and thereby requiring punitive responses.

Thirteen of the universities in this study require that students sign a declaration form at the beginning of the year indicating that they have now been informed what plagiarism is and that it will not be tolerated. In many of the universities there was also the requirement that all assessments had to be accompanied by a statement that the work is the student's own, though it was not clear whether this was consistently applied across departments.

There was some mention in documents from eighteen of the twenty-five universities in the study that the institution offers some form of training related to plagiarism, which thus goes a step beyond simple awareness-raising and cautioning about plagiarism. However, in six of the seven interviews it was clear that there was a common-sense understanding of referencing as a generic technical skill, rather than a discipline-specific social practice emerging from knowledge-making norms.

In essence, many of the interventions served to equip students with some technical procedural skills. It is necessary that students understand and acquire referencing, summarizing and paraphrasing skills, but if they miss the relationship between these technical concepts and the norms of knowledge construction, they are likely to continue engaging in plagiarism. This is particularly the case because lack of authorial identity in itself is regarded as another form of plagiarism (Robert, 2009). Developing students’ sense of authorial identity alongside teaching the students academic writing practices is considered to be the key to reducing plagiarism (Elander, 2015; Elander, Pittam, Lusher, Fox, & Payne, 2010; Owens & White, 2013). Until students are in a position to understand the ways in which prior texts are used in their discipline – from mapping a field, to positioning their contribution, to substantiating their writing, and so on – they will be unlikely to successfully implement the technical requirements of a referencing style (Boughey, 2014). Such processes are acquired over time and entail regular opportunities for practice and feedback (Angelil-Carter, 2000).

Unfortunately, where there were examples of ‘training’ regarding plagiarism, this was offered over a very short period (often a single seminar) and it was undertaken in a generic form externally from the curriculum and the discipline in which students would need to engage with referencing practices.
... We have an Orientation week at the beginning of the year. During this, we talk about the Plagiarism Policy (Participant 5).

...Creation of awareness of the intolerability of plagiarism at [university] during orientation and induction of new students and staff (Policy 1, University 10 & 19: identical wording).

The notion of plagiarism training as a short exposure to generic referencing skills shows a lack of understanding of how students achieve access to the practices of the discipline. Literacy is context specific, it cannot be “considered a unitary skill that can be transferred with ease from context to context” (Lea, 2017, p. 147). Furthermore, writing in the discipline, as with any other academic practice, requires an extensive period of induction, practice, and mentoring to develop the practices (Angelil-Carter, 2000). Thus, where training interventions are provided once and to first year students only, it might not be enough. Furthermore, because students enter and exit the university at various levels, it cannot be taken for granted that such students will have received the equivalent training from their previous institutions.

In most universities, such training courses are developed and taught by the support units within universities outside of formal academic programs.

...all first-year students go through information literacy training that includes plagiarism, referencing and referencing techniques, and copyright, offered by [this university's Library Information Services] staff (Policy 1, Universities 10 and 19: identical wording).

The Centre for Teaching and Learning can assist you with training where required. The University’s Library and Information Service also provides information literacy sessions that address plagiarism (Policy 1, University 5).

The plagiarism module should ideally be presented by experts from Legal Services and/or the Directorate of Teaching and Learning with Technology. Course content should include the principles, identification, avoidance and consequences of plagiarism, as well as training in plagiarism-detection software (e.g. Turnitin). (Policy 1, University 6)

Most of the people offering the training are thus not engaged in academic knowledge-making themselves. This was commented on by one of the participants in relation to the proliferation of courses that have come to be known as ‘Academic Literacy courses’, focused on generic skills such as information literacy, time management and plagiarism:

Academic Literacy Courses [are perceived to be] the easiest thing to do in the world and I believe that academics and universities shirk their responsibilities by putting those courses in. It's a quick fix. It doesn't work but look across the country, it's everywhere. And people teaching those courses plagiarise... please, they plagiarise me. I review the journal articles, I've been plagiarised, and I think, ‘Oh my goodness, and this person is setting themselves up as the expert on Academic Literacy?’ (Participant 6)
A study in South Africa that looked at academic staff development initiatives in eight universities revealed that academics are rarely inducted into “knowledge of the field of higher education, in order to enable them to design courses and pedagogical processes that will provide epistemological access for a diverse student body” (CHE, 2017, p. 83). The study suggested that there is a need for collaboration between academics and those offering various staff and student development interventions. Failing which, such initiatives, like so many add-on generic teaching and learning initiatives, may provide evidence that institutions are addressing the problem while, in fact, they are unlikely to have any effect (Quinn, 2012).

It would seem that three universities copied significant portions of their plagiarism policy text from a traditional university that holds a reputation as a research-intensive institution, and two other universities had policies with almost identical text. In other cases, huge chunks of text had been taken verbatim without proper attribution. That most of this policy plagiarism is found within the document known as the ‘Plagiarism Policy’ is not without its humour, but it does suggest that the vehemence with which plagiarism is referred to in both documentation and interviews is not being met with a reduction in plagiarism itself. References to plagiarism by staff were found in various documents:

…the need to ensure that staff do not plagiarise others’ work in handouts, learner guides, etc. that are disseminated to students (Policy 1, University 2).

All staff members, lecturers and postgraduate supervisors have a moral obligation and professional responsibility to act as role models of scholarly conduct by avoiding plagiarism in their own work … (Policy 1, University 6).

Academic staff should set an example and be role models for students in terms of academic integrity by, for example, demonstrating appropriate referencing… (Policy 1, University 23).

While there are good arguments for universities to share wording in strong policies, there is an expectation that attribution would be given. Furthermore, if plagiarism is understood to occur along a continuum and its prevention understood to require extended educational approaches, then the specific institutional type, programmes and context would surely require an individualised policy to be developed. The management of plagiarism and the induction into academic literacies cannot be seen as a generic activity which disregards the knowledge structures, “disciplinary thinking” (Rowland, 2002, p. 62), and other aspects of the institutional context.

Many of the policies had not been reviewed or revised for a significant period of time. University 4 last reviewed its policy in 2008, while University 3’s policy was last reviewed in 2011. Some policies were developed before the institutional
mergers that occurred in 2005 and were never revisited (Policy 1, University 11),
despite such mergers often resulting in new institutional types and names. One
indicated in their Teaching and Learning policy: “Policy on Academic Integrity -
to be drafted” (Policy 2, University 2).

Conclusion

Critical Realism allows us to understand that events and experiences emerge from
the interplay of causal mechanisms. While this is not a simple causal relationship,
it is important for a researcher to move beyond the description of the events and
experiences to begin to tentatively identify mechanisms.

By analysing various documents and interviews across 25 South African uni-
versities, it was found that plagiarism was often understood as an intentional act
rather than existing along a spectrum of plagiarism events some of which might be
unintentional. Furthermore, referencing was understood to be a technical writing
skill rather than emerging from the knowledge production norms of the specific
discipline. This understanding means that plagiarism was understood as the lack
of application of technical referencing requirements. The study found that most
of the universities understood their educational role as being awareness-raising
about plagiarism and that such awareness raising was generally offered in a generic
fashion that failed to take the knowledge-making norms into account. Further-
more, the awareness took the form of a one-off initiative outside the curriculum.

The mechanism whereby this approach to reducing plagiarism emerged is at
least in part due to the understanding of teaching and learning, including the
development of academic writing practices, as neutral and a-cultural. A social
understanding of teaching and learning would, we have argued, lead to more
engaging activities or (better ‘experiences’ and ‘events’, in critical realist terms)
for novice writers. These are activities that provide opportunities to acquire the
knowledge-making norms of the discipline, including coming to terms with its
relationship to prior knowledge in the form of referencing.

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Plagiarism in Kosovo and its Perception in Kosovo and Albania Society

Abstract: Plagiarism as a phenomenon existed earlier but had been very difficult to detect given the limited ability of people to travel and the lack of opportunities for people to make use of technology that did not exist several decades ago. In this article on plagiarism, with different examples from Albania, EU countries and especially Kosovo, we will present the impact of travel and technology from three aspects. The first aspect is that we will argue that technology and freedom of movement have enabled various cases of plagiarism in Kosovo to be uncovered, finding even many translated books, which were presented as their own work by the authors. The second aspect focuses on technology, which has also enabled the possibility of plagiarism to grow, with sophisticated ways of plagiarizing, even by opening companies that deal with writing various works, which in most cases are plagiarised, but which also violate work ethics or study ethics at universities. The third aspect examines how technology has enabled the possibility of detecting plagiarism, by enabling the creation and use of various and sophisticated methods and programs which reveal plagiarism. This paper will present the perception of plagiarism in the society of Kosovo and Albania, where not much has been done to fight plagiarism or to discourage plagiarism from growing.

Keywords: internet, Kosovo, perception phenomena, plagiarism, technology

Introduction

When talking about plagiarism, we focus mostly on the plagiarism in our country and society, but dealing with plagiarism is not a matter of one country or one society, it is a matter of the world in general – one word covers it all. In this regard, referring to plagiarism today means that it is no longer possible to talk about a phenomenon that has gripped a city, country or region; it is a phenomenon that has overwhelmed the entire world, not excluding universities or eminent scholars. This explosion of plagiarism on all sides and in all spheres is primarily due to the rapid development of information technology; in particular the internet and its by-products such as web sites, digital search machines, and mobile phones. This
explosion of plagiarism has also grown rapidly through the movement of people where those who had the opportunity to travel also gained opportunities to plagiarise – a fact that is more real for Kosovo and Albania, which until recently were under Socialist and Communist regimes.

All people work and they create goods, and fortunately most people do it in the most honest way possible. For any work that people do, sometimes it is not necessary or they are not required to respect certain rules; but when it comes to scientific work especially, there are rules and those rules must be respected. For this reason, due to the established rules of scientific work, today many countries including Kosovo have adopted laws on copyright protection (“Government of Kosovo”, 2011) which are intended to protect copyright and at the same time to combat what is not original work but is borrowed by someone without reference, which nowadays is known as plagiarism. This phenomenon has gripped a large part of global society, but this issue is becoming more and more complicated when it comes to student seminars, assignments, scientific work, bachelor degrees, master theses, doctoral theses and also, in some cases, professor’s books as well.

Before we start getting into the topic of plagiarism in Kosovo, we would like to explain briefly, what plagiarism means. There are different definitions of plagiarism, but we will mention only some, and one of these definitions can be found in the Albanian Language Dictionary, which defines plagiarism in great detail:

The presentation by someone of the work or part of a work of another as if it was its own work; literary theft, musical theft, etc. done by taking part of someone else’s work without showing the source; the work or part of the work that is stolen from another person in this way. (Fjalori i Gjuhës së Sotme Shqipe, 1980, p. 1496)

The Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary gives this definition about a person who plagiarises “to copy another person’s ideas, words or work and pretend that they are your own” (Hornby, 2000, p. 962). On the other hand, another source defines plagiarism as “an action or an example of using or imitating the language and opinions of another author without the authorization and representation of the work of this author as a personal job, without creditation of the original author” (Dictionary.com, n.d.). The Cambridge international dictionary of English defines the word plagiarise as “to use another person’s idea or a part of their work and pretend that it is your own” (1995, p. 1074). A shorter term for plagiarist is given in Roget's Thesaurus “One who illicitly reproduces the artistic work, for example

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3 Kosovo is not exempted from this phenomenon, and to fight it the Law on Copyright and Related Rights was drafted and approved by Kosovo Parliament; however, the Law leaves much to be desired in terms of implementation.
of another” (2003, p. 736). In another definition, Dr. Masic defines plagiarism as “every work, in which there is a part of it that is not original by the author and that is borrowed, but without mentioning the source, makes us understand that we are dealing with plagiarism” (Masic, 2012, pp. 208–213).

From these definitions, we can see that plagiarism is a phenomenon which is very clearly described. People commit plagiarism, not because they do not know about this issue, but because they choose the shorter way of doing things, even when writing articles, which can be seen in open sources and be found, therefore plagiarism is very easy. In this way we can see that plagiarism is using someone’s work and presenting it as your own work, but always without reference to that.

**Plagiarism in Different Societies and the Use of Technology**

Although there are many definitions and discussions on the topic, plagiarism today is one of the phenomena that have gripped all societies in the world, but within these has gripped people from the academic world most of all. Every day, more and more, we hear of new cases from one side of the world to the other about plagiarism. And all this, as a result of the technology conceived at the end of the twentieth century and beginning of the 21st century, has reached an extraordinary level of development that has enabled plagiarism to find a place in the debate of all developed countries. But technology has actually created the situation. There is now even more plagiarism than we had before the end of 20th century. Technology was seen as a good way to assist plagiarism among students by using online sources to commit academic misconduct, which by Selwyn (2008) is called “cyber cheating”.

On the other hand, technology has also influenced the recognition of plagiarism, and even in recent times it has also influenced its combat, by producing more sophisticated software that helps detecting and fighting against plagiarism, such as the Turnitin software (Turnitin for Higher Education, n.d.), which not only can be used to help detect plagiarism, but also aims to teach the author how to write an academic paper without committing plagiarism. However, this debate is not always welcome, and even in some cases was suffocated, and not allowed to be developed or to be discussed. Steps were even taken to fight it, when it became known about in many countries, especially those still in transition in the 1990s in the Western Balkans, since plagiarism was seen as a good opportunity by those in power to rise unfairly and rapidly on the academic and scientific path.

Also in the Republic of Kosovo, which from 1989–90 until 1999 was under Serbian rule; plagiarism had found its way of entering and is commonly used. Some authors had used their few travel opportunities to obtain and translate books from
different languages (especially Serbo-Croatian language) and to present them as their professional work; some of these academics had completed and defended their doctoral theses in this way. The same situation also existed in Albania until the fall of communism.

**Perception of Plagiarism in Kosovo and Albania**

The plagiarism phenomenon in Kosovo, as mentioned above, had begun earlier, thought to be some time in the early 1980s, but it started to emerge as an issue only after 1999 in Kosovo, and even later in 2004/5 when the former Rector of the University of Prishtina, Prof. Enver Hasani, started a war against plagiarism at the University of Prishtina (Kompropmis, 2007), which resulted in only a few cases of measures being taken against some professors. Instead of supporting the Rector’s fight against plagiarism, to the contrary, there was a great deal of opposition to this campaign, which in a way showed that Kosovo society is not prepared to fight such cases, although it happens in all civilised societies of the world. This moment showed that Kosovo society and academicians are also not excluded from this unseemly phenomenon.

Furthermore, this problem in the biggest university in Kosovo – the University of Prishtina (UP) – continues to exist, and so far nothing has been done about it. For example, we can quote the report of the Coalition for Integrity and Transparency in University (2017), entitled ‘The situation at the University of Prishtina’, where the statement of the Head of the Governing Council of UP in 2014 declared that “close to 80% of the professors at UP have academic titles and published scientific articles without any scientific value” (Gashi, 2017, p. 7). The discovery of these cases of plagiarism in Kosovo came as a result of the technological boom and the Internet reaching Kosovo only after the war in 1999. The end of the war caused Kosovo to have access to the Internet and to walk with the technology, which caused some well-known professors at the University of Prishtina to be detected as having plagiarised. Of course, these cases can cause difficult situations in the future, where well-known personalities may face charges of plagiarism, which can be a shock for society, and rightly so, as the US Ambassador to the Republic of Kosovo, his Excellency Greg Delawie, among other things declared also that “Plagiarism in the classroom – from students to faculty members – is a cancer that destroys the foundations and the credibility of educational institutions.” (Ademaj, 2017; U.S. Embassy Pristina, 2017) that has to be fought at all levels, on all sides, and by all stakeholders.

In this context, we decided to inform the reader about developments that took place at the University of Prishtina, especially after 1999. The technical-technological expansion itself and the increase in internet usage caused plagiarism and
opened the market and possibilities to commit plagiarism; in short, this phenomenon increased in Kosovo as a result of technology and internet usage. This phenomenon of plagiarism grew in Kosovo similar to countries that are now part of the European Union, such as Romania, and all as a result of the exploitation of technology and the internet. The University of Prishtina, a large university with an enormous capacity, became the center of political bargaining, where most of the politicians, their children, and the children of former or current professors at that time joined the academic staff of the University of Prishtina (Kalaja & Bunjaku, 2017), because now the opportunity to use technology and the internet to plagiarise reached a peak and it became very easy and no one wanted to produce their own individual work. This led many young researchers and young and old professors alike to take advantage of this opportunity offered through developments in technology and the internet and thus they achieved their scholastic results. To illustrate this aspect, we can present one of the many analyses that have been made in Kosovo, and especially that made recently by the Edguard Institute, which is still unpublished research, but was only published as an article by all the media in Kosovo and Koha Ditore newspaper. The report that shows a very high percentage, close to 40% of the academic staff of 70 professors investigated at the University of Prishtina, face problems due to plagiarism (Koha.Net, 2017).

This is evidence of a very profound social problem, a problem that some societies around the world have managed to overcome, in various ways, partly by purchasing software that reveals plagiarism. But this is not the only problem with the plagiarism phenomenon worldwide and in Kosovo especially. A problem that perhaps is even deeper is plagiarism by students. Today, this phenomenon has affected all universities across the globe, and as such has affected the universities in Kosovo as well. Today, homework assignments, seminars, exams, and diploma theses for bachelor and master degrees are plagiarised, and this phenomenon only increases and never decreases. This is due to various reasons, but above all, is because of the economic conditions of young people in Kosovo, who are fortunately the majority. They study because they have no job opportunities, given that within a five-year period around 200,000 young people reached the age of employment while over 110,000 young people entered the labor market (Strategy of Kosovo Government, 2009). In the absence of a job offer, this pushes them to continue and complete their studies, but they are not becoming employed in the profession for which they are taking a degree.

This situation also exists in Kosovo, because the possibilities for research in Kosovo are extremely limited, so universities do not have the capacity for laboratories and are unable to create conditions for various scientific research, even at
the largest university in the country and region – the University of Prishtina, for which Rinor Qehaja in a report on research emphasises that “the biggest illusion that exists for UP is that of being called a scientific institution. According to him, the precondition for a university to make a contribution to science is research, a prerequisite for research is a large budget allocated to it, accessible literature and human capacities” (Boletini, 2017, p. 7), and as a result, we have none of these, then we always will have even more plagiarism, with the sole purpose of continuing the path to success in the academic world.

Another problem, rather smaller in Kosovo, but greater in Albania in recent times, regarding plagiarism, is the purchase of intellectual works, or bachelor or master degrees, and even doctoral theses, which can be unpublished work and may even be very professional but are not original works; this is another problem that we are facing more and more today. Although not very developed, unlike in other countries, we can say that this new form of plagiarism has begun to be applied even in Kosovo in recent years. More and more in the grounds and buildings of universities, in different portals, social media such as Facebook (“Tema te diplomes”, n.d.), there are advertisements for the design of diploma theses for bachelor, master and doctorate degrees, and here we are talking about various scientific works and seminars that students take to pass various exams during their studies, while professors use them to be promoted in their academic career. This issue is still not very pronounced in the Albanian world, because only in a search on Google with the question “we work on diploma thesis” in only 0.42 seconds there are 4,820 results, while in a search in English with the question “we write articles for you”, in only 0.82 seconds are found 315 million results, what makes you realise that this phenomenon is much more developed in the English-speaking world or in universities that have English-language programs, but we cannot deny that it has recently penetrated our societies as well.

While we are explaining doing diploma work for others, we have cases also when professors are starting to do business with diploma theses, considering themselves to possess good knowledge and the skills to write articles and enabling students to take credit without merit or professors to achieve academic advancement without merit. All this is as a result of the fact that retirement in Kosovo is highly undesirable for a university professor, because of the difference between the salary that a professor receives before retiring, and the pension after retirement, which is 80% less.

This phenomenon is very pronounced in all Balkan countries, especially in Albania, where the biggest buyers are politicians (Rrozhani, 2012), who want to have a Doctor of Science degree to open their way after the end of their political
life to jump on the academic bandwagon, and most of the time is being done without any merit. This was proven by Klan TV of Albania, where an investigation made by “STOP” television show has resulted in many more universities being caught guilty of plagiarism (Saimir & Zenelaj, 2017a). This research by Klan TV shows how the buying of a diploma thesis functions, where they operate as companies, and have within them professors from public and private universities. This illustrates and confirms our statements above that nowadays, these firms are very sophisticated and among them have well-known professors, who are also writing new diploma theses, by not committing plagiarism at all, which shows another aspect of plagiarism. The television show ‘STOP’ went even further in their research, and managed to discover some cases of plagiarism in PhD theses as well, which shows a real defect in the system of education in Albania and elsewhere; through this TV show they bring details of this phenomenon involving professors from public and private universities from Albania and Kosovo as well. With this investigation they were trying to give contrary examples; that while in Albania the authors do not face any consequences, they also highlight various examples from EU countries, where for even one paragraph – if it is plagiarised – the authors face serious consequences (Saimir & Zenelaj, 2017b).

Such cases can be said to occur all around the globe, where high-level politicians receive scientific titles through plagiarism. The same thing happened in Romania, even to many senior officials (Fawzy, 2016), but the same has happened in much more democratic countries, such as Germany, where former Defense Minister Karl-Theodor zu Guttenberg plagiarised most of his doctorate (“Guttenberg plagiarism scandal”, n.d.), using various parts that were borrowed but without mentioning their source. Democratic countries where law and order rule such as Germany cannot be compared with Kosovo, Albania or even Romania, and you have to deal with the consequences for such actions. The same happened with German Defense Minister Guttenberg who received the title ‘Doctor’ from Bayreuth University (“University withdraws”, 2011) and he was pushed by media and social pressure to resign (Pidd, 2011).

All these recent cases complement the third argument that technological and internet impact has made plagiarism detection much easier. Today, the creation of state databases, the design of software, and use of the internet have made it much easier to find plagiarism cases. But the main difference today between developed and developing countries (without talking about underdeveloped countries) is that there is still no will for plagiarizing persons to be revealed, given the fact that most of them also have very high state positions. As such, there is a lack of will and there is no culture or maturity to publicly present such cases, because
in one way or another it would affect the state – even the spirit of a society. And here the difference is deepened in the implementation and use of technology and internet to fight plagiarism.

**Fighting Plagiarism in Kosovo – Some Small Steps**

Prior to winding up this article and reaching a conclusion, we would like to mention that not everything is black in Kosovo and Albania regarding the fight against plagiarism, and raising awareness of this very bad phenomenon, which has enveloped all countries in the world. We would like to mention that now, in Kosovo, especially in the seven public universities, regulations for a code of ethics are being drafted. Here, we can give the example of the Code of Ethics at “Kadri Zeka” University in Gjilan (University “Kadri Zeka” in Gjilan, 2016), which also covers plagiarism cases, and explains how the rules deal with plagiarism cases of students and academic staff. Some of these universities, especially the University of Prishtina, because of being bigger, have managed to also create a commission of ethics within the university and most of its faculties, the main role of which is to find and fight cases of plagiarism. Meanwhile, other universities, because of their lack of capacity, are still in the process of creating these commissions, while the University of Prizren, because of being some years older in its establishment, has already managed to create a commission of ethics.

For this reason, a Council of Europe project objective is “to support relevant higher education institutions in developing ethical standards, combat corruption and promote best practices of quality and integrity in education” (Council of Europe Office in Prishtina, 2018), because it was seen that regional public universities and even the University of Prishtina do not have the human capacity to deal with ethical standards and increase the quality and integrity in education in Kosovo, where the experts brought by the Council of Europe have assessed the HEI in Kosovo and prepared a report on the situation of Higher Education Institutions in Kosovo (Smith & Hamilton, 2017).

Finally, we can say that in Kosovo we still do not have a national repository for publications, even though there were some efforts to do something in that regard by public universities. The University of Prishtina has started to publish all new PhD theses on the web page of the University, and is continuing to publish all former PhD theses, while it will also continue to publish Master theses. For regional universities, luckily there were only a few generations in one or two universities where Master students graduated; while in another four universities established after 2013, no Master graduation has yet occurred. We in our university as well still do not have any publication of Master theses by students, while for all public
universities and even worse – private colleges – do not at all even try to publish Bachelor theses or other publications, homework or any other work of students during their studies. Above all, there is still no will by the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology to support software for plagiarism detection at public universities in Kosovo, while there is great demand by universities to do so.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

From all the examples given in this article, we can conclude that technical and technological development, and above all the internet, has enabled the revealing of plagiarism, which was conducted earlier in Kosovo, regarding studies presented as the individual or personal work of the author. In that way, technology and internet development has played a positive role.

On the other hand, after 1999–2000, there have been more and more cases of plagiarism in Kosovo and all of this is due to the use of technology and the internet. In Kosovo, the phenomenon of plagiarism has increased in all strata, ranging from students, assistants, young researchers to very well-known professors, who in one way or another have been involved in plagiarism cases; we even have professors who used part of their students' PhD theses that they had been mentoring.

The last aspect is that technical-technological development and especially the internet have created new and numerous plagiarism detection opportunities. Today, as there are more and more cases of plagiarism, there are also more cases of detection of this plagiarism and all thanks to the use of this technology.

Finally, from what we highlighted in this paper, it can easily be seen that plagiarism as a phenomenon is not occurring only in Kosovo, but is a phenomenon that has gripped the whole world. As such, it is being fought in many ways, starting with the adoption of copyright laws, the establishment of ethical codes in educational institutions, and especially universities, the establishment of ethics commissions across higher education institutions, taking measures against those who are found to have plagiarised. Networks are being created for local and international academic integrity, such as ENAI (“European Network for Academic Integrity”, n.d.), where universities and academic staff can become members and access various publications, which combats plagiarism all over the world as well as cooperating between universities to fight this phenomenon. Above all, the creation of software that detects plagiarism is critical.

In this way, the steps that have been made up to now in Kosovo to combat plagiarism were small, but even so, we have to continue our work to establish a functional commission who will meet regularly and deal with plagiarism cases. We must support this commission because Kosovo and Albanian societies are still
very traditional and everything becomes personal and people may get into trouble for doing their job – fighting cases of plagiarism – and deciding to withdraw a PhD thesis, like in the Guttenberg case.

Universities and especially the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology have to support academic staff and students in their research. A good example that has started to be applied by the ministry by supporting all publications of the academic staff which are published in a well-known database, such as SCOPUS and Web of Science ("Ministry of Education, Science and Technology", 2017). The same support is requested to be made also by the universities, but it is still very difficult, bearing in mind the lack of financial funding to support such kind of publications or participation in conferences, but universities are trying to work with various organizations. A good example is the Council of Europe Office in Prishtina, which for the second year is supporting all Kosovo public universities to send one participant from each to Plagiarism conferences, which took place last year in Brno and continue in 2018 in Turkey. This kind of initiative will have positive results in the future, and will also increase the level of discussion and even combat plagiarism in Kosovo and Albania.

But what also needs to happen today in Kosovo, and why not the world, is the educating children from a young age that they should study honestly and know how to study, that in an unconscious way would discourage a person from carrying out plagiarism.

This can also be changed by providing and publishing data ranging from publishing houses and especially libraries to open access for researchers and advice on how to use resources, or links to data borrowed through a national online platform for referring data, which is connected to international online platforms, because the purpose of the research itself is to find different ideas about an issue and what the author wants and can offer for the same aspect being explored.

This should be the main focus and it is extremely important to emphasise that our countries need to work harder in preventing rather than combating plagiarism, which would greatly facilitate the task or sophistication of ways and means to disclose plagiarism.

The author, researcher and copyright should be in constant collaboration, promoting authorship and adding value to any research, which as a basis has comparative resources at national and international level. This would internationalise the aspect of referral, increasing cooperation at an international level.
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A Case Study of Plagiarism in Higher Education: Students’ Awareness, Information Sources, and Reasons

Abstract: The present study is a revised replication of a survey conducted in 2013 in Tabriz University-Iran and Ankara University-Turkey. The study consisted of three questionnaires applied to 170 higher education students from each university. The aims were to identify the participants’ overall knowledge about plagiarism, their sources of information, and reasons for committing plagiarism; participants’ comments were also included. The results of the current study revealed that though a majority of participants from Iran and Turkey knew that plagiarism is a serious offense, they lacked information about details like self-plagiarism, the consequences of plagiarism, and the policies of their universities. There were important differences in information sources between Iranian and Turkish participants. The results showed that due to internal and external factors, students still commit plagiarism. Participants’ comments highlighted that different types of plagiarism tend to occur. A comparison between the previous and current study revealed improvements in participants’ knowledge while Turkish participants were still ahead of Iranian participants.

Keywords: information sources, Iran, overall knowledge, plagiarism, reasons, Turkey

Introduction

Occluded genres are plagiarism, fabrication, deception, corruption, and sabotage, among which plagiarism is the most frequent (Mavrinac, Brumini, Bilić-Zulle, & Petrovečki, 2010). Carroll and Appleton (2001) noted that there are problems with different definitions of plagiarism in the literature. Some definitions are very extensive and outside our context, while others are very limited, some do not include a proper definition for common knowledge, and other definitions define plagiarism as a rather unpleasant and wrongful action without differentiating between intentional and unintentional plagiarism. There has always been debate

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between scholars who condemn any kind of academic dishonesty and those who believe that different cases of plagiarism must be treated differently, because they think some of them are inevitable (Gasparyan et al., 2017). Due to the complexities of plagiarism's definition, causes and solutions (Thompson, 2006), a variety of factors have been defined as reasons for plagiarism (Norris, 2007). All these diversities have led universities and academic institutions to implement different anti-plagiarism penalties (Varghese & Jacob, 2015).

Ural and Sulak (2012) studied 347 students’ paperwork from 3 different universities in Turkey. They revealed that 50.2% of the students had copied sentences from without providing appropriate references and 27.1% of them had kept the exact format of the source. Amos (2014) investigated the rate of plagiarism and duplicated publications. The researcher found that Iranian university students, with 21.4% for duplication and 42.9% for plagiarism, respectively, held the fifth and third place; and Turkey with 15.4% for duplication and 61.5% for plagiarism, respectively, occupied eighth and second place in the list of reasons for retractions. The study of Jamali, Ghazinoory, and Sadeghi (2014) on 367 academic publications in 27 subject categories showed incidence of plagiarism in Iranian articles with medicine on top of the list. Almeida, de Albuquerque Rocha, Cate-lani, Fontes-Pereira, and Vasconcelos, (2016) studied the reasons for retractions from journals based on country of origin and the journal's impact factor. Iran and Turkey were among the countries that had articles with low citations, which were retracted due to various plagiarism cases.

Unfortunately, cases of plagiarism not only among students but also among higher academic members are dramatically increasing (Jamali et al., 2014). The present study is a replication of research which was conducted among postgraduate students in Tabriz University-Iran and Ankara University-Turkey in 2013. We recognised that there were no or limited studies with the same scope, extent and purpose. This study questioned postgraduate students’ overall knowledge about plagiarism; including its definition, seriousness and consequences, their awareness about plagiarism rules and announcements at their university, and their familiarity with referencing methods. It also identified the participants’ information sources (i.e. how they learnt about plagiarism) and highlighted the participants’ personal ideas about the reasons for committing plagiarism. Another aim of the study was to elicit their personal comments and experiences. The results of the survey were compared between two universities, Tabriz University-Iran and Ankara University-Turkey, and the results from 5 years ago.
Methodology

Sample

The target sample was Master and PhD students from two public universities, Tabriz University-Iran (referred as Iranian participants) and Ankara University-Turkey (referred as Turkish participants). The participants were male and female students from different age groups, ranging from 23 to 35, who participated voluntarily. Returned questionnaires that had many blank parts were excluded and the remaining 170 questionnaires from each university were analysed.

Design

The instrument of the study was a set of questionnaires (see Appendix, Survey Questions). Based on the objectives of the research, most of the statements were extracted from a detailed literature review. The questionnaires were independently reviewed by experts in the field of applied linguistics from Turkey and Iran and statements with similar meanings or which were ambiguous were removed.

There were six questionnaires in the first study, the administration of which was a long process; therefore the first five questionnaires were shortened. Without damaging the original aims of the research, the revised instruments consisted of two questionnaires to which the third newly-designed questionnaire was added. All the statements were translated into Turkish and Persian.

The first questionnaire consisted of 39 statements. The statements were prepared to identify the participants’ overall understanding about plagiarism, including plagiarism’s definition, its seriousness and consequences, participants’ awareness of their university’s rules, and referencing methods. Answers were offered on a five-point Likert-type scale (Babbie, 2010), where 1 indicated “Strongly Disagree (SD)”, 2 “Disagree (D)”, 3 “neither agree nor disagree”, 4 “Agree (A)”, and 5 “Strongly Agree (SA)”. The second questionnaire with 9 items was designed to detect the participants’ sources, i.e. where they learned about plagiarism. The third questionnaire included 26 statements on reasons for committing plagiarism. The participants were free to express their personal ideas on Statement 9 in the second questionnaire and Statement 26 in the third questionnaire and to choose as many items as they wished in both the second and third questionnaires.

Questionnaire validity and reliability

Having had all the statements translated into Persian and Turkish, they were translated back to English by one translation expert from Iran and one from Turkey. The newly-designed questionnaires were pretested by administering to
a smaller sample consisting of randomly-chosen 70 participants. The reliability of the statements was calculated by using Cronbach Alpha (> .70) and finally, 39 statements with reliability of .76 were obtained.

**Procedure**

After giving the necessary instructions, personal administration of the printed questionnaires took about 10–15 minutes. The participants were free to ask any questions or express any ideas within the procedure, some of which are included in the results and discussion section.

**Methods of data analysis**

In order to analyse the data of the first questionnaires, the percentages for each five-point Likert-type scale value were separately calculated with IBM SPSS Statistics 21. Also, Mean (M) and Standard Deviation (SD) of the present and old data were calculated for Iran and Turkey with IBM SPSS Statistics 21. Moreover, a value of 1 was assigned to each answer in the second and third questionnaires and the percentage of each item was calculated by the same method.

**Results**

**Questionnaire one**

The aim of the first questionnaire was to find out about postgraduate students’ overall knowledge of plagiarism in detail and compare it with the findings of the previous study. The results are presented in Table 1 and Table 2.

As shown in Table 1, both Iranian and Turkish participants are familiar with plagiarism. 87% (SA+A) of Iranian participants and nearly 90.5% (SA+A) of Turkish participants agreed that plagiarism is a serious offence. In this regard, the findings of the previous study (Golzar Adabi, 2013) showed similar results with quite close percentages of 88% for Iranian and 86% for Turkish participants. There was a clear increase from 86% to 90.5% for Turkish participants (Table 2).

Participants both from Iran (SA+A: 55.88%) and Turkey (SA+A: 68.3%) blamed their advisors and lecturers and believed that it was their full responsibility to teach and warn them about plagiarism (Table 1). Although there is no difference in the general results of the previous and current study (Golzar Adabi, 2013), the percentage of agreement for Turkish participants increased by 26.3% (Table 2). There can also be reverse outcomes, especially when the lecturers are not knowledgeable. One male participant from University of Tabriz explained about his experience, ‘Once I asked my advisor a question regarding a particular
method of referencing. Now I really regret it, because the lecturer guided me wrongly. Some said: ‘many of students learn about plagiarism when they are ready to defend their thesis; even then, a very small number of students and lecturers care about it.’

In the present study, compared to Iranian participants (SA+A: 66.47%), Turkish participants thought they could not reuse part of their previous assignment(s) for a new one (SD+D: 52.9%) (Table 1). Surprisingly, 67.65% (SD+D) of Iranian participants accepted self-plagiarism as a kind of punishable and harmful misconduct while this percentage for Turkish participants was only 64.12% (SD+D) (Table 1). One Turkish participant said that he did not know that there was a kind of misconduct called self-plagiarism. After having it explained to him, he added, ‘I think self-plagiarism is a kind of self-deception which cannot harm others but myself, then why punish someone who is already hurting him/herself.’ Some Iranian participants commented that, ‘though self-plagiarism is wrong and punishable, it is very common among students because copying some parts of a previous assignment is a very useful way to pass finals and tutors could never know about what they had done’. In the previous study, 71% of Turkish participants had not agreed with the statement that ‘self-plagiarism is not punishable because it is not harmful’; whereas 23% of Iranian participants disagreed with this statement (Table 2).

In addition, the results of the present study showed differences between Iranian and Turkish participants regarding getting caught after committing plagiarism (Statement 12, and Statement 14). The findings indicated that only a little more than half the Iranian participants (SD+D: 57.06%) thought that their lecturer could not find out about their act of plagiarism, while the percentage of disagreement for Turkish participants was about 86% (Table 1).

Table 1: Percentages of Iranian and Turkish Participants’ Answers to First Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Iran (present study)</th>
<th>Turkey (present study)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Plagiarism is a serious offence!</td>
<td>1.18 4.12 7.65 42.35</td>
<td>0.00 0.00 0.59 29.41 70.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. If I read something and then write it in my own words, I will not plagiarise.</td>
<td>40.59 41.76 10.00 7.06 0.59</td>
<td>54.12 39.41 6.47 0.00 0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. It is more important not to use others’ ideas as my own because it is plagiarism. After changing the wording, there is no danger of plagiarism.</td>
<td>3.53 8.82 11.18 57.06 19.41</td>
<td>0.00 0.00 3.53 42.35 54.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Iran (present study)</td>
<td>Turkey (present study)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can directly use others' unpublished work.</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>12.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. It is my advisor's responsibility to teach me about plagiarism and referencing techniques.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>14.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. By changing the wording of a text, without citation, I can make it my own.</td>
<td>27.06</td>
<td>44.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I plagiarise if I copy or use work done by a student from a previous academic year.</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>9.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. If my lecturer says some interesting things in today's lecture on Plato, I can use it in my paper without giving reference.</td>
<td>19.41</td>
<td>46.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I have very little time to write a paper for my class. I wrote an essay about a similar topic last year. I can use part of it for my new assignment.</td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>8.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Self-plagiarism is not punishable because it is not harmful.</td>
<td>27.06</td>
<td>40.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Lecturers are lucky as the rules of plagiarism don't apply to them!</td>
<td>19.41</td>
<td>32.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. My lecturer will never know that I've 'borrowed' work for my assignments!</td>
<td>22.94</td>
<td>34.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Plagiarised parts of a paper may be ignored if the paper is of great scientific value.</td>
<td>14.12</td>
<td>32.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The possibility of getting caught is very low, so I can plagiarise.</td>
<td>36.47</td>
<td>43.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Iran (present study)</td>
<td>Turkey (present study)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
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<tr>
<td>15. If I do not know how to give references correctly, I should not be punished.</td>
<td>7.06</td>
<td>35.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The punishment for plagiarism in college should be light because we are young people just learning the ropes.</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>31.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. When I did not have the intention of cheating, then the university shouldn’t punish me.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>11.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. My culture affects my language and writing.</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. Different cultures view plagiarism in different ways.</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>11.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Students from developing countries are not familiar enough with plagiarism.</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>30.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. The justification to plagiarise is different across the student body depending on their culture.</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>25.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Reasons for plagiarism may be common but students’ culture causes differences on what constitutes plagiarism.</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>14.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. In many Eastern cultures, reproducing materials from authoritative sources is not plagiarism.</td>
<td>5.29</td>
<td>19.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Iran (present study)</td>
<td>Turkey (present study)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. In some cultures, using another author’s words is a form of</td>
<td>9.41</td>
<td>10.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>respect and not plagiarism.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. Plagiarism prevention practices and rules are actually</td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>15.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distributed around the world according to Western countries, UK</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and USA culture.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27. The consequences of plagiarism can be personal, professional,</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>10.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ethical, and legal.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28. Plagiarism is regarded as a serious contravention of my</td>
<td>8.82</td>
<td>23.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>university’s rules.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29. The consequences of plagiarism have been widely announced in</td>
<td>17.65</td>
<td>34.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my university.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30. If a researcher plagiarises for the first time and is caught,</td>
<td>12.35</td>
<td>35.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he/she won’t be punished.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31. The act of plagiarism committed by students or staff would put</td>
<td>10.59</td>
<td>33.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>him/her at integrity risk but the University’s academic integrity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>won’t be at risk.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32. If I commit plagiarism, I may be referred to the student</td>
<td>13.53</td>
<td>28.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disciplinary committee.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33. If I commit plagiarism, I may fail an academic year.</td>
<td>17.06</td>
<td>28.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34. Plagiarism allegations won’t cause a student to be</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>20.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A case study of plagiarism in higher education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Iran (present study)</th>
<th>Turkey (present study)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35. When quoting directly from a work, just include the author and year of publication.</td>
<td>6.47</td>
<td>15.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36. You are reading an article from X. There is a paraphrase from Y which you use. You have to represent Y’s text in your references list.</td>
<td>7.65</td>
<td>16.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37. If no author or date is given, you cannot use that article because you have no way to represent it in your references.</td>
<td>11.18</td>
<td>26.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38. You cannot cite from personal communications and interviews or letters.</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>5.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39. All entries in the reference list will include the author, title, and facts of publication.</td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>15.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: Mean and Standard Deviation Values for the Present and Previous Studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Iran (Present)</th>
<th>Previous</th>
<th>Turkey (Present)</th>
<th>Previous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>M: 4.25</td>
<td>SD: 0.86</td>
<td>M: 4.44</td>
<td>SD: 0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>M: 1.85</td>
<td>SD: 0.91</td>
<td>M: 2.74</td>
<td>SD: 1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>M: 3.80</td>
<td>SD: 0.97</td>
<td>M: 3.99</td>
<td>SD: 1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>M: 3.54</td>
<td>SD: 1.06</td>
<td>M: 3.66</td>
<td>SD: 1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>M: 3.52</td>
<td>SD: 1.09</td>
<td>M: 3.54</td>
<td>SD: 1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>M: 2.18</td>
<td>SD: 1.05</td>
<td>M: 2.11</td>
<td>SD: 0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>M: 3.88</td>
<td>SD: 0.97</td>
<td>M: 4.24</td>
<td>SD: 1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>M: 2.32</td>
<td>SD: 1.03</td>
<td>M: 2.58</td>
<td>SD: 0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>M: 3.64</td>
<td>SD: 1.06</td>
<td>M: 3.77</td>
<td>SD: 1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>M: 2.26</td>
<td>SD: 1.13</td>
<td>M: 3.15</td>
<td>SD: 1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>M: 2.52</td>
<td>SD: 1.09</td>
<td>M: 2.66</td>
<td>SD: 1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>M: 2.49</td>
<td>SD: 1.19</td>
<td>M: 1.63</td>
<td>SD: 0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Iranian participants thought differently regarding strict anti-plagiarism policies. Unlike Turkish participants (SD+D: 78.8%), a quite smaller percentage of Iranian participants disagreed with anti-plagiarism policies, especially for authors of articles with high value (SD+D: 46.47%) and unintentional plagiarism (SD+D: Iran 15.88%; Turkey 65.8%) (Table 1).

Statements 28, 29, 32 and 33 were treated differently as the participants’ personal ideas. In the previous study (Golzar Adabi, 2013), 72% of total Turkish participants had declared that ‘plagiarism was regarded as a serious contravention of

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Iran Present</th>
<th>Iran Previous</th>
<th>Turkey Present</th>
<th>Turkey Previous</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>1.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.96</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>4.29</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
their university’s rules’ while only 32% of total Iranian participants had admitted their agreement. In the present study, this percentage increased to almost 83% for Turkish (vs. 31.76% for Iran; Table 1) participants. Interestingly, more than half of Iranian (52.36%) and Turkish participants (54.11%) did not agree that their university did well in announcing the university’s anti-plagiarism rules and plagiarism penalties (Table 1). In the previous study, this percentage was 2.1% and 11.36% lower, respectively for Turkish and Iranian participants (Table 2).

Our findings demonstrated different results regarding statements 32 and 33 about the types of punishment. In both statements, unlike Iranian participants (SA+A: 22.96% and 18.24, respectively), a larger proportion of Turkish participants agreed (SA+A: 49.4% and 48.2%, respectively) with the types of punishment (Table 1). This percentage was very low (25% and 12%, respectively) in the previous study for Turkish participants (Table 2). Some Iranian participants explained that ‘there is a form called ‘Student’s statement of commitment to the thesis’s authenticity’. Students fill it out after defending their thesis and nobody really cares about the truth of the information’. One Iranian PhD participant talked about his roommate who had used the whole thesis of another PhD student from another university and city just by changing some data.

**Questionnaire 2**

Another purpose of the present study was to discover participants’ sources of knowledge. Figure 1 illustrates the results of Questionnaire 2. To our knowledge, there have been no studies to investigate the sources from which students learn about plagiarism.

**Figure 1**: The information sources that participants use to learn about plagiarism

![Sources of knowledge](image-url)
As shown, university lecturers are the most important information source, especially for Turkish participants (73.7%). One prominent difference is training classes, with a mere 2.3% for Iranian participants, while compared to Turkish participants it was 31%. Another significant difference between Iran and Turkey is the percentage of articles, with 60.2% as the third essential information source for Turkish participants after the internet (64.3%), while this number for Iranian participants is only 22.1%.

Another interesting point is that 41.9% of Iranian participants had found out about plagiarism by reading and answering the questionnaire of the current study, while this percentage is only 28.7% for Turkish participants.

Media and friends were the third important information source for Iranian participants that shared the same proportion of 32%. Some participants talked about the news they had heard or read about famous plagiarism cases committed by political members and scholars. Finally, 7% of Iranian participants chose ‘the others’, and explained that they had experienced it themselves or knew other students who had purchased articles or theses and self-plagiarised.

**Questionnaire 3**

The third objective of the current study was to investigate the participants’ ideas about the reasons for committing plagiarism. Results are shown in Table 3. Eight of the statements that had the highest percentage and were considered as the most important factors are highlighted.

The results showed that with a minor difference of percentage there was just one common idea (Universities do not inform the students about the rules) between Iranian (43.5%) and Turkish (48.2%) participants. The lowest percentage belongs to factor 2 (There is no cooperation spirit among the students) for Iranian participants (10.6%) and factor 5 (Teachers blame the university’s high expectations and put the students under pressure) for Turkish participants (8.2%).

The top reason for Iranian participants to plagiarise was ‘simple ways of purchasing theses and articles’, with 62.9%. In the present study, the results illustrated that factors 13 (Most of the students have a high desire to produce more ISI manuscripts) and 24 (Students enter university unprepared to deal with the rules for academic writing) with equal proportion of percentage (58.8%) were two salient reasons for plagiarism, among the other factors.

Some participants from Iran explained how their professors and tutors had tried to use their articles in their own name, which refers to statement 3 (Teachers behave unfairly and use the result of the students’ hard work in their own favour) with 52.4%. One PhD participant from the department of humanities said ‘after I
Finished my M.A. thesis and defended it with a full mark, my professor threatened to write his name as the first and corresponding author otherwise I could not submit the manuscript. I had no choice because the university’s rule was to reduce 2 points from a students’ thesis mark if they did not have their manuscript submitted to a journal.

Another mentionable factor for Iranian participants is factor 11 (Students lose motivation because of unclear future) with a high percentage of 50.6%. A female participant from the Department of Engineering at the University of Tabriz sarcastically explained that, ‘on one hand, the difficulties of finding jobs after graduation and the competition among the students in owning a bright resume, and on the other hand, strict rules of promotion for university lecturers, do not allow anybody to think about something like academic misconduct’.

According to Turkish participants, the highest percentage (77.6%) belonged to students’ laziness. There is a significant drop of 22.3% in the percentage of the second effective factor (Students think that the risk of being caught is too low). The results of the other top six factors (Education system is weak and wrong with 49.4%, Universities do not inform the students about the rules with 48.2%, Due to neglecting, in some universities, the risk of getting caught is already too low with 47.1%, Students do not have time management skills with 46.5%, Students think that plagiarism is not wrong with 45.3%, Non-native students lack confidence in effective writing with 43.5%) with a close difference of proportion from each other were partially in line with previous research.

Table 3: Percentages of Reasons for Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Iran (%)</th>
<th>Turkey (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Easy to purchase theses and articles</td>
<td>62.9</td>
<td>38.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 No cooperation spirit</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Teachers unfair behaviour</td>
<td>52.4</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Time limitation to graduate</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>32.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 University’s high expectations</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Teachers and organizations’ high expectations</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>21.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Lack of time management skills</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>46.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Insufficient budgets for the projects</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 No support for student projects</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Laziness</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>77.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Unclear future and no motivation</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>36.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Not being interested in university major</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>28.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 High desire to produce more ISI manuscripts</td>
<td>58.8</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Statements | Iran (%) | Turkey (%)
---|---|---
14 | Lack of prohibition rules | 57.6 | 37.1 |
15 | No information provided about the rules | 43.5 | 48.2 |
16 | Turning a blind eye | 30.0 | 21.2 |
17 | Unknowledgeable teachers | 22.9 | 27.6 |
18 | Teachers’ unavailability | 14.1 | 12.9 |
19 | Weak and wrong education system | 31.2 | 49.4 |
20 | Assuming that teachers do not care | 54.1 | 34.7 |
21 | Assumption of not doing wrong | 25.3 | 45.3 |
22 | Low risk of getting caught | 35.3 | 55.3 |
23 | Law risk of getting caught because of neglecting | 37.6 | 47.1 |
24 | Unprepared students to deal with rules | 58.8 | 33.5 |
25 | Non-native students lack confidence | 27.1 | 43.5 |

**Discussion**

Results of different studies have shown that only 1–2% acts of consciously committed fabrication or falsification are self-reported while the statistics of unreported and hidden plagiarism cases is very high, which should not be neglected (Fanelli et al., 2017). Studies conducted in Iran have shown that more than half of the students from different universities have a neutral attitude or even are in favour of plagiarism (Shahghasemi & Akhavan, 2015). It has also been reported that in spite of their negative view, research assistants in Turkey still commit plagiarism (Eret & Gokmenoglu, 2010). In our results, it has been shown that participants are aware of plagiarism but still commit plagiarism, mainly for intentional reasons. International senior trainees and academics from countries like Korea, China, India, Peru, and Iran, from which complaints have been received, are at high risk of committing plagiarism and being caught (Heitman & Litewka, 2011). Based on Nushi and Firoozkohi (2017), half of university teachers only addressed the issue very briefly in the rare cases of existence of plagiarism policy. Sharma (2007) reported that none of the students who she had interviewed blamed themselves as the main source of plagiarism and regarded the university and their trainees as the only responsible side. Based on the present study, participants did not have faith in their teachers and they blamed them for not tackling the problem and helping them.

It has been estimated that the rate of self-plagiarism is from 3% up to 6% (Horbach & Halffman, 2017). Text recycling or self-plagiarism is a kind of recent misconduct which is increasing rapidly especially among young researchers; it is assumed that it can be the result of lack of experience and students’ desire to publish more
articles (Horbach & Halfman, 2017). Others believe that self-plagiarism mainly appears in the work of researchers with a fixed field of research focus; on the other hand, regarding novice writers and non-experts, various methods of paraphrasing can be challenging (Gasparyan et al., 2017). In contrast, Chaddah (2014) argues that plagiarism of ideas is a serious misconduct and the value of unique ideas is beyond the value of language. Some researchers do not consider self-plagiarism as a serious and punishable misconduct. As has also been shown in this research, self-plagiarism has other reasons, such as laziness, neglect of the importance of self-plagiarism by the teachers and universities, etc. (Andreescu, 2013).

Xiaojun, Hongli, and Fan’s (2010) findings showed that 56 out of 99 Chinese students who participated in their study believed that the plagiarised parts of their work are identifiable by their lecturers. In contrast, Pupovac, Bilic-Zulle, and Petrovecki (2008) noted that most students assume that their teachers will not be able to detect their acts of plagiarism; and Anderson (2009) found that approximately 60% of the participants were uncertain about their lecturers’ ability to discover their plagiarism cases or commitments. Based on the findings of the present study, what Iranian participants thought regarding the university and teachers’ failure in detecting plagiarised parts, was correct. To the extent that we could find, there was a form entitled ‘Student’s statement of commitment to the thesis’s authenticity’ on the website of the University of Tabriz (http://tabrizu.ac.ir/en). At the very end of the form it mentions that ‘If there is evidence of misconduct at any time, the University of Tabriz will pursue legal actions.' The students have to sign this form and include it in their thesis after defending it. No document could be found about details of legal actions and no plagiarism detection software was found on the website. In contrast, the students of Ankara University go through a process of getting their thesis checked by a plagiarism-detection program before receiving permission to defend their thesis. Moreover, the students have access to iThenticate and Turnitin plagiarism detectors. In February 2016, the Faculty of Health Sciences (http://sagbilens.ankara.edu.tr/?s=turnitin), and in March 2017 the Faculty of Engineering (http://www.eng.ankara.edu.tr/multimedia-archive/2017/03/) of the University of Ankara organised a presentation and training seminar on the use of Turnitin and plagiarism prevention methods.

Chandrasoma, Thompson, and Pennycook (2004) mentioned that without taking into account the intention of the act of transgressive intertextuality, no decisions can be made about penalizing methods. The results also revealed that a great number of the participants did not accept penalties such as failing an academic year or being suspended or expelled. According to Woessner (2004), the same punishment for a failure in citing a single sentence and copying one
article as the term paper is unfair. Based on this researcher, the penalty must differentiate between “a minor misstep” and “fraud” (p. 319). Based on Macdonald and Carroll (2006), plagiarism prevention policies include the introduction of plagiarism, policies and rules, and penalties and consequences, which are put on universities’ websites for students. Pupovac et al. (2008) stated that the rate of plagiarism depends on the degree of devoted attention by the academic community to the issue of plagiarism. If plagiarism is allowed and no consequences are defined for the plagiarisers, then there will be more plagiarism cases. It has been suggested that in countries with serious policies against misconduct, the rate of commitment is also lower (Fanelli et al., 2017). Pecorari (2013) also emphasised the importance of influential plagiarism prevention policies along with appropriate anti-plagiarism education. Evidence from studies have shown that not only the effective announcement of sound punishments but also familiarisation of the students with clear definitions and anti-plagiarism methods by the universities can reduce the rate of plagiarism (Hu & Sun, 2017).

Regarding the second objective of the current study, based on the authors’ knowledge, there have been no published articles. The third objective of the study was to learn about the participants’ ideas about the reasons for committing plagiarism. The findings of the present study were consistent with the results of Adib et al. (2015), whose interviews showed that students at the University of Tabriz can purchase any kind of article or thesis from specific private institutes that are full of academic misconducts due to high demands and short time. Jamali et al. (2014) showed that the foundations of producing and presenting knowledge in Iran are weak because the researchers and authors have not received sufficient education in this regard. Habibzadeh and Marcovitch (2011) indicated another reason for non-native writers in Iran. They mentioned that it can be strenuous and tiring for a non-native speaker of a language to reproduce a sentence that is as brief and expressive, but at the same time detailed, as a sentence from a native speaker. On the other hand, the trend of the academic context in Iran is based more on quantity and not quality. This finding was also demonstrated by Fealy, Biglari, and Pezeshkirad (2012). They indicated that unintentional plagiarism cases take place because many students are not familiar with methods of referencing. Lack of anti-plagiarism rules and students’ dissatisfaction with their professors’ unfair practice of presenting the students research in their own name were another two reasons that tempted students to plagiarise. Research has shown that 83.6% of university curriculums suffer from lack of anti-plagiarism policies or unclear definitions (Nushi & Firoozkoohi, 2017).
Eret and Gokmenoglu (2010) showed that research assistants at a Faculty of Education in Turkey committed plagiarism because of difficulties with using a foreign language and understanding assignments, overload or difficulty of assignments, and lack of knowledge about plagiarism and academic skills. Based on Unal and Ozenc Ucak’s (2017) cross-cultural study, in contrast to Hacettepe University, students in Turkey were first taught about plagiarism after they entered the university. Information and Library Science students from North Carolina had already been taught about it when they were in primary or secondary school. Ersoy (2014) revealed that university students from a Faculty of Education were involved in plagiarism because of their personal characteristics, with subcategories such as lack of confidence, being lazy, failure in managing time, friends, lecturers’ lack of concern, and the culture of using technology. The results of the present study showed consistency with these studies.

Conclusion

The present research was conducted with the aim of discovering higher education students’ overall knowledge about plagiarism, their information sources, and their reasons for committing plagiarism from two state universities, one in Iran and one in Turkey. Overall findings of the study showed that Iranian and Turkish participants had general but not detailed knowledge about plagiarism. In spite of this, striking and considerable results were obtained which indicated that the majority of Turkish participants gave more appropriate and true answers to the statements of the present survey.

The last five statements of the first questionnaire were prepared to find out about the participants’ knowledge of referencing methods. The findings of this part were not very promising, either for Iranian or for Turkish participants. As shown in the results of Questionnaire 2, there was a high percentage difference between Iranian and Turkish participants in obtaining information from a variety of sources, specially from their lecturers, internet, and anti-plagiarism courses.

Another conclusion can be drawn on the reasons for plagiarism among Turkish and Iranian participants. Participants from both universities commit plagiarism, mainly intentionally, due to some internal and external factors, even though they know that plagiarism is a serious offence. The reasons for plagiarism concerning the Iranian and Turkish participants were completely different. According to Iranian participants’ comments, many students are suffering from economic problems and an uncertain future has diminished their hopes. Educational differences may be another rationale to define the differences between Turkish and Iranian participants.
An overall comparison of the previous and current results demonstrated that Turkish participants were more knowledgeable than Iranian participants in 2013, as they still are in the current study, in addition to improvements in their knowledge and attitude. Similar to 2013, the current study showed that Turkish participants are aware that plagiarism is a serious offense based on their university’s rules; but they are still not satisfied with their university’s information service. Moreover, their uncertainty about the type of punishment for a plagiarism attempt has increased. The Iranian participants’ knowledge and understanding has improved over 5 years but they are still struggling.

Besides expanding the scope of the study to other universities, further research can include investigating and comparing different types of plagiarism in graduate or postgraduate students’ assignments or theses from different departments or different universities. Apart from this, future research can also demonstrate the methods that universities most benefit from when informing their students on plagiarism and anti-plagiarism policies.

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Insights into University Students’ Perceptions about Plagiarism

Abstract: Society expects our university students to be skilled and innovative while maintaining an ethical approach in all aspects of life. However, the emphasis on high grades and digital world realities has posed serious concerns related to cheating and plagiarism in our academic institutions globally and in Pakistan particularly. Data was collected on 24 statements adopted from Pritchett’s study through a questionnaire survey. A stratified sampling was used to select a sample of 1,500 respondents from 25 universities across Pakistan. The understanding and beliefs about plagiarism of the 1,061 participating university students varied significantly. Their perceptions about universities’ tolerance and professors’ leniency towards plagiarism pose a serious threat to scholarly pursuits. Findings also revealed that students present various excuses such as course pressure, fear of loss of scholarship, and instances of peers cheating in order to justify their own incidences of plagiarism. Findings of this study, if implemented, will help in combating the plague of plagiarism more effectively.

Keywords: attitudes, Pakistan, perceptions, perceptions about plagiarism, plagiarism, university students

Introduction

Universities, being the highest seats of learning, focus on the creation of new ideas and knowledge. Their graduates are expected to learn skills, technologies and techniques to solve the problems of society and explore opportunities for further development through critical thinking and innovations in their own way. Students and researchers need to go through what has already been done in their areas of interest and concerns so that they need not to re-invent the wheel, but create new knowledge and discover innovative means of resolving the issues of
society. The most critical aspect of new knowledge creation is to first understand what has already been done in a specific area and then make that previous research a basis for further research. Therefore, review of the relevant literature becomes the foundation for further research. Students have options and opportunities to search and find papers relevant to their fields of inquiry. At the same time they do face the pressure and sometime extreme stress of doing so many things at a time; say, attending classes, enjoying their social life, making presentations, doing multiple class work, exams and assignments along with writing papers and theses. Alongside these compulsions; many a time there are opportunities to copy others’ ideas and contributions and cheap solutions coming their way through the Internet and paper mills.

Despite students’ constraints and opportunities to cheat and plagiarise, graduate students are expected to maintain a high level of integrity and fairness and remain true to the ethics and morals of their society, while appearing in exams and conducting research. A number of studies on different aspects of cheating and plagiarism in academia by (McCabe, 1999, 2005; McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, 2001; Ramzan, Munir, Siddique, & Asif, 2012) revealed the grave situation academic institutions are facing with respect to rising incidents of cheating, especially plagiarism. They have reported that not only does plagiarism exist but despite efforts to curb plagiarism, it is on the rise amongst students in academic institutions. They have further mentioned that in each institution and country, students’ understanding of plagiarism may differ. As a result, students may commit plagiarism unintentionally and when detected could be penalised for intentional plagiarism, that is punishable. It is therefore important to first examine students’ understanding of plagiarism before developing strategies that can be effective in promoting integrity and morality in academia.

**Students’ Perceptions about Plagiarism**

Theories in human psychology indicate that a deeper understanding of an individual or groups’ views on an issue are critical for changing their attitudes and behaviors towards that particular issue. Similarly, university policies about plagiarism exist but the understanding of each student regarding plagiarism may differ. A study of perceptions allows us to imbibe sensory information and make it into something meaningful (Ashworth, Bannister, Thorne, & Unit, 1997; Gullifer & Tyson, 2014; McCabe et al., 2001).

Razera, Verhagen, Pargman, and Ramberg (2010) found that there is a difference in opinions and perspectives about plagiarism among students and educators because of cultural conditions, social differences and language barriers. Owunwanne,
Rustagi, & Dada (2010) argued that many factors including age, gender, social status, beliefs and individual perceptions about cheating, absence of the threat of being caught or convicted, and observation of peers and friends cheating/plagiarizing while circumventing exposure contribute to determining student perceptions about plagiarism. Similarly, the availability of ready resources on the Internet can change students’ perception towards copy-pasting (Rehman & Waheed, 2014).

According to several researchers (e.g., Ashworth et al., 1997; Bennett, Behrendt, & Boothby, 2011; Gullifer & Tyson, 2010; Gullifer & Tyson, 2014; Halupa & Bolliger, 2013; Higbee & Thomas, 2002; Owunwanne et al., 2010; Power, 2009; Scanlon & Neumann, 2002), although human beings differ in nature and so do their ethical belief systems, a student may be encouraged to cheat because of the prevalence of a particular academic culture and norms, weak preventive and punitive measures by the institution, classroom pressures, assignment submission deadlines, and the race to get good grades to obtain rewards and better employment opportunities.

Park (2003) and other studies such as Bennett et al. (2011) and Sutherland-Smith (2005) found a great deal of variation in the students’ beliefs and understanding of plagiarism. Barrett and Malcolm (2006) in a cross-cultural exploratory study, and (Magnus, Polterovich, Danilov, & Savvateev, 2002) contended that academic dishonesty and cheating phenomena correlate with a country’s overall corruption index. Rogerson and McCarthy (2017) have pointed out the easy availability and increased use of internet-based paraphrasing tools for the processing of existing published content for academic use. Modern originality-check software has shown poor performance in detecting this content (Rogerson & McCarthy, 2017). No systematic gender bias has been reported in the severity of penalties for plagiarism in Sweden. Moreover, female students are less prevalent in plagiarism cases as compared to male students. Female students do not admit their involvement in plagiarism cases to the same extent as male students (Witmer & Johansson, 2015). Fish and Hura (2013) found students reporting they had never committed plagiarism; however, they think other students are more likely to commit all types of plagiarism. Similarly, students think some types of plagiarism are more serious than other types. Kokkinaki and Lakovidou (2015) in their study in Cyprus have emphasised the need for clear and uniform definitions of plagiarism and academic dishonesty as well as the communication of these definitions to the students and faculty. The study has also reiterated the usefulness of software for detecting plagiarism (Kokkinaki, Demoliou, & Iakovidou, 2015).
Plagiarism in Pakistan

Academic institutions in Pakistan are also confronted with the issue of plagiarism. Findings of studies by several researchers (e.g., Ghias, Lakho, Asim, Azam, & Saeed, 2014; Higher Education Commission Pakistan, 2015; Murtaza, Zafar, Bashir, & Hussain, 2013; Shakeel, Iffat, Quds, Tanveer, & Hassan, 2013; Shirazi, Jafarey, & Moazam, 2010) revealed that plagiarism in academic institutions in Pakistan is on the rise. The majority of the students showed ignorance of the plagiarism policy of the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan and of their own institutes. They were found ready to indulge in plagiarism as they think it is not as bad as 'it is only copy-pasting'.

Findings of an empirical study by (Ramzan et al., 2012) revealed that around 27% of students do not understand the meaning of plagiarism and 24% ($n = 350$) of the students responded that they had been involved in plagiarism. Similarly, 65% agreed that plagiarism is wrong while 11% students think plagiarism is not wrong. They further reported that a significant number of students think plagiarism under pressure is the last resort to succeeding in exams and research assignments.

The literature reveals that quite a few studies are being conducted in different countries to find out the understanding, perceptions, behaviors and attitudes of students toward plagiarism. However, no comprehensive study has been conducted so far to examine the understanding and perceptions of students towards plagiarism in Pakistan. The findings of studies conducted outside Pakistan may not be very relevant in analyzing the real perceptions of Pakistani students because of the pervasive contextual, cultural and societal distinctions and differences with other societies. Local students differ in individual and situational factors such as a country’s culture, education quality, grooming, skills and abilities, system of values, ethical beliefs and perception of plagiarism. However, the rationalizations and excuses for cheating among students across countries may match. The purpose of this study is to investigate graduate and postgraduate students’ understanding, beliefs and interpretations of plagiarism. The findings will lead us to prepare appropriate strategies for promotion of academic integrity to curb plagiarism in higher education institutions.

Methodology

Postgraduate and graduate students are considered to be the cream of any nation. Their character and behavior about a phenomenon is critical in understanding how the educated elite of a country thinks about and perceives an issue. This important reason encouraged the author to frame a sampling of graduate and
undergraduate students of universities across Pakistan for this study. Stratified sampling was used to select a sample of 1,500 participants from 25 universities. A questionnaire survey was conducted to obtain responses from the participants. Printed and email methods were used for distribution and collection of the filled-in questionnaires. Moreover, the author used his personal friends in universities to get the instrument filled. Out of 1,500 questionnaires sent, 1,124 (75%) were received back. After inspection, 63 responses were found invalid. Therefore, 1,061 valid questionnaires were used for primary data analysis.

Analysis and Interpretation of Primary Data

Students’ perceptions about plagiarism were examined through 24 statements and measured on a 5-point Likert scale starting from strongly agree (SA=5) to Agree (A=4), Undecided (UD=3), Disagree (DA=2) and Strongly Disagree (SDA=1). These statements were adopted through a questionnaire already used by Pritchett (2010) in a dissertation concerning students’ perceptions about plagiarism. The first 17 statements asked respondents to show their agreement or disagreement about their perceptions of plagiarism. The next seven statements specifically asked about their understanding and beliefs on plagiarism when under pressure. The Cronbach alpha of all 24 statements on perceptions about plagiarism was reliable at .77.

Students’ Perceptions towards Plagiarism

In response to one perception statement, 716 (67.5%) students responded that plagiarism is a serious problem in universities, while 155 (14.6%) did not agree with this statement and the remaining 190 (20%) remained neutral or did not respond. Nevertheless, a reasonable number of students do not agree that plagiarism is a serious problem to be tackled by universities. Most of the respondents, 460 (43.4%), agreed that students should be responsible for informing faculty of other students’ plagiarism; however, 248 (23.4%) did not agree with this statement. This shows that students do express concern where the plagiarism of classmates is concerned.

Six statements were used to examine respondents’ demographics, for instance, do male students plagiarise more than female or vice-versa? Similarly, how do they perceive tolerance related to plagiarism between female and male faculty? and if there is any difference between male and female faculty in reporting plagiarism incidences. Findings revealed negligible variations in students’ perceptions based on gender. In response to the first statement, 32% respondents believe that female students plagiarise more often than male students, while 48% did not agree with the statement. 30% respondents believe that male students plagiarise more often
than female students, while around 32% did not agree with the statement. Around 30–32% respondents believed that male and female students plagiarise, while no significant difference was found based on gender. Keeping in view that the respondents were graduate and postgraduate students, 30–32% is a significant number that we need to take into account when making strategies to positively change the perceptions of students about their classmates. The reason for changing this perception is that they themselves will take this number as an excuse to plagiarise.

Around 22% of the respondents perceive that the male faculty is more tolerant towards plagiarism, while 37% did not agree. In response to the next statement, 23% of the respondents believed that the female faculty is more tolerant to plagiarism, while 32% did not agree. Similarly, 33% of the students perceived that the male faculty reports cases of incidence more than the female faculty, while 28% did not agree. Only 24% of the students reported that female faculty report incidents of plagiarism more than the male faculty, while 32% did not agree. No significant difference was found in the students’ perception about faculty tolerance to plagiarism based on gender. However, the data indicates that students think that the female faculty is comparatively more lenient and tolerant than the male faculty in accepting and reporting incidents of plagiarism. A reasonable (22–32) percentage of students believe that the faculty in their universities are tolerant of incidents of plagiarism. This perception has serious implications in the overall culture of integrity and plagiarism in universities and could be a motive for students to indulge in plagiarism.

It was also deemed important to examine how students feel about the reaction of their future employers, professors, parents and friends if they were found involved in plagiarism. A majority of the respondents (55%) believed that future employers would be less inclined to hire them if they were discovered plagiarizing, while 17% did not agree. Similarly, a significant majority (64%) of the respondents believed that their professor would be disappointed if they were found plagiarizing in one of their classes, while 17% did not agree. Around 42% of the respondents believed that their friends would be disappointed if they were found plagiarizing, while 30% of respondents did not agree with the statement. More than 55% of the respondents believed that their parents would be disappointed if they were found plagiarizing, while 21% did not. The findings reveal that most of the students are sensitive to the feelings and reactions of their professors, future employers and parents while 17 to 21% respondents do not care if they are found plagiarizing.

Less than 46% of respondents believed their fellow university students see plagiarism as wrong, while 27% did not consider it to be wrong. The students’ perceptions about their university fellows are discouraging and they may use this as an excuse to commit plagiarism.
Three statements were used to examine the respondents’ morality, understanding and personal beliefs about plagiarism. Half of the respondents agreed that they would feel guilty if they plagiarised in a paper or presentation, 28% said they would not feel guilty, while 22% did not share this point of view. More than 58% of the respondents agreed that plagiarizing in a paper or presentation goes against their principles, 18.5% did not believe in this, and 23% did not share their beliefs. It was encouraging to note that a majority (61%) of the respondents believed that it would be morally wrong for them to plagiarise in a paper or presentation, 19% did not believe it morally wrong, while the remainder did not share their belief.

For further examination of students’ insights, it was asked whether plagiarism was acceptable under certain circumstances; whereupon 41% agreed yes, 32% showed disagreement, and 26% remained neutral or did not respond to the statement. It is alarming that most of the students feel that plagiarism is acceptable and excusable under certain conditions.

**Perceptions about Plagiarism When under Pressure**

It was deemed critical to investigate students’ perceptions about their universities’ tolerance of plagiarism when they are under pressure and consequently are apt to find excuses to commit plagiarism. These findings will help us to better understand the beliefs and attitudes of the graduate and undergraduate students about their universities’ policies, practices and norms to handle plagiarism.

Responses show that 40% of the students believed that their universities would find it more excusable if the course was too hard and they plagiarised, while 36% did not agree. Similarly, half of the students believed that their universities would find it more excusable if the student was in danger of losing a scholarship, while 27% did not agree. Around 41% of students believed that their universities would find it more excusable if students did not have time to do all the work and so they plagiarised, while 27% did not agree.

A similar pattern can be seen where 43% of the students believed that their universities would find it more excusable if the instructor does not seem to care about plagiarism, while 29% did not agree. Likewise, 41% of the students believed that their universities would find it more excusable if the instructor acts as if the student is taking only his/her class, but 27% did not agree. Around 30% of the students believed that their universities would find it more excusable if the student plagiarizing is not hurting anyone else, while 44% did not agree. More than 33% of the students believed that their universities would find it more excusable if everyone else in the class seemed to be plagiarizing; however, 38% did not agree.
More than 40% of students believe that their universities will accept excuses to tolerate plagiarism because of pressures of workload, difficult work, fear of loss of scholarship, students being short of time or teachers not caring much about plagiarism and if the instructor thinks that his/her class is the only one the student is taking. Similarly, they believe that their universities will tolerate and find plagiarism excusable if they think that the students are not hurting anyone and everyone in the class seems to be plagiarizing. This speaks volumes of the students’ understanding and perceptions about their universities’ culture of integrity and plagiarism.

The findings of the statements on students’ perceptions about plagiarism when under pressure revealed that a significant number of respondents (28–50%) believe that their university would be lenient and tolerant to plagiarism if students are under some kind of pressure because of workload, possible loss of scholarship, time constraints, the instructor not caring much, if it is not hurting anyone else, and everyone else in the class is plagiarizing. These perceptions need serious consideration by universities to make clear policies and procedures and ensure their implementation in order to clarify that plagiarism is not acceptable under any circumstances whatsoever. Universities’ management, teachers and students should clearly understand that there is zero tolerance with reference to plagiarism so that the prevailing perceptions can be changed to promote integrity and morality in education.

Discussion, Conclusions and Implications

The purpose of this study was to investigate postgraduate and graduate university students’ perceptions about plagiarism in Pakistan. What are their personal beliefs, feelings and how do they collectively perceive plagiarism in the classes and universities? How do they perceive plagiarism morally? Another important aspect of this study was to ascertain if the participants present any excuses, such as pressure in their studies, assignments, etc. for indulging in plagiarism.

It has been almost a decade since the Higher Education Commission of Pakistan framed a policy and encouraged universities to use Turnitin (electronic text matching software) to curb plagiarism. However, cases of plagiarism are on the rise in universities. A low level of agreement (43%) was found amongst students regarding informing the faculty if some of their classmates were plagiarizing. This is a tricky situation. Despite the fact that students feel plagiarism is wrong, they may not find it appropriate to complain about their fellow students, keeping in mind that this may harm their personal relationship with peers. Even then, a reasonable number of respondents agreed with this statement and a large number
University students’ perceptions about plagiarism

of students remained neutral in their response. (Rettinger & Kramer, 2009) found that students many a time exaggerate the level and frequency of plagiarism committed by their peers and this has a serious impact on their own understanding and chances of indulging in plagiarism. Universities need to develop a culture of morality, develop students’ writing and referencing skills, and strictly implement a zero tolerance policy towards plagiarism. Similarly, if a student informs of malpractices by another student, a deeper investigation should be conducted; but at the same time, the name of the informer should be kept confidential so that their inter-personal relationship is not damaged.

Female faculty were perceived as more lenient compared to male faculty in tolerating plagiarism by their students. One of the reasons could be that females are generally soft-hearted or they may be less conscious of the consequences of plagiarism in their universities. However, keeping in view the number of female teachers (around 45%), this is a significant finding and need to be taken very seriously in order to change students’ perceptions about their female teachers.

It is encouraging to find that the majority of the students were conscious of the fact that their future employer may not hire them, and their professors, friends and parents will be disappointed, if it is found that they have plagiarised. This can work as a deterrent against malpractices like plagiarism. This warrants involving parents and peers in educating the students to remain ethical in academia and not indulge in plagiarism.

The response to statements related to students’ principles and morality towards plagiarism in a paper or presentation is encouraging, as around 59–60% consider plagiarism contrary to their personal values, but around 18% did not consider it to be against their values and norms. This again is a challenge, and universities need to plan and strategise to focus on values and morality in our academia. Magnus et al. (2002) also found that a country’s overall culture of integrity and values has a significant impact on academic integrity. One way to combat plagiarism is that each student should be enrolled in ethics and values courses and put in counseling sessions; in addition to regularly detecting plagiarism cases and meting out severe punishment to those found guilty. This may help in changing their perceptions towards plagiarism and other cheating habits.

Most (41%) of the students agreed that plagiarism is acceptable under certain circumstances while only 32% did not agree and a quarter of the respondents remained undecided. These findings are alarming and reveal the students’ perceptions of tolerance to plagiarism by the universities. They think that if there is any pressure of work or any other excuse, plagiarism should be acceptable. From these responses it is evident that a larger body of our graduate and postgraduate
students will find excuses to commit plagiarism. Therefore, universities need to work more rigorously and strictly to create an environment in universities where ethics, morality and integrity is practiced and followed in its true spirit and there is no tolerance for any kind of cheating or plagiarism. The use of electronic text originality-check software Turnitin for every assignment and research paper can also work as an effective deterrent in changing the behavior of students towards plagiarism. Barrett and Malcolm (2006) have also recommended the use of Turnitin and similar software to check the originality of text and help students in paraphrasing and referencing. We also need to reiterate university and societal expectations of high moral values from our graduate and postgraduate students.

Although a large number of postgraduate and graduate students across Pakistan participated in this study, we also need to understand how the faculty of our educational institutions perceive plagiarism. An examination of factors that impact attitudes and perceptions toward plagiarism through factor analysis and regression will help to identify major predictors of perceptions to plagiarism and help us in making strategies to change the students’ perceptions toward plagiarism. Similar studies focused on medical, business, humanities and social sciences students may also be conducted to ascertain the causes of plagiarism at the micro-level so that profession-specific policies are made to eradicate plagiarism from our society.

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Students and Teachers’ Perceptions about Academic Dishonesty at a University in Pakistan

Abstract: In modern-day competitive academia, it has become a common practice for many students to use various cheating methods to secure better grades (usually more than what they actually deserve) on their courses. For students, access to information and sources is easier than ever while the spread of technology is making it difficult for institutions to discover and prevent such unethical practices. To avoid and prevent these practices, it is important that students and faculty members share perceptions about these malpractices and work together for a better solution. This research is an effort to explore the perceptions of students and teachers about academic dishonesty in Pakistan and how this understanding can help us in the creation of a more positive environment. Results of this survey study suggest that cheating and plagiarism are common practices among students at our university. Furthermore, there are large differences in the perceptions of students and teachers about academic dishonesty. In addition to other factors, all participants feel that the university should provide a clear policy and implement it strictly. It is recommended that more dialogue is needed among faculty members about what constitutes academic misconduct and teachers should provide more guidance to students to achieve positive outcomes. The University can outline a clear and strict policy to enforce rules related to academic dishonesty.

Keywords: academic dishonesty, higher education, Pakistani teachers and students, plagiarism

Introduction

Rapid developments in communication and information technologies have provided access to unlimited resources that students can use for learning and development. The Internet and technologies provide countless opportunities to obtain the desired data and use it for various purposes. However, this free-information flow can be disastrous and misleading for many students who fail to understand/
follow the ethical issues attached to using this data. University students might engage in unethical practices by using others’ publications for their assignments and papers (Chen & Chou, 2014). Many university students might not know or lack awareness about various rules that govern writing in academic settings. Many students, especially in developing countries, fail to follow proper citation guidelines that might become the basis for plagiarism or amoral behavior. Students usually ignore the consequences of plagiarism and do not worry about copying one/two lines from different sources without proper citation (Blum, 2009; Stapleton, 2010). Conversely, plagiarizing and copying are not new among students; however, in this digital age students might perceive plagiarism differently.

Despite efforts from governments and academia, the practice of academic dishonesty in universities is increasing. Plagiarism and foul practices are a serious threat to academia and society because it hinders the proper assessment of students’ knowledge. Plagiarism is harmful for developing trust between institutions and students and it is dangerous for those who earn grades honestly (Jurdi, Hage, & Chow, 2011). This negative behavior and academic fraud during studying can lead to serious unethical conduct at the workplace in later stages (Deshpande, Joseph, & Berry, 2012). Perceptions towards sharing and ownership of information and knowledge are rapidly changing and it is highly relevant to understand this phenomenon to control dishonest practices.

According to Hosny and Fatima (2014, p. 748) academic dishonesty is “the students’ use of illegal activities, techniques and forms of fraud during their examination or evaluation process, usually for the purpose of achieving better grades”. There can be different ways of cheating including copying assignments from other students, taking the help of others for tasks when it is not allowed, using the internet for solutions to difficult individual assignments, submitting one assignment for multiple subjects, stealing from online sources, taking solved assignments by payment, using material during exams, and other different ways (Sheard, Markham, & Dick, 2003). Researchers (e.g., Moon, 2006) usually divide academic dishonesty into three broad categories, namely, i) collusion, ii) cheating, and iii) plagiarism. The later ones are common among young students; which include obtaining academic advantages through unfair means and presenting other people’s ideas or works without proper acknowledgment. Collusion is when students help other students like their friends/peers to do a class assignment or task and then submit it as an individual work. Teachers consider collusion as the deliberate collaboration of students on a task to deceive their instructors (Yeo, 2007). Students indulge in these actions without truly understanding the legal consequences, only as a way of passing a course or improving their grades.
Conversely, academic integrity serves as the foundation of the academic and social world. Young people develop habits of honesty and integrity during their academic endeavors which help them to practice these virtues throughout their lives. Responsibility, trust, respect, fairness, morality, quality and honesty are the backbone and pillars of academic integrity (UTC Walker Teaching Resource Center, 2006). Gallant (2008, p. 2) explains the goal of academic honesty as “to highlight the expectations that truth, freedom, courage, quality and the spirit of free intellectual inquiry will guide the academic work of students and faculty”. The purpose is to ensure that one carries out work with understanding and belief in the ownership of one’s work.

Many academics, scholars, researchers, policy-makers and governments are trying to control illegal practices in academic settings to develop social and cultural standards in line with international standards. There are many online tools to detect cheating and plagiarism; however, they might fail to locate plagiarised text which students translate from other languages like Urdu. Students cheat for many reasons and the literature has offered different factors such as peer/group pressure, defying the instructor, low grades compared to perceived effort, fear of disappointing people with low grades, difficult assignments, poor time-management skills, and also just because students think they can do it (Yeo, 2007).

Even with all the efforts and policies of academic and government institutions, the practices of cheating, immoral behavior, plagiarism and academic misconduct appear to grow in number. One approach might be a focus on the detection of such actions through advanced technological tools and awareness among faculty members which might have gone unnoticed in the past. However, Glick (2001) opines that we are facing a gradual decline in ethical values and moral behavior at a global level, which is a major reason for the academic misconduct of students at different levels. He further suggests that detachment from high ethical standards and the sameness of modern popular culture can be major reasons for causing illegal practices in higher education. Researchers have been trying for a while to explore the reasons and factors that cause cheating and plagiarism among students. Any understanding of the real issues related to plagiarism and cheating would not be reliable without adding the perspectives of faculty members in addition to other stakeholders. Traditionally, scholars basically focused on students’ attitudes and perceptions towards academic dishonesty. There is a limited number of studies that investigate the experiences and perceptions of teachers about academic integrity and only a few make a comparison between the perceptions and attitudes of faculty and students towards academic dishonesty and integrity in academic institutions.
Kwong, Ng, Mark, and Wong (2010) utilised mixed methods and a sequential explanatory design to collect data through a survey with faculty members ($n = 113$) as well as students ($n = 268$); individual interviews were also conducted with faculty and focus-group interviews with learners in Hong Kong. The authors observed significant differences between the faculty and students’ understanding of plagiarism and cheating. Students cheat for many reasons and teachers do not usually report cases of academic dishonesty to higher authorities. They are urged to implement programs about honesty and integrity in the academic context for the development of a moral, trustworthy and honest nation. Based on quantitative data from 400 Chinese students and teachers, Clark et al. (2012) highlighted stress, environmental factors, bad instruction and poor communication as playing a major role in uncivil behavior. In addition, teachers and students seemed to agree on possible ways to improve behavior through vibrant policies, learner autonomy and clear behavioral expectations. Hu and Lei (2016) compared data from 142 EFL teachers and 270 students at a Chinese university for their views on intertextuality, which is normally considered plagiarism. Analyses of data illustrated that almost all participants disapproved recognised forms of plagiarism. Furthermore, greater awareness of academic dishonesty and exposure to academic writings helped participants to take a strict stance on the unacknowledged use of materials. Authors also emphasised the significance of academic socialization and awareness of attitudes towards academic dishonesty.

Ewing, Mathieson, Anast, and Roehling (2017) assessed perceptions of health sciences doctoral students and faculty at a public university in the USA about unethical academic behavior, specifically plagiarism. Data from 92 faculty members and 238 students demonstrated that faculty believed that more students plagiarise compared to students’ self-reported perceptions. Both students and teachers agreed about the prevalent practices of plagiarism, collusion and cheating; however, not many students self-reported this unethical behavior. Chen and Chou (2017) compared the perceptions of college students and faculty about academic misconduct in Taiwan. Results from 634 students and 229 instructors revealed that teachers believed in higher standards compared to students for academic integrity. In addition, significant discipline-based differences contributed to students’ perceptions about plagiarism.

As a developing country, Pakistan faces many challenges in the development and implementation of policies. Academic dishonesty, uncivil behavior, collusion, cheating and plagiarism are fairly recent trends for policy-makers and higher authorities. National and regional authorities have been trying to counter malpractices in academia through strict policies and implementation. However, research
about the existing situation of academic misbehavior, plagiarism and cheating is still at an early stage; which makes it difficult to make informed decisions for policy development and implementation. Academic dishonesty is a serious threat to the social and moral values of a society; therefore, we need to highlight issues related to it to create a well-informed and ethical generation of students and teachers. Different researchers (e.g. Mansoor & Ameen, 2016; Murtaza, Zafar, Bashir & Hussain, 2013; Nazir & Aslam, 2010) have tried to explore the perceptions and attitude of students towards academic misconduct; however, there is no single study to the best of my knowledge that focuses on comparing faculty and students’ points of view on this issue. Therefore, our research is novel in the Pakistani context in that it fills the existing gap and develops our understanding of the perceptions of faculty and students towards uncivil behavior in higher education in Pakistan. The following research questions directed this research:

1. In what ways do teachers and students perceive academic dishonesty differently?
2. In what ways do teachers’ and students’ perceptions differ about the engagement of students in unethical and uncivil academic behavior?
3. What are the some of the differences in perceptions of students and faculty about instructions provided about dishonest academic practices?
4. In what ways do student and faculty perceptions differ about ways that help students gain awareness of academic misconduct?

The following hypotheses were designed for this research:

**H1:** There are differences in the perceptions of students and faculty members towards academic misconduct.

**H2:** Teachers and students differ in their perceptions about the engagement of students in academically-dishonest practices.

**H3:** Students and teachers have different perceptions about the frequency of guidance provided to students about unethical and uncivil academic behavior.

**H4:** Teachers and students differ in their perception of how students become aware of academic misconduct and dishonesty.

**Methods and Data Collection**

We are witnessing increased interest in concerns related to ethical behavior and academic integrity among students and their perceptions about academic dishonesty. Scholars have been trying to provide empirical evidence to illuminate the existing scenario; however, there are still many gaps, particularly in Pakistan.
Creswell (2009) and others like Stevens (2012) suggested exploring perceptions through a well-vetted survey instrument. To address the gaps in the Pakistani context, a quantitative design was employed using two questionnaires. To explore the research directions, the instruments of Stevens (2012) and Ford (2015) were used and modified to meet the local needs of learners (Academic Dishonesty Perception Questionnaire (ADPQ)).

For the ADPQ, data collection took place within a small women’s university in Punjab, Pakistan. Data collection occurred during the Spring 2017 semester from different arts, humanities, social sciences and science faculties. There were more than 5,000 female students enrolled in different degree programs at that time. There were also 185 faculty members working in 18 departments of the university at the time of data collection. A purposive-stratified random sampling methodology helped in collecting data from students, as well as faculty members. After permission from the concerned deans of faculties, all heads of departments were approached for permission and data collection. Fifty questionnaires for students were distributed among the final year undergraduate students of each department while 8 questionnaires were distributed to faculty members from each department. From 900 questionnaires, 576 questionnaires were returned from the student sample while out of 144 faculty questionnaires, 103 were returned. Out of the 576 questionnaires, significant information was missing from 25 questionnaires and hence those were discarded and only data from 551 questionnaires were used for this research on the student population. All returned questionnaires from faculty members were good; hence data from 103 questionnaires from lecturers were included for analysis.

In order to understand the existing scenario, a modified version of another short questionnaire (Tabsh, Abdelfatah, & El Kadi, 2017) was distributed among the sample along with the first questionnaire. There were only 5 items about the perceptions of students and faculty related to academic misconduct and cheating. From 900 questionnaires, 611 students returned the survey while 113 faculty members sent the survey back. However, for conformity purposes, data were used from 551 student questionnaires and from 103 faculty members. The 551 and 103 questionnaires were randomly selected by excluding every 10th response.

**Results and Discussion**

For analytic purposes, data were inserted in SPSS 23 for Windows and descriptive analyses were carried out to answer questions and to test hypotheses. Cronbach Alpha (Table 1) was explored, which demonstrated that the constructs are dependable and reliable. For items related to perceptions of students and teachers towards cheating and plagiarism, Alpha values are good at $\alpha = .80$ for teachers and $\alpha = .74$
for students. Items related to perceived students’ dishonesty, faculty responses yielded $\alpha = .81$ while $\alpha = .74$ for responses from students. Items about received instruction revealed $\alpha = .78$ for teachers and $\alpha = .71$ for students’ responses. For items about perceived ways of acquiring knowledge about unethical practices, the collected responses revealed $\alpha = .76$ for teachers and $\alpha = .73$ for students.

Table 1: Internal Reliability (Cronbach Alpha) of ADPQ Scales

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions about academic dishonesty</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived students’ dishonesty practices</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received instruction about academic dishonesty</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.78</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How students gain awareness of academic misconduct</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There was also good reliability for all five items in the short questionnaire, with an overall Cronbach Alpha value of .91. There was only a slight difference between students and teachers with $\alpha = .91$ for students and $\alpha = .92$ for teachers. This indicates that almost all the participants understood the short questionnaire in a clear manner.

Table 2: Independent Samples t-Test Results for Variation between Student and Faculty Perceptions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$p$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceptions about academic dishonesty</td>
<td>-2.52</td>
<td>421</td>
<td>&lt; .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived students’ dishonesty practices</td>
<td>-21.86</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Received instruction about academic dishonesty</td>
<td>-0.59</td>
<td>398</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How students gain awareness of academic misconduct</td>
<td>-4.65</td>
<td>401</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For answers to the questions and testing of hypotheses, descriptive and inferential tests were carried out on the collected data using SPSS. For question 1 and hypothesis 1, independent samples $t$-test highlighted statistically significant differences between the two groups, where $t = -2.52$, df = 421 and $p < .01$. The group mean for teachers ($M = 0.71$, $SD = 0.54$) was comparatively lower than the group mean of students ($M = 0.83$, $SD = 0.42$). Normally, the responses of students and teachers ranged from neutral to disagree; however, responses of students have a stronger inclination towards “disagree” on this scale. These results support hypothesis 1 presented in the previous section.
Independent samples $t$-test for question and hypothesis 2 also exhibited statistically significant difference values for both the groups, where $t = -21.86$, $df = 413$ and $p < .001$. The faculty sample mean ($M = 2.41$, $SD = 0.84$) was comparatively higher than the students’ sample mean ($M = 0.53$, $SD = 0.62$). Typically, faculty demonstrated an inclination towards “strongly agree”, whereas students gave responses ranging from strongly disagree to neutral for this scale. Results for question 2 support the second hypothesis of this research.

Results from data about question 3 and hypothesis 3 independent samples $t$-test analysis revealed no statistically striking differences between the groups of teachers and students with values of $t = -0.59$, $df = 398$, and $p > .05$. Faculty sample mean ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 0.78$) was slightly higher than the mean of the student sample ($M = 2.59$, $SD = 0.81$). Results for this scale do not support hypothesis 3, which means that students and teachers perceive the frequency of instruction about unethical academic behavior in quite similar ways.

For question 4 and hypothesis 4, results of independent samples $t$-test spotlighted that there is a difference in the perceptions of teachers and students about the ways of learning about academically dishonest behavior, where values for the test are $t = -4.65$, $df = 401$ and $p < .001$. The mean for the faculty sample ($M = 1.57$, $SD = 0.40$) was comparatively higher than the mean for the student sample ($M = 0.99$, $SD = 0.47$). This supports hypothesis 4 of this research.

To further understand the perceptions of students and teachers, now we will discuss data from the short survey.

*Figure 1: Perceptions of plagiarism on projects and some assignments*
In first item, students and teachers offered their opinion about plagiarism of students on projects and homework. Figure 1 highlights the answers of the two groups, which suggest that faculty members have a more positive attitude compared to students. Overall, more than 75% of teachers think that fewer students (less than 50%) plagiarise in out-of-classroom work, compared to 55% for students. This result is in line with observations from other contexts (McCabe, 2005), where teachers usually provided positive perceptions of students’ academic behavior.

Item 2 asked about the percentage of students who indulge in unauthorised collaboration. The perceptions of students and teachers are quite similar, as can be seen in Figure 2, which is consistent with results from Brown, Weible, and Olmosk (2010). Almost 30% of the sample from both groups believed that less than 25% students carry out unsolicited collaboration with others. Around 20% from both groups reported between 25%-50% collusion while more than 45% in both sample groups stated more than 50% of students are involved in these activities.

*Figure 2: Perceptions concerning inappropriate collaboration*

![Figure 2: Perceptions concerning inappropriate collaboration](image)

Item 4 focused on the question about the percentage of students who tend to cheat in their exams. Responses of teachers were quite different from students. Data presented in Figure 3 highlight that 90% of teachers perceived that less than 25% students cheat during exams while only 61% of students opined that less than 25% students cheat. Teachers might consider this as only being caught or recognised cases; whereas students might be aware of other cheating cases which went unnoticed by the teachers. Therefore, we might need to develop certain practices where students can come forward to report cases of cheating during exams. Findings
from these three items match results from other contexts (Young, 2010), where students who plagiarise and collate also tend to indulge in cheating during exams.

Figure 4 below offers a summary of responses with reference to the frequency of discussion about academic integrity and academic misconduct by professors in their classrooms. Teachers have exposure to different ideas and concepts that they can explain to their students. The perceptions of students and teachers suggest that professors do mention and talk about academic integrity and academic misconduct.

**Figure 3: Perceptions about cheating during exams**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 25%</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 25-50%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 50%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4: Perceptions about frequency of discussion about academic integrity**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The final item on the short survey asked participants about different ways that may help in reducing dishonest practices in academia. Results presented in Figure 5 highlight that there are differences in perceptions about how we can reduce academically dishonest behavior. Students think that pressure should be reduced and there should be less rigid deadlines and assignments. Teachers think that strict penalties and educating students may serve a better purpose.

Figure 5: Perceptions about how we can control academically dishonest practices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How can we reduce academic dishonest practices?</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strict Penalties</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proper Education</td>
<td>31%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More measure to catch violators</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use more invigilator</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Results from this small-scale university demonstrate that students and teachers perceive academic misconduct differently. Students lack true awareness about unethical and uncivil behavior related to cheating and plagiarism. We need to introduce more programs like training and workshops to provide awareness to students about academic integrity and about practices that are not tolerated in academic settings. Faculty members and teachers need to work together to control and decrease existing malpractices. Many students fail to understand actions that fall in the categories of cheating and plagiarism and therefore, fail to direct their behavior in the proper direction. Policy-makers and institutional administrators need to devise strict guidelines and they should make sure that frequent guidance is provided to students through training, workshops and full-length courses. Without clear perceptions, it would be hard for faculty members to eradicate these practices on their own.
References


Section 2:

Pedagogical Aspects of Academic Integrity Policies
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Lithuanian Social Research Centre, Lithuania

Integrity Management in High Schools: Paving a Way to Misconduct?

Abstract: Studies show that bad practices developed at high school partially cause misconduct at university and can extend into the workplace. Evidently, universities experience the consequences of previously embedded behaviour such as using cribbing notes, irresponsible use of sources of information, or even contract cheating. The misconduct of a student, living within such an environment for more than ten years, can hardly be considered the responsibility of the university in addressing the misconduct of a university student. Hence, universities are not fully able to handle misconduct and implement prevention-related activities due to the maturity of personality, i.e. entrenched individual values, beliefs and habits. Although this is explicit, integrity-related issues are rarely examined from a high school management perspective. In this regard, this paper aims to explore integrity management practices in high schools. We carried out a study, using qualitative content analysis, in high schools located in the capital city of Lithuania. Our sample consisted of all 32 public high schools (gymnasiums) on whose websites we identified over 130 publicly-available policy documents in relation to the management of students’ behaviour. Research findings show that there is no systematic approach to how gymnasiums prevent and deal with misconduct that supposedly results in students continuing bad practices in higher education.

Keywords: high school, integrity, integrity management, misbehaviour

Introduction

Dishonest behaviour can penetrate any educational setting; high schools are no exception. There bad practices have become critical, as they have prevailed for decades and transformed into a quite acceptable norm (Clariana, Gotzens, del Mar Badia, & Cladellas, 2012; Evans & Craig, 1990; Galloway, 2012; Murdock, Miller, & Kohlhardt, 2004; Sisti, 2007). The literature evidences the existence of many forms of students’ bad practices, such as using unauthorised cribbing notes

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during examinations, plagiarism (particularly internet plagiarism), contract cheating, procrastination, submission of the same paper for credit in more than one class, allowing other students to copy from one’s own test or homework, and so on (e.g. Clariana et al., 2012; Conradson & Hernández-Ramos, 2004; Evans & Craig, 1990; Höberg, 2011; Lai & Weeks, 2009; Murdock et al., 2004; Sisti, 2007; Sureda-Negre, Comas-Forgas, & Trobat, 2015; Vinski & Tryon, 2009). Evidently, such a variety of bad practices in high school demonstrate a wide range of dishonest behaviour. Interestingly, those students who cheat in high school are eventually prone to continue in the same vein in a university (e.g. Clariana et al., 2012; McCabe, Trevino, & Butterfield, 2001; Sisti, 2007; Sureda-Negre et al., 2015) and even in the workplace (e.g. Markus, 2008). Therefore, the high school setting is worth investigating as that is where dishonest behaviour seems to manifest itself for the first time. Yet, the vast scope of scientific literature focuses on the university level while analysis of bad practices at high school level remains scarcely developed (Lai & Weeks, 2009; Nora & Zhang, 2010; Sisti, 2007; Sureda-Negre et al., 2015).

As Galloway (2012) pointed out, multiple studies have focused rather on learning goals, specifically with an orientation towards students’ behaviour. Research generally looks at individual factors like self-efficacy (Nora & Zhang, 2009), procrastination (Sureda-Negre et al., 2015), gender or school year effects (Clariana et al., 2012; Sureda-Negre et al., 2015), peer influence (Nora & Zhang, 2009) and others. However, the role of school in integrity management is less substantiated. A few studies show school as the worst educational setting in promoting integrity (e.g. Schab, 1991). Some arguments relate to the behaviour of teaching staff, such as poor pedagogy (Evans & Craig, 1990; Murdock et al., 2004), inconsistent instructions (Sisti, 2007), disregard of students’ cheating (Vinski & Tryon, 2009), drawbacks in enforcing the honour code (Vinski & Tryon, 2009), and incompetence (Clariana et al., 2012). It is apparent that learning about bad practices and their effects is not merely the responsibility of students, but also of teaching staff (Murdock et al., 2004). Furthermore, it remains unclear how school managerial staff overcome students’ bad practices. Taking into consideration the gap in understanding of integrity management in high school, this paper aims to analyse how high schools frame and deal with student integrity issues.

The organisation of this paper begins with the literature review on the role of teaching staff and managerial staff as internal stakeholders in integrity management at high schools, and continues with research findings based on high school policy documents. Finally, the paper ends with a discussion and conclusions.
**Teaching Staff**

Although teachers show a more advanced understanding of dishonest behaviour and its types, they potentially underestimate the scale of integrity issues in high school (Evans & Craig, 1990). The evidence of this is the study by Crawshaw (2015) who examined the literature on high school teachers’ perceptions on student misbehaviour from 1983 to 2013. He found out that teachers listed cheating as the most serious misbehaviour; however, this was mentioned in only two out of ten papers and appeared towards the end of the list. Therefore, their underestimation may result in a deficiency of ethics infrastructure in high school, of which they are an integral part. As Lai and Weeks’s (2009) study shows, although the majority of students had a good understanding of plagiarism and reported that schools had policies on plagiarism, and that teachers discussed plagiarism issues with them, there were still about one-third of respondents who could improve their behaviour if they had a better understanding of plagiarism. Furthermore, the pedagogical competence of teachers is linked to acceptability of cheating (Murdock et al., 2004), i.e. deficiencies in their pedagogy allow students to normalise their dishonest behaviour. Moreover, teachers’ tolerance of cheating can be identified, particularly when students join together to bully another student who has reported an instance of cheating (Högberg, 2011). In addition, teachers’ understanding of and competence in the latest technologies may succeed in promoting acceptable practices among students and addressing emerging issues (Sisti, 2007).

**Managerial Staff**

While a variety of prevention programmes are carried out during the first years of university, they do not extend downwards to the last years of high school (Clariana et al., 2012). Evans and Craig (1990) found that schools do not have effective integrity management. The main reason for this is a patchy ethics infrastructure where diverse means exist, but they are disconnected and inconsistent. Obviously, some flaws occur, such as the scepticism of teachers, student hesitation in reporting to teachers, fear of reprisal, and so on (Evans & Craig, 1990). In addition to this, dishonest school administration practices emerge and they recalibrate the understanding of the school’s internal stakeholders – students and teachers – about role models and a teacher’s professional prestige (Schab, 1991). Paradoxically, school administration is seen as one of the key stakeholders in integrity management (Dickerson, 2007), while its own behaviour is sometimes questionable.

A need for clarity on school policy regarding bad practices while targeting the whole school community is also noticeable (Lai & Weeks, 2009; Sisti, 2007; Williamson & McGregor, 2011). A study of the websites of 348 schools in New Zealand
revealed that only 29 of them have some information on plagiarism, but this is of limited scope, i.e. plagiarism refers to copyright issues rather than academic dishonesty (Lai & Weeks, 2009). Williamson and McGregor (2011) stress that “the problem of plagiarism would persist, despite the efforts of individual staff, unless a whole-school policy were adopted across all years and implemented and reinforced by all staff” (p. 17). Likewise, McCabe et al. (2001) conclude that cheating in educational institutions must be addressed primarily at institutional level.

**Methodological Approach**

**Data Collection**

Our target group consisted of 50 high schools (gymnasiums) located in the city of Vilnius, Lithuania. Gymnasiums are attended by senior students whose age ranges from 16 to 18. The list of gymnasiums was downloaded from AIKOS, an official national database of open vocational information, counselling, and guidance systems. For this study we focused on public gymnasiums, 32 in all. Some of them are involved in the network of Schools of Integrity, an initiative of Transparency International Lithuania. This initiative reports that in Vilnius 8 out of 32 public gymnasiums joined this network, while no private gymnasium was identified.

We screened the websites of the gymnasiums and collected publicly-available policy documents related to school life. In total, we identified 136 documents that could potentially be linked to integrity management. We carried out the data collection in January and February 2018.

We found a myriad of policy documents where the (un)desirable behaviour of students was covered to some extent. Nevertheless, most documents under investigation relate to general management of school life. Schools do not consider “integrity” or “ethics” as part of overall performance management. Among the documents identified were such as gymnasium statutes, attendance regulations, regulations on evaluation of progress and achievements, rules of students’ conduct, regulations on bullying prevention and intervention, rules for papers and other projects, and library rules (including rules on the use of computers and the internet). These policy documents are just one component of gymnasium ethics infrastructure.

Codes of ethics are not a common occurrence in gymnasiums. However, we identified two codes of ethics, applied only to employees, and two codes of ethics applied to students. Three gymnasiums did not publish any document on their websites related to integrity management.
Data Analysis

We thoroughly analysed each document by looking for links to integrity management. For this purpose, we used qualitative content analysis, namely, a manifest approach where codes were considered as visible and obvious content of the text (Bengtsson, 2016; Cho & Lee, 2014). The excerpt-based data were processed in tabular form with sections such as: title of gymnasium; title of document; form of misbehaviour; definition of misbehaviour, and procedures related to prevention and intervention. However, we refined the list of policy documents by opting for the most appropriate documents on integrity management: rules for students’ conduct; regulations on evaluation of progress and achievements; rules for papers and other projects; and library rules. Initially, we also considered gymnasium statutes as credible and core documents for gymnasium functioning; however, not all of them clearly address integrity or ethics in their mission, values or other provisions in relation to students’ behaviour. Furthermore, most schools have separate emphasis (and documents) on (non)attendance policies (praising high attendance and preventing or penalising low attendance); bullying prevention; and the use of alcohol and other substances. The latter documents were omitted from the data analysis as being irrelevant.

Limitations

Two limitations are worth noting. First, no periphery-located gymnasiums were examined when, presumably, they could show more diverse practices on integrity management. Second, documents only publicly available on gymnasium websites were included in the data analysis; therefore, if we could have had access to complete collections of policy documents, it could potentially unfold a full-scale understanding and practice. Nevertheless, quantitatively and qualitatively, we assumed that the public nature of policy documents mirrors the stance of gymnasiums towards stakeholders (e.g. parents, entrants).

Research Findings

Here we present the research findings, ranging from general students’ duties and restraints to other more detailed rules and regulations on specific matters.

Rules of Student Conduct

Rights, duties and restraints of students are mostly described in the rules of student conduct and, in a few cases, reiterated or mentioned in the rules for internal
order of the school and its code of ethics. We analysed foremost the first rules, as they provide more comprehensive information.

The main students’ duties related to their integrity are associated with behaving fairly and ethically, or learning and completing assignments honestly and on time as well as disapproving of others’ immoral behaviour. Some gymnasiums consider the correct behaviour of students as a contribution to the prestige of Lithuanian education. Meanwhile, gymnasiums link unethical behaviour to the use of bad language, gambling, public exposure of close relationships, gum chewing, fighting and so on. In the case of fights, penalties for students are expected to be in accordance with the national law.

Students are forbidden the unauthorised use of mobile phones (including the calculator function), earphones, players and other technologies during classes. Usually this restraint is outlined without any specification. Hence, as we can only assume that it potentially relates to prevention of dishonest behaviour, such restraint might be two-faceted. First, it is apparent that students should listen to what a teacher says during classes, so it encourages their learning ability through hearing. Also, it precludes disturbing other students from potential noises (e.g. yawning, unmuted ringing tones) when a student loses concentration. Second, it deters cheating (e.g. using audio-notes), particularly during tests.

If students use an unauthorised device, gymnasiums tackle this issue in several ways. In some gymnasiums a teacher confiscates the device, returning it after classes; and the student’s parents are informed. In other gymnasiums, a teacher confiscates the device and informs the student’s parents; but the device is handed to a director or social worker and only then is returned to parents. If such behaviour is repeated, the student is forbidden to have a mobile phone, earphones, or a player inside school. It could happen that a student may refuse to hand over the device: in such a case, parents are informed and the student is given an official warning. In addition, we found one case related to restraint in the use of illegal software.

Students are not allowed to spread information about a person via mass media or online social networks without that person’s authorisation. Furthermore, students are not allowed to conclude asset-based deals among themselves (e.g. to request money, other things or services from classmates) or to use the passcode of another user to login into e-records on grades, falsify official documents, or change records. It is very rare that gymnasiums explicitly state restraint not to plagiarise, crib or cheat (3 out of 19 rules of student conduct).

As mentioned previously, we found two codes of ethics that apply to students. By their structure they encompass general rules, rules regarding attendance,
behaviour during breaks and in corridors, canteens, reading rooms and cloakrooms. Essentially, such rules reiterate students’ duties and restraints, and they do not resemble codes of ethics in nature.

**Regulations on Evaluation of Progress and Achievements**

We identified 7 types of misconduct that have consequences for the evaluation of students’ progress and achievements (see Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Misconduct</th>
<th>Number of gymnasiums</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overdue repeated assignment (e.g. test)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Absence on day of test without reason</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of unacceptable help or means during tests</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cribbing</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overdue submission of a paper</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plagiarised paper</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dishonestly completed assignment</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is forbidden to use unacceptable help or means during exams, to delay submission of a paper, crib, or miss a test without a justified reason. Gymnasiums pay most attention to failure without reason to produce assignments (including delay). The requirement regarding unreasoned absence for exams has a potential role in preventing misbehaviour, i.e. gaining an advantage of pre-learning test questions from those who had faced them on the appointed day. In all such cases, a student is frequently penalised by 1 or 2 points out of 10. However, there are several gymnasiums that use a different strategy in managing such misbehaviour. Instead of negatively scoring the students, they are required to retake the test at an agreed time or to take a different test within the remaining time of the test on which they were cheating. Nevertheless, it is important to note that rules and sanctions related to cheating are outlined in a vague way, without any specification.

Some gymnasiums (1 out of 11) have a very specific instruction on students’ actions that can affect the evaluation score; that they be marked such as “incorrect” or “non-assessed”. For example, one is not allowed to write in other than a blue pen; handwriting must be clear; answers must be written in the required space; and offensive words, drawings or signs on an assignment sheet are penalised.
Rules for Papers and Other Projects

Several (10 out of 32) gymnasiums approved rules for papers and other projects that students are asked to deliver. These rules differ extensively, though they lack coherence. Some rules require providing a list of sources, but citation is not considered; other rules require making proper and well-grounded sampling (as a part of research conduct), citing, paraphrasing, listing used sources and following citation requirements. Some rules mention “originality” of the work without any explanation of what it means or relates to.

In some cases, it is specified that the in-text citation of pictures is compulsory whereas the same is not required for general in-text citation; and vice versa, when general in-text citation is required, no rule about in-text citing for pictures exists. Furthermore, there are single cases where general citation is briefly described or mentioned next to a requirement to provide the list of sources (e.g. “cited sources must be listed”); though no rules of citation are provided. Interestingly, in one gymnasium, students are reminded to follow the principle of integrity in a way that a project should not be suspect in terms of its authorship, and they are alerted about potential violation of the Copyright Law if they intend to do so. It is a very positive thing that such requirements do not remain formal and are implemented through evaluation, i.e. one evaluation criterion is about proper use of sources.

One gymnasium provides a rather extensive description of rules on academic writing (e.g. citation, paraphrasing, etc.) that are not consistent with evaluation criteria (e.g. no effect on scoring; no other sanctioning for breach of the rules).

Library Rules

Libraries provide consultation regarding finding the literature needed by students but pay less attention on how to use the sources properly in terms of intellectual property rights.

Library rules mostly refer instead to potential losses caused by students’ use of printed materials (e.g. books lost, damaged, or returned late) or devices (such as scanners or copy machines). Also, rules encompass the use of IT: it is forbidden to install any software, use computers for gaming, watch movies, navigate on sites that induce negative effects, distribute viruses, hack, stimulate violence, etc. In addition to this is a warning to follow copyright law. Should a student twice infringe library rules as regards the computerised reading room, this student is barred from access to the room’s services for a month or some other period of time. In contrast, gymnasiums encourage students to be conscientious regarding the timely return of borrowed books.
Discussion

The structure of gymnasium websites is quite clear; however, no gymnasium has a separate section on integrity, and only single clauses mention how gymnasiums cope with integrity issues. Additionally, we detected so-called clone documents (such as rules on student conduct, rules for papers and other projects) that were almost identical in different gymnasiums. This allows us to make the assumption that although gymnasiums make efforts towards the institutionalisation of integrity, the general attitude towards integrity is vague.

School rules and regulations appear to be asymmetric. To illustrate this, we provide a few examples related to the content of rules. School rules and regulations explicitly refer to legal liability regarding fighting, use of drugs or other psychotropic substances, but they do not refer to criminal liability imposed for misappropriation of authorship, or administrative liability imposed for contract cheating. Another example relates to asset-based deals in gymnasiums that refer to material assets while intellectual assets are not clearly considered, so contract cheating is probably allowed. Furthermore, we expected to find requirements for citations, listing of cited sources, and evaluation criteria in rules for papers and other projects as this is normal practice in an academic setting; unfortunately, these rules were mostly inconsistent.

Integrity management in high schools was considered ineffective some twenty years ago (Evans and Craig, 1990). Though our study did not seek to measure integrity management effectiveness in school policies, allusions to the stance of integrity management in Vilnius public gymnasiums are evident. Our study shows that the lack of (effective) integrity management inclines to dishonest behaviour in gymnasiums. As a rule, plagiarism and cribbing are matters between the teacher and student without the involvement of managerial staff. Moreover, negative scoring is the most frequent solution when ethical infringements occur, whereas universities impose the most severe penalty: expulsion. Although sanctions in both organisational settings differ and are imbalanced, endeavours to take an educational approach are highly limited. Yet, we stress that an educational approach ought to be continuous from high school to university, and the potential of librarians in assisting students concerning intellectual property rights could be better exploited.

Conclusions

A position on integrity management is under development in Vilnius city gymnasiums despite the fact that they demonstrate high achievement in educating students in comparison with periphery-located gymnasiums. Our study reveals
that the lack of consistency in integrity management paves the way to misconduct in gymnasiums that consequently transcends to the university setting. Therefore, it is problematic to make prevention and intervention in university settings in the absence of a clear understanding about the roots of the misconduct.

References


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Micro-Level Policies and Practices Regarding Plagiarism in Advanced Reading and Writing Courses in Turkey

Abstract: A growing body of literature shows that plagiarism has become widespread student behaviour at tertiary level. Here, we report on a small-scale qualitative research study regarding academics’ individual policies against plagiarism and their gate-keeping practices and behaviour in a year-long, compulsory “Advanced Reading and Writing” course at pre-service English language teacher course in Turkey. Five academics from five different universities participated in the study. The data were collected via document analysis and an online survey and submitted to inductive content analysis. The document analysis of the course syllabi revealed that there are no plagiarism statements, warnings or possible repercussions of unethical conduct, or an explicit section allotted to Academic Integrity as part of the content. As for the findings of the survey study, three major themes were identified: awareness on plagiarism, individual policies, and departmental awareness and policies. The findings indicate that the academics have a similar understanding of plagiarism and they pay attention to it. However, they have different practices in terms of detecting and preventing plagiarism due to not having similarity-detection software, the high number of students taking the course, and lack of institutional/departmental awareness. Finally, there are no departmental written policies or guidelines to prevent or manage academic misconduct. Thus, institutional, departmental and individual policies need to be clarified to make students aware of this issue and avoid it.

Keywords: academic dishonesty, academics, advanced reading and writing course, micro-level policies, plagiarism

Introduction

Academic dishonesty involves cheating, fabrication, facilitation of supporting academic dishonesty and plagiarizing someone’s work intentionally or unintentionally (Law, Ting, & Jerome, 2013; Simpson, 2016). Student academic dishonesty

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also refers to any behaviour that breaks stated policies to gain advantage over others in school or academic contexts (Bayaa Martin Saana, Ablordepey, Mensah, & Karikari, 2016). Due to the availability of technology able to reach scholarly works and the information needed on any subject, the rates of academic dishonesty are reported to be on increase (Eret & Gokmenoglu, 2010; Howard, Ehrich, & Walton, 2014; Perry, 2010; Teeter, 2015), which leads to a decline of academic integrity (Kisamore, Stone, & Jawahar, 2007; Stabingis, Šarlauskienė, & Ėpeaitienė, 2014), which refers to ethical policies to be followed by students and academics in educational contexts (Macfarlane, Zhang, & Pun, 2014).

Of the types of academic dishonesty, plagiarism is a crucial area of concern in higher education given the increasing number of instances of plagiarism among university students. Although a number of definitions exist in the literature, plagiarism is commonly regarded as “literary theft” (Eret & Gokmenoglu, 2010; Mavrinac, Brumini, Bilić-Zulle, & Petrovečki, 2010), stealing or appropriation of someone’s work or ideas (Teeter, 2015), or fraud in the form of copying or borrowing the work of others without their consent (Poorolajal, Cheraghi, Doosti Irani, Cheraghi, & Mirfakhraei, 2012). Although there are a number of reasons for student plagiarizing, among the most obvious are accessibility of the internet, abundance of web-based sources, lack of student responsibility in fulfilling the requirements of academic life, motivation and the teacher factor (Šprajc, Urh, Jerebic, Trivan, & Jereb, 2017). Academics’ attitudes towards plagiarism, their gate-keeping behaviour and principles, namely, micro-level policies regarding academic dishonesty, are among the most significant factors in prevention of students’ plagiarizing. Thus, how instances of academic dishonesty are treated by academics plays a significant role in preventing students from committing plagiarism-related activities.

Instances of plagiarism in the writing tasks of foreign language students in higher education are reported to be common since learners often lack competency in language, cognitive domains and socio-cultural aspects to successfully complete any given task (Barkaoui, 2007; Hyland, 1990). As a result, they tend to look for ready-made texts available on the internet and use parts of them in their writing.

In the context of this study, on the Advanced Writing and Reading (henceforth ARW) course offered compulsorily in pre-service English language teacher education in Turkey, students are required to complete assignments including different types of academic writing. Though not many, the few studies on plagiarism encountered among pre-service English language teachers have shown that it is a widespread and a serious offense and that academics also share the responsibility for preventing plagiarism (Razi & Pektaş, 2017). Therefore, there seems to be an
urgent need to examine academics’ individual policies regarding plagiarism as well as understand whether these policies are supported by departmental rules and regulations.

**Plagiarism and Ways to Prevent It**

In its broadest sense, plagiarism stands for any activity of intentional or unintentional passing off another person’s work and idea gathered either from the internet, published documents or from another person as one’s own without acknowledging the source or asking the consent of the author (Fish & Hura, 2013; Jones, 2001; Perry, 2010; Pickard, 2006; Wilkinson, 2009). In fact, in most cases it is thought of as a moral issue violating copyright and academic integrity (Howard et al., 2014; Law et al., 2013; Mavrinac et al., 2010; Wilkinson, 2009); thus, any kind of plagiarism conducted either by students or academics is taken as a serious offense (Sarlauskiene & Stabingis, 2014). What constitutes the most-frequently encountered incidences of plagiarism is assignments handed in by students (Fish & Hura, 2013; Howard et al., 2014; Moten, 2014). However, it should be noted that plagiarism appears in a number of forms both in academic papers and student assignments.

Plagiarism may be conducted in different ways intentionally or unintentionally and the most common types are appropriation, patch writing, and self-plagiarism (Sarlauskiene & Stabingis, 2014; Howard et al., 2014). In appropriation, the entire or some parts of pre-written sources (verbatim) or intellectual property are presented as if one’s own without giving any citation or proper credit (Habibzadeh & Shashok, 2011). The copy-and-paste form of plagiarism from the internet or different written sources is quite common among types of plagiarism given the availability of ready texts, articles and essays on a specific topic (Poorolajal et al., 2012). In terms of internet sources, downloading and presenting a text partly or fully or buying, commissioning and utilizing it as one’s own without quotation or citation is among the common copy-paste plagiarism acts (Jones, 2001). In patch writing, on the other hand, either because of poor paraphrasing skills or poor quoting and citing, the authors replace some words with their synonyms while keeping the main structure almost the same (Fenster, 2016; Teeter, 2015; Wilkinson, 2009). Rogerson and McCarthy (2017) even claim that a number of software programs such as word processing programs or dictionaries and websites help authors to paraphrase texts found in the internet environment, thus promoting patch plagiarism. Lastly, self-plagiarism refers to presenting or publishing one’s previously published work and data as new, or segmentation of the same data to produce more texts (Mavrinac et al., 2010; Sarlauskiene & Stabingis, 2014).
Also, plagiarism may be supported by colleagues or friends either by ignoring it or presenting a work of collaboration with others as one's own.

Given the significance of plagiarism as a serious offense detrimental to integrity in the academic world, ways to prevent students from the act of plagiarizing constitute a greater challenge for both academics and institutions in the academic world. It is certain that the spread of plagiarism among university students calls for urgent attention in higher education (Bayaa Martin Saana et al., 2016) since it can be controlled and minimised by carefully-defined institutional and departmental policies as well as academics’ own procedures and efforts in their courses. As Pickard (2006) states, finding ways to prevent plagiarism requires a holistic approach incorporating all stakeholders and stages from curriculum development to administrative policies.

One of the most effective ways of minimizing or preventing plagiarism is teaching how to credit the source (Poorolajal et al., 2012). However, it is generally agreed that in most cases students are reported to have lack of information and awareness about what kind of behaviours are accepted as plagiarism, in addition to experiencing difficulties in giving proper citations and referencing (Dias & Bastos, 2014; Jones, 2001). Thus, as suggested, institutions and academics should cooperate to establish policy frameworks of what constitutes plagiarism, including its definition and plagiarism prevention procedures (Sarlauskiena & Stabingis, 2014). Students should be informed about honest behaviour and requirements in submitting assignments or academic studies depending on the course offered. Penalties for plagiarism such as failing a course or other disciplinary precautions should be highlighted for students clearly (Jones, 2011).

Considering the significance of plagiarism and ways to prevent academic misconduct, studies mostly focus on students’ perspectives related to plagiarism (Bayaa Martin Saana et al., 2016; Fish & Hura, 2013; Perry, 2010; Sarlauskiena & Stabingis, 2014; Simpson, 2016). However, studies regarding academics’ perceptions of plagiarism and their individual approaches to it are quite limited. This study therefore focuses on academics’ perceptions of plagiarism and their gatekeeping practices on an Advanced Reading and Writing (henceforth ARW) course and departmental policies in various universities of Turkey under the following research questions:

1. What are academics’ perceptions of plagiarism?
2. What policies do they follow in the ARW course in terms of plagiarism?
3. Are there institutional and departmental policies defining and supporting academics’ micro-level policies?
Methodology

The research was designed as a small-scale qualitative study. To explore academics’ views and practices against plagiarism at course level, an online survey was created and sent to lecturers teaching the ARW course in departments of English Language Teaching in various universities across Turkey. The online survey, which consisted of 23 questions, had four parts covering participants’ demographic data, personal and academic information, departmental and institutional policies, their perceptions of plagiarism, and their practices for preventing it. Additionally, document analysis was utilised for investigating the participants’ course syllabi, and departmental and institutional policies. For analysis of the documents, the academics’ course syllabi and web-pages of the English Language Teaching departments and their faculties were carefully analysed.

Participants of the Study

A total of 5 academics (3 male, 2 female) from 5 different universities in Turkey took part in this study. Universities in the west part of Turkey were selected for the study as they were within reasonable travelling distance. A greater number of lecturers in the department of English Language Teaching were sent the form for data collection; however, only the 5 academics who responded were included. It is worth noting here that these 5 members together teach the ARW course to nearly 300 students. Among the participants, 4 were Asst. Professors and one was a lecturer. The average length of teaching experience of the participants was 15 years while years of experience as a teacher educator were found to be 11 on average. Additionally, the participants had been giving the Advanced Reading and Writing course in the department of English Language Teaching for 8 years and this indicates that participants were experienced in teaching the course.

Data Analysis

The qualitative data were analysed through inductive content analysis to identify common categories and themes. The authors of the study worked on the collected data and first classified repeated and recurring themes and categories separately. For the purpose of reaching an agreement on the classified themes and categories, they then debated any conflicting themes and later merged all the analysis together to confirm the initial and subsequent analysis of the data. As Bengtsson (2016) states, this method of applying content analysis is the one most commonly used in analyzing qualitative data, ensuring validity and reliability.
Findings

The findings of each research question are reported below and the participants were coded as A1 to A5 in the tables of themes and categories.

Findings Related to Academics’ Perceptions of Plagiarism

In the survey, the academics were asked how they defined plagiarism, the significance of plagiarism-related activities, and whether they paid attention to student assignments from the perspective of plagiarism. Analysis of the data yielded 5 major categories grouped under two overarching themes: definitions of plagiarism and reasons for plagiarism (see Table 1).

The participants in the study perceived plagiarism as mainly stealing someone’s written text or copying the sentences of others. To illustrate, A1 stated “…it is cheating and copying someone’s written text or sentences partly or wholly as if his own”. Similarly, A3 expressed that “[Plagiarism is] copying the sentences of others (authors, other students), giving the impression that you wrote it.”

Among the participants, two of the academics (A2 and A5) explained plagiarism as being the issue of giving improper or no citation to sources utilised. For example, A5 defined it as “presenting others’ work, ideas, and statements without acknowledging them or giving credit, as if all those ideas and sayings originated from themselves.” while A2 saw it as “using other people’s ideas and work without citing properly”. Thus, it is clear that the participants all agreed upon what constitutes plagiarism and defined it as stealing or copying others’ written work without giving proper citation.

Table 1: Academics’ Perceptions of Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes &amp; Categories</th>
<th>Participant code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definitions of plagiarism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stealing and copying</td>
<td>A1, A2, A3, A4, A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor/No citation</td>
<td>A2, A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons for plagiarism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of awareness/knowledge</td>
<td>A1, A2, A3, A4, A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Course/Assignment difficulty</td>
<td>A1, A4, A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of academic culture</td>
<td>A2, A4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the reasons for student plagiarizing, three categories were identified, as “lack of awareness or lack of linguistic knowledge”, “course difficulty or assignment difficulty” and “culture”. According to the participants, one of the main reasons for students’ plagiarism is their lack of awareness of plagiarism, and even if they are
aware of its significance, their lack of knowledge related to proper paraphrasing makes them inclined to plagiarise. Regarding this, A5 stated that “…lack of familiarity with research itself, research paper writing conventions, and lack of awareness in such ethical issues… These are the main reasons for plagiarism”. Similarly, A3 attributed the causes of plagiarism to a lack of linguistic knowledge by saying; “….even if they want to cite properly, they cannot do so because they don’t know how to paraphrase a given sentence…”

The second reason stated as a cause of plagiarism is “course/assignment difficulty”. The mismatch between the students’ level of English or their writing skills and the assignment was reported to be a problem. To illustrate, A1 responded: “Students plagiarise because writing topics may be difficult for them. Generally, I try to find easier topics in their major (ELT/teaching) to write”. Similarly, A4 also explained that students tended to copy things on the net because the course was difficult for them, saying:

Students plagiarise because they cannot produce a coherent text and they do not like writing because it is a burden for them. They do not have the background or any information about the topic. The course is difficult for those who try to write for the first time, so they copy something on the net.

Finally, “academic culture” in the Turkish context was perceived as a reason for plagiarism by two of the participants (A2, A4). Having no policies for preventing and detecting plagiarism, or receiving no punishment for appropriation of others’ work in the current academic culture at all levels of education in Turkey, was stated as indicators of this culture. A2 expressed that “In Turkish culture, students see such examples and no punishment is given in such cases. Thus, they show no respect for ideas in the culture… even professors do it.” In a similar vein, A4 reported that “previous habits at high school or secondary school cause plagiarism; they are not aware of plagiarism itself, let alone the notion of plagiarism.”

Findings Related to Academics’ Policies and Practices to Avoid Plagiarism

The survey form asked the participants a number of interview questions addressing various aspects of the ARW course such as course syllabus, assignment policy, and feedback frequency to help detect plagiarism. The participants’ written course syllabi were also subjected to document analysis to find out whether they had any specific modules on academic integrity/ethics and plagiarism, and any clearly stated policies regarding their approach to academic integrity and assignment rules. The analysis of the responses revealed their individual practices and policies, which were then categorised under three themes: course syllabus, assignment
practices and policies, with a focus on plagiarism, and their perceptions regarding barriers to implementing an effective plagiarism avoidance strategy (see Table 2).

Table 2: Academics’ Policies and Practices to Avoid Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes &amp; Categories</th>
<th>Participant code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Course syllabus</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modules on academic integrity/ethics</td>
<td>A2, A4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modules on how to avoid plagiarism</td>
<td>A2, A3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assignment policy and practices</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing feedback on citation rules and referencing</td>
<td>A1, A2, A3, A4, A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assignment policy including avoidance of plagiarism</td>
<td>A2, A4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integration of plagiarism into syllabus</td>
<td>A2, A4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Barriers to implementing a plagiarism avoidance strategy</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of software</td>
<td>A1, A3, A5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crowded Class</td>
<td>A1, A5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Firstly, all participants reported assigning students at least 5 written assignments per term, which included writing process-oriented paragraphs and essays. Additionally, two of them (A2, A4) reported requesting students to write research reports. Despite this intensive assignment load, analysis of the data showed that only 2 participants had a module on academic integrity and teaching strategies to avoid plagiarism. For example, A2 stated: “I focus on academic integrity and lecture on avoiding plagiarism and contract cheating. I also make use of similarity reports. I also teach the rules of in-text citations in the fall semester whereas I deal with writing reference lists in the spring semester”. A4, the other participant who had a module on the related issues, explained: “I give the definition of the concept and its importance is emphasised in one module at the beginning of the fall semester. As for avoiding plagiarism, direct-indirect quotations are exemplified.” One of the academics (A5) stated that “This issue is explained in Research classes, not in the ARW classes. But sometimes I give some information about how to cite, quote, etc.”

As for assignment policies and practices, it was found that all participants gave feedback on assignments while four of them did this after task completion (A2, A3, A4, and A5). They also stated that students are expected to make revisions and edit all written assignments after feedback including citing and referencing styles. In the event of plagiarism incidents, all participants reported giving feedback on plagiarism while giving feedback on the tasks. A1, A3, A4 and A5 stated that they returned students’ assignments for rewriting (A1), while A3, A4 and A5 also explained what plagiarism was and what the likely consequences of another incident
of plagiarism would be. One of the academics (A2) developed an “anonymous-multi mediated writing model” to prevent plagiarism in student assignments.

The findings revealed that the academics did not have an assignment policy that includes avoidance of plagiarism. Only one of the participants (A2) reported asking students to hand in their assignments via an online similarity-checking tool while the others collected them through e-mail systems or in class. A2, regarding this issue, stated that “students in the ARW course have to submit their assignments through similarity-detection software and to succeed on the course, students need to submit several drafts and the final version of their written assignment, in addition to peer review sessions”.

Finally, the document analysis of the written course syllabi of the participants also showed that only two of them (A2, A4) made clear statements regarding plagiarism in their syllabus. The statement regarding plagiarism of A2 is as follows:

Either accidental or intentional, there is no tolerance for plagiarism. You need to submit all your assignments through Turnitin and as the lecturer, I will determine the originality of your assignments by checking them against plagiarism. Please check departmental policy of plagiarism for further details.

Similarly, A4 integrated plagiarism into her course syllabus with the statement: “Plagiarism is strictly forbidden and will result in penalties leading to grade F”.

When it comes to barriers to implementing an effective plagiarism-avoidance strategy, the academics mainly emphasised lack of the necessary software to obtain similarity reports of the student assignments. Regarding this, A1 stated that:

I am aware of the significance of plagiarism; however, the university I am working at has recently been established and even the library is not in service. At the moment, no academics have been provided with plagiarism-detecting software. Even so, I am still trying to use other free-online software.

Another participant (A5), focused on the difficulty of dealing with plagiarism apart from checking and giving feedback on student assignments due to crowded classes. In this respect, she explained that: “I have 3 classes of the ARW course in both semesters and in each class there are nearly 40 students. All my time is spent reading students’ assignments and giving feedback. For this reason, plagiarism control is quite difficult for me.”

Findings Related to Institutional and Departmental Policies Defining and Supporting Academics’ Micro-Level Policies

To find out the institutional and departmental policies and practices related to preventing plagiarism at the participants’ universities, an online search was conducted
to reach written documents including such regulations and rules. Apart from this, the participants were also asked about their own departmental policies and practices in addition to their course syllabi to see if they included any statements concerning plagiarism and sanctions to be applied in the case of detecting academic dishonesty, either in the form of cheating or plagiarizing. The online search did not yield any written codes, regulations or sanctions on academic dishonesty at university or departmental levels. The participants also reported having no clear institutional and departmental policies/practices against plagiarism apart from their own individual efforts. Regarding this, one of the participants (A4) stated that “Unfortunately, … there is no policy in the department. They find such concepts like ethics “amateurish”. I just try it myself.” Similarly, emphasizing the necessity and significance of having a departmental stance against plagiarism, A5 expressed that: “I think a consistent Faculty/Department policy is of high importance. Many lecturers just ignore such things. Actually, many academics intentionally or unintentionally plagiarise. How can you expect such people to do something about plagiarism?”

Conclusions and Discussion

This study was conducted to understand how academics teaching Advanced Reading & Writing courses in the department of English Language Teaching across various universities in Turkey perceived plagiarism and what micro-level policies they followed in terms of academic dishonesty on the ARW courses, in addition to institutional and departmental policies.

The findings of this study show that the academics offering the ARW course in English Language Teaching departments in five different universities in Turkey have similar understandings regarding the notion of plagiarism. Yet, they believe students’ lack of awareness about plagiarism as an ethical problem, combined with cultural tolerance of such behaviour without punishment, contribute to high incidences of plagiarism events. In the literature, one of the significant components of plagiarism-related acts is viewed from the cultural perspective. The issue of plagiarism is regarded as a cultural phenomenon and depending on the cultural background of the students, the term plagiarism may be viewed as a serious offense in some cultures while in others it may be seen as matter of sharing (Hayner, 2009; Introna, Hayes, Blair, & Wood, 2003; Law et al., 2013). Therefore, it is possible to conclude that academic ethics need to be introduced to students in earlier stages of their education and all educators at all levels of education need to pay attention to instances of plagiarism in their students’ assignments.

The participants of this study also regarded plagiarism as stemming from students’ underdeveloped paraphrasing skills, which is seen to be related to their
low level of language proficiency in English. Writing in L2 requires students to possess morphological, lexical, syntactic, and grammatical knowledge in addition to awareness of proper text organization to produce various text types with appropriate discourse and meta-discourse features (Barkaoui, 2007). Thus, when students are challenged with tasks and assignments without taking their linguistic level into consideration, they may find it easier to plagiarise.

Related to individual policies in designing courses and assignments to prevent plagiarism, it can be concluded that the assignment policies of academics are not tailored to prevent plagiarism except in rare cases. However, the academics check the citing and referencing styles of students in their assignments due to the significance of the issue. At the same time, imposing no sanctions on students in the case of personal detection of plagiarizing also appears to be a significant conclusion of the study. Only a few academics warn students about consequences of plagiarism. On the other hand, unavailability of plagiarism detectors provided to academics as software by universities is seen as an obstacle to plagiarism detection. Academics also emphasise the difficulty of treating plagiarism with the care it deserves since checking the written assignments of students is a time-consuming effort together with giving feedback about the assignments.

Finally, although it is hardly possible to make any broad, far-reaching generalizations in the light of the findings of this small-scale study, it can be tentatively concluded that regarding both micro-level individual policies and practices and macro-level institutional and departmental policies/practices, awareness of plagiarism and having well-formed policies framing it in all aspects, from prevention to minimizing it, is far from being satisfactory given the current practices against academic misconduct.

References


Abstract: When we talk about the need for education in academic integrity, the implied recipient of such education is commonly students. This paper argues that to strengthen academic integrity, it is crucial to work with the faculty as well. Since 2014 a unit for pedagogical development at a Swedish university has conducted a project with the aim of enhancing knowledge of academic integrity. In 2014, a survey on academic integrity was sent out and the results were used to develop a new systematic, holistic approach with several new measures to promote academic integrity. The aim of these measures regarding faculty was to strengthen faculty members’ knowledge on academic integrity, to remind them of their duty to report cases of suspected misconduct, as well as to provide different tools and ideas to improve the academic integrity of their students. The undertaken measures have led to a noticeable increase in reported cases of plagiarism. In 2018, a follow-up survey was sent out. The present paper discusses this systematic approach to promote academic integrity, the measures taken, and the results of the surveys.

Keywords: academic integrity, good practice, plagiarism, skills development, train the trainers

Introduction

Academic integrity – a term that encompasses values like honesty, trust, fairness, respect, and responsibility (International Center for Academic Integrity, 2014) – is usually seen as the student’s responsibility, not the teacher’s; if a student plagiarises or cheats, he or she is ignorant or dishonest (Nilsson, Eklöf, & Ottosson, 2009).

However, if we want our students to know what academic integrity is, we have to work with our faculty as well (Bretag & Mahmud, 2016; Morris & Carroll, 2016). Previous research in Sweden emphasises the role of the faculty: “The teacher is the key actor in preventing and responding to plagiarism [...] and must
perform a wide range of functions: informing students about rules and policies, providing instruction in source-use skills, detecting textual plagiarism, deciding what response to it is most appropriate, etc.” (Pecorari, 2013, p. 100). The question is whether teachers have sufficient prerequisites for taking this role. A survey that was done at a university in Sweden indicates that many faculty members (23%) are not sure what can be considered plagiarism (Henriksson, 2008).

The purpose of this paper is to discuss different ways to develop the faculty’s skills regarding academic integrity and share the results from an ongoing project (2014–) on academic integrity at a Swedish university, hereinafter with a capital U. The aim of the Academic Integrity Project (AIP), carried out by the unit for pedagogical development, is to enhance the knowledge on academic integrity amongst students and faculty at the University.

The University is one of the largest public universities in Sweden with about 38,000 students and 6,000 employees, and with a focus on both research and education. Several strategies regarding academic integrity were used at the University prior to the AIP: the University library and several departments provided information on academic integrity on their websites, there were efforts to detect plagiarism using text-matching software (Urkund), and policies, an action plan, and procedures for reporting misconduct existed. However, there was no systematic and consistent approach to work proactively with students on the question of academic integrity.

Academic integrity research has noted a shift from methods that concentrate on the detection and punishment of misconduct toward approaches that focus on the preventive and pedagogical promotion of academic integrity (Bertram Gallant, 2008; Carroll & Zetterling, 2009; Ferguson et al., 2007). The research has shown that it is essential for higher education to develop a holistic and systematic approach where the whole institution is included in the process (Collins & Amodeo, 2005; East, 2009; East & Donnelly, 2012; Macdonald & Carroll, 2006; Morris & Carroll, 2016). Such an approach contains a variety of methods and measures.

The initial aim of the AIP was to create a resource on academic integrity for the students at this university, but the project soon evolved into a larger and more ambitious project of developing a holistic approach that would improve academic integrity amongst both students and faculty at the University.

A report that the Swedish Higher Education Authority (UKÄ) prepared on disciplinary cases regarding students during 2013 was published in 2014, i.e. just prior to the starting of the AIP. The report showed that officially-reported disciplinary cases regarding students in Sweden were consistently on the rise and
that the most common reports to the disciplinary boards were about plagiarism and data fabrication, with a dramatic increase of cases in the 2010s. It should be noted that it is still only a very small number of students (0.26% in 2014) that are involved in disciplinary processes (UKÄ, 2014, p. 5). The report, together with the information that was obtained from the Disciplinary Board at the University for 2013, showed that this particular Swedish university had remarkably few cases of reported misconduct. Rather than to simply conclude that students at this university did not plagiarise, the given hypothesis was that the reason for such a low number was under-reporting. One aim of the AIP was therefore to investigate this hypothesis.

Studies of plagiarism in Sweden show that certain types of academic dishonesty, such as lying in order to get preferential treatment and plagiarism, are common (Trost, 2009). The country’s view on plagiarism was examined 2010–2013 in the pan-European project Impact of Policies for Plagiarism in Higher Education across Europe (IPPHEAE) (Glendinning, 2013, 2014). Although based on limited data, Glendinning identifies several strengths and weaknesses in the Swedish system ranking the country 3rd out of 27 countries according to the academic maturity model (AIMM). As strengths, Glendinning identifies a nationally-prescribed policy for handling accusations of academic misconduct, an institutional panel system chaired by the university Vice-Chancellor, and the use of software tools. She also notes the weaknesses: inconsistencies between and within institutions about the extent to which academic misconduct and plagiarism cases are identified and recorded; a limited range of penalties available; and a system that might be viewed as overly bureaucratic further complicated by the requirement for academics to prove “intent” of dishonesty before a student can be penalised (Glendinning, 2014, p. 35).

Faculty generally find the process of confronting a student who has plagiarised demanding and stressful (Coren, 2012; Fontana, 2009; Sutherland-Smith, 2005; Vehviläinen, Löfström, & Nevgi, 2017). In a longitudinal study conducted in 2002–2005 amongst 12,316 faculty members, McCabe showed that 41% of the faculty acknowledge ignoring cases of suspected misconduct in their courses: “the primary reason they offer is the burden of proof required to prove a student has cheated” (McCabe, 2005, Table 1). The obligation to prove “intent” in cases of misconduct in the Swedish system “appears to compound the problem of under-reporting” (Glendinning, 2013, p. 12).
Method

The Academic Integrity Project consists of several phases. The first phase consisted of information gathering. As a starting point of the AIP in 2014, an examination of the perceptions of students and faculty regarding academic integrity was made by sending two parallel online surveys, one to each group. The aim of the survey sent to the faculty was to find out the faculty members’ views on academic integrity, whether there were some unreported cases of misconduct, and the reactions of faculty when seeing possible cases of plagiarism in a student’s work, etc. The results were used in the second phase of AIP to identify, develop, and implement a series of measures in order to enhance academic integrity at the University. The measures will be discussed in the results and discussion section. These measures were evaluated in 2018 in the third phase of AIP through a follow-up survey, as well as comparing statistics of reported cases of misconduct to the Disciplinary Board before and after these actions.

The Data

The first data set consists of the information that was obtained from the Disciplinary Board at the beginning of the AIP and is composed of the number of cases regarding plagiarism as well as the measures that were taken in 2013.

The second data set consists of qualitative data that was obtained through an anonymous survey that was sent out in 2014 in both Swedish and English to 3,118 faculty members – teachers, researchers, and doctoral candidates – in all disciplines at the University through an online survey tool (Webropol) using an e-mail list of most of the active faculty members at the University. It should be noted that the list has severe limits due to the fact that (a) it is not frequently updated, (b) many faculty members and doctoral candidates on the list are no longer active or do not teach at all (an unknown number of list members are researchers or doctoral candidates without teaching duties, retired, etc.), and (c) written exams and essays are not included in all courses, making the survey not relevant for all faculty members on the list.

A total of 392 faculty members responded to the survey (12.5% of the total e-mails sent). The answers were obtained from all eight faculties at the University and with an almost equal gender distribution (51.3% women, 48.2% men, 0.5% other), making it a very representative sample for the whole University. Faculty members who had answered the survey were very experienced: 81% of them had been teaching for more than 9 semesters, 15% for 3–8 semesters and only 5% for 2 semesters or less, once again making the sample representative of the University
as a whole. Although the survey was answered by faculty members from all the faculties at the University, a limited number of faculty members that answered might not be representative for the faculty as a whole.

In order to enable a comparison with the situation at another university, some of the questions were taken, with the author’s permission, and in a partially-modified form, from a survey that was made at another Swedish university (Henriksson, 2008). Several questions were free text questions to enable the participants to write freely about their views on academic integrity.

The first data set was followed by a third data set that consisted of information from the Disciplinary Board about the number of cases regarding plagiarism as well as the measures that were taken in 2017, at the end of this phase of the AIP.

The fourth data set consisted of a follow up anonymous survey that was sent in 2018 in both Swedish and English to 3,084 faculty members at the University through the same online survey tool as in 2014 and using the same e-mail list with the same limitations as mentioned above. The survey was a modified version of the survey from 2014 and was extended with several new questions in order to evaluate different measures that were made during the AIP as well as to identify the problems and needs that could be of interest for the next phase of the AIP. Several questions were open-text questions. The survey was answered by 419 faculty members (14% of the total e-mails sent) from all faculties at the University, with an almost equal gender distribution of 51.3% women, 47.5% men, and 1.2% other. The teaching experience of the staff was once again considerable: 83% had been teaching for 9 semesters or more, and only 6% for 2 semesters or less. Once again, the sample gained was representative of the University as a whole.

The relevant quantitative data from the surveys will be presented descriptively and graphically. The responses to the open questions in the surveys were analysed thematically and have been translated into English when given in Swedish.

Results and Discussion

First Phase of AIP

This particular Swedish university had remarkably few cases of reported misconduct in 2013: the Disciplinary Board treated 24 cases of possible misconduct. Half of these cases – concerned plagiarism (data set 1, see also Figure 4).

In the survey of 2014 (data set 2), the hypothesis that there were many unreported cases was tested through several questions, the first being whether faculty had seen signs of plagiarism in students’ work. The obtained answers showed that 81% of the faculty members (320 out of 393) indeed had seen such signs – 48%
had seen them at least three times. Only 90% of those that had seen the signs did something about it: 10% took no further action, ignoring the signs of plagiarism altogether. Plagiarism was established in 69% of the cases, 19% answered no, and 12% of the faculty did not know whether an act of plagiarism was confirmed.

Although the procedure for reports relating to suspicion of disciplinary offences at the University stated that all cases where an attempt to mislead cannot be ruled out must be reported to the Disciplinary Board (University of Gothenburg, 2011, 2015b), only 25% followed this procedure. The majority of faculty that had seen cases of plagiarism and did react, did it in some other way, thereby violating the ordinance procedure. In several cases, the work submitted by the student was failed (21%) or had to be completed (16%). 20% of the faculty selected the free text option “other”, where several of them stated the stress factor, the disadvantages of the Disciplinary Board system, the laborious and time-consuming process, as well as the problem of proving intent, as reasons to follow a different route from the prescribed procedure. In 18% of cases there was a discussion between the student and the faculty, the Director of Studies or the Head of the department, and further action was not taken. Disciplinary measures in Sweden can only be implemented if the misconduct occurred during an examination (“Higher Education Ordinance”, Chapter 10). Several faculty members noted that the plagiarism they had seen occurred in some other context (supervision, art, plagiarism of ideas, etc.) that are not punishable by the law, and that a discussion of the problem with a student therefore was a more appropriate measure.

A clear majority of the faculty members that answered the survey (78%), informed students about plagiarism (Fig. 1). Although the majority of faculty (58%) believed they had a good knowledge of plagiarism, 20% admitted to not having enough knowledge, while 22% did not know if their knowledge was sufficient (Fig. 2). The majority (60%) responded yes to the question whether they knew there is a common plagiarism policy at the University, 24% answered no, and 16% were not sure (Fig. 3).

Numerous ideas on how to enhance the academic integrity at the University were presented in a free text format:

*There might be a battery with some such small courses with self-correcting tests about what it means to write and study at the University. Now there is a lot of quiet knowledge among us teachers, and children of academicians can get knowledge from home, but that is harder to perceive for others. (Anonymous teacher)*

*The process when someone is suspected of having plagiarised is extremely labour-intensive for teachers and there should be more support from the University so that the rules are maintained. (Anonymous teacher)*
Free text answers indicated that the teachers perceived a grey area regarding plagiarism; several teachers stated that the boundary between plagiarism and lack of independence often is unclear:

*Plagiarism is not black or white. There are different types of plagiarism, e.g. patchwork plagiarism. (Anonymous teacher)*

**Second Phase of AIP**

The original two sets of data (number 1 and 2) were used to implement several measures at the University.

During the early work with the AIP, it became clear that the policy for prevention of plagiarism at the University was outdated. As a part of the AIP, the policy was revised with a larger emphasis on preventive work against plagiarism. Student misconduct was divided into two levels. Level 1 plagiarism entails cases of discrepancies in a student’s academic writing due to lack of knowledge, something that should be dealt with at departmental level, and includes an implementation of pedagogical measures. Plagiarism on Level 2 entails cases where a possibility that a student may be guilty of plagiarism with intent to deceive cannot be excluded, in which case, the case must be reported to the Vice-Chancellor (University of Gothenburg, 2015b).

The policy was supplemented with a new action plan for prevention of plagiarism following a holistic approach and a clear division of responsibilities between the department level and the university level and its different units: the University library, the Unit for academic integrity, the Unit for pedagogical development of faculty, and the Disciplinary Board (University of Gothenburg, 2015a). Regular meetings of the representatives from different university units in order to discuss different aspects of the work on academic integrity were also initiated.

The revised University’s Policy for the prevention of plagiarism emphasises the importance of “students and teachers having easy access to web-published, self-instructing programmes and guides that include practice components and possibilities of self-evaluation of one’s knowledge” (University of Gothenburg, 2015b). Therefore, as a collaboration of different units at the University, a net-based interactive self-instructing resource on academic integrity was developed. The surveys from 2014 were used as a basis for the content of the course. Since the faculty survey had shown uncertainties regarding their knowledge on academic integrity and the University’s procedures, one module of the resource was specially designed for the faculty. The objective of the resource is to illustrate what plagiarism is, how it can be avoided and what happens if one plagiarises, as well as to gather information on academic integrity and prevention of plagiarism in
one place. The target group for the resource is students and faculty who can use the course as support in their instruction and as a resource for skills development in the scope of e.g. university teacher training. In order to encourage and enable the use of the course as a module in other courses, students who have completed all components and passed all tests can get a personal certificate. The resource is placed in the Learning Management System with a link on the front page.

Information about the results of the surveys, the revised policy and the action plan, as well as the new resource, was presented in workshops and seminars on academic integrity, and at various faculty meetings in the departments. Details were also included about some particular types of plagiarism, such as contract cheating (Lancaster & Clarke, 2016; Newton & Lang, 2015; Walker & Townley, 2012), and patchwriting (Howard, 1995; Jamieson, 2016). The preventive pedagogical work including the design of assessments (Carroll & Zetterling, 2009), learning activities, and creating teaching moments (Gallant, 2017) was presented, as well as a reminder that faculty is obliged to report cases of misconduct. Departments and faculty have in turn informed their students about the resource, and in many cases included the resource as mandatory in their courses and programs.

Research has shown that one of the forums for the discussion of academic integrity could be university pedagogical training (Vehviläinen et al., 2017), something that has been done at the University where modules on academic integrity were included in several courses for the pedagogical development of the staff (i.e. courses in teaching and learning in higher education, courses for supervisors).

Third Phase of AIP

The survey that was sent in 2018 (data set 3) contained a similar set of questions as in 2014, but was partly modified and extended.

A total of 414 faculty members responded to the question whether they had seen signs of plagiarism: 52% had seen it more than 3 times, while 26% had seen it 1–2 times. 22% answered no. Of those that had seen signs of plagiarism, 4% chose not to report the plagiarism/cheating to anyone (compared to 10% in 2014), 32% reported the case only to the student, while 64% followed the University’s procedure of reporting the case to the person responsible at departmental level or directly to the Disciplinary Board. The question was adapted to the revised policy and procedure. While several faculty members in free-text answers still complained about the same factors as four years before (the stress, disadvantages of Disciplinary Board system, laborious and time-consuming process, problem of proving intent), there were nevertheless several positive comments:
It can be noted that a lot of work has been done over the past 18 months in central administration. Still, the process is unacceptably long from a student perspective. The information for both students and the department is now much better. It is easy to get answers from the administrators when you have questions. (Anonymous teacher)

It was several years ago and then I felt there was an uncertainty in the department about how the case should be handled. But it has evolved since then. (Anonymous teacher)

It was established that plagiarism/cheating did occur in 65% of the reported cases, in 19% the teacher did not know, and in 16% it was not established. In 48% of these cases, the case went through the Disciplinary Board. There were still cases of failing the work (13%) and completing it (9%) – a clear decrease from 21% and 16% in 2014. 11% chose “Other”.

A slight decrease can be noticed regarding the number of faculty members that answered yes to the question whether they informed their students about plagiarism in the context of their teaching compared to 2014, down from 78% to 72% (Fig. 1):

Figure 1: Informing the students about plagiarism

One explanation might be usage of the resource on academic integrity that was developed and to provide the information about plagiarism to the students. On the question of whether they used the resource, 25% answered yes, 67% no, and 8% that that it was not relevant to their work. Of those who did use the resource, 51% used the part of the resource aimed at faculty, 18% integrated it in their own courses, 35% mentioned it to their students, and 24% used it in some other way.
Compared with the 2014 survey, slightly more faculty members that answered the 2018 survey felt that they have sufficient knowledge on plagiarism, as shown in Figure 2.

*Figure 2: The faculty self-reported knowledge on plagiarism*

![Bar chart showing comparison between Survey 2014 and Survey 2018 on knowledge of plagiarism.](chart1)

Awareness of the existence of the common policy on plagiarism appears to be higher amongst the faculty members that answered the 2018 survey, compared with those that answered the same question in 2014 (Fig. 3):

*Figure 3: The university policy on plagiarism*

![Bar chart showing comparison between Survey 2014 and Survey 2018 on awareness of common policy.](chart2)
The information that was obtained from the Disciplinary Board at the University in 2018 (data set 4) shows that the overall number of disciplinary cases that were reported went up from 24 in 2013 to 79 in 2017. The majority of these cases, as well as those with the highest increase, were plagiarism cases, that went up from 12 (50% of overall cases in 2013) to 52 (66% of overall cases in 2017). The higher numbers in 2017 might be seen as a result of increased knowledge about misconduct amongst the faculty, including understanding of the reporting procedures, and awareness that the reporting of cases of misconduct is mandatory.

*Figure 4: Amount of cases at the Disciplinary Board*

![Cases at the Disciplinary Board](image)

The reported cases led to different outcomes (Fig. 5):

*Figure 5: The outcomes of cases at the Disciplinary Board*
The term “suspension” refers to a procedure in which a student’s actions are considered so serious that the student is prohibited for a certain amount of time (up to 6 months) from participating in activities within the framework of the university’s education.

The term “warning” refers to a disciplinary procedure where a suspension is considered disproportionate in relation to the offense. A warning does not imply any restriction on the student’s access to the university or the opportunity to acquire knowledge and complete courses.

The presence of warnings in 2017, but not in 2013, may point to the fact that a more nuanced view on plagiarism developed in agreement with the levelling of plagiarism in the revised University’s policy.

These outcomes might have been affected by a change in the composition of the Disciplinary Board, as well as the frequent discussions with other university units that work on questions of academic integrity.

**Fourth phase**

The Academic Integrity Project will continue at the University in the fourth phase by further improving the steps that were already taken, as well as implementing several new measures, e.g. a revision of the resource and the development of simpler and more standardised ways to report misconduct, etc. The ongoing discussion with faculty has led to several initiatives at the departmental level and within the framework of different courses and programs at the University; and these initiatives have to be evaluated and perhaps implemented on a larger scale. A follow-up student survey has also been sent to all students at the University to be compared with results from the student survey conducted in 2014.

**Conclusion**

Although universities in Sweden have done a lot to enhance academic integrity – by having policies for dealing with plagiarism, using text-matching systems, having different initiatives to educate students, and action plans to deal with cases of suspected misconduct – there is room for improvement when it comes to educating faculty regarding questions of academic integrity.

The Academic Integrity Project has shown that educating the faculty is a central part of creating a culture of integrity at the university. This approach to academic integrity shows the importance of integrating the discussion of strategies regarding academic integrity in courses for teaching and learning in higher education, in courses for supervisors, as well as in other trainers’ formats. The results of
this analysis show that the education of the faculty has a clear impact on their willingness to report cases of misconduct. The present study also gives additional information on the faculty’s views on plagiarism.

In the holistic model of work on academic integrity, we need to supply faculty with knowledge about academic integrity, develop their skills of teaching about it, teach them what to do when students do not meet the standards of academic integrity, and educate them how to deal with cases of misconduct. We have to train the trainers.

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Challenges and Solutions for Academic Integrity in Mass Communication Education in Pakistani Universities

Abstract: Diversity between disciplines demands different strategies to ensure academic integrity and enabling faculty, researchers and students to produce original academic work. The discipline of mass communication poses different challenges for academic integrity compared to other disciplines. In addition to writing research dissertations, students are also required to produce TV documentaries, short films and projects in radio, advertising and public relations to complete their degrees. These projects have audio, video and design elements. Innovative strategies are needed to ensure the academic integrity of these works. This study explored the challenges faced by faculty and possible solutions to deal with them. Twenty interviews were conducted with the university faculty. In their responses to the interviews, they proposed new approaches including inculcating a creative mindset, awareness of the need to do work hard, exhibition of creative work, formation of a creative data base, and encouraging enrolled students to perform in creative work. It is hoped that these ideas provide possible solutions to various challenges in ensuring academic integrity in mass communication degree courses.

Keywords: academic integrity, challenges, creative work, mass communication education, solutions

Introduction

Mass communication is a unique discipline due to various factors. It is connected to both science and arts at a maximum level. It demands expertise in language and literature as well as in physics and mathematics. It is related to literature because of its application in written journalism, scripts in drama and film production, and copywriting in advertising & public relations. On the other hand, it is linked to the pure sciences, especially physics, because of involvement of cinematography and lighting. The information revolution due to digital technology has made the discipline synonymous with information technology. The growth and advancement

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of IT depend on the foundation of mass communication. Google and Facebook have become the new modes of communication, from the interpersonal to groups, and reaching the level of mass communication.

Mass Communication educational programs have become one of the most important programs in universities across the globe. The implications of these programs from the micro to macro level are increasing due to the changing scenarios in politics, culture, the economy and technology. Among the political and ideological factors that have increased the significance of this discipline are included the growing wave of ideological conflicts in the world. That growing wave has given birth to challenges to maintain peace in the world. The terrorism and rhetoric of terrorist organizations have created a demand to take mass communication as a discipline with more seriousness and purposefulness. The security challenges created by terrorism and extremism have several dimensions and communication is definitely one of them. Mass communication is used to propagate messages of hatred and to create unrest in the community of nations. The mass propaganda designs of the perpetrators of hate and violence can only be dealt with by the strategic use of mass communication. The war against the terrorism is a psychological war wherein the most effective tool is mass communication. Other than using mass communication for the purpose of counter propaganda, it is being used in diplomatic endeavours for the purpose of lobbying and coalition building. The use of mass communication for the purpose of public opinion formation has taken a new turn and its significance for the purpose of peace building has increased considerably in recent years.

The growth of mass communication as an academic discipline is not only creating new opportunities, but also giving birth to new challenges. Among the challenges, ensuring academic integrity in the students is of growing importance.

Ensuring academic integrity among the students of mass communication is different than for students of other disciplines. The discipline of mass communication being taught across the globe includes dozens of specialised subjects; for example: theory and research, advertising, public relations, journalism, digital media, development communication, film making, international communications, media and cultural studies, etc. In Pakistan the following specializations are offered in mass communication degrees for Bachelor of Science (honors; four year program) and Master of Arts (two year program) and Master in Philosophy (M.Phil; two year program): Theory & research, print media, advertising & public relations, digital media, film making, development communication, and electronic media (TV & radio).

Among all these specializations, theory & research and print media are the only ones in which students prepare their dissertations / theses or final projects
in written form. The soft copies of these can be put through Turnitin and checked for plagiarism. The final projects / theses of all other specializations include works of communication design, video production, audio production, and other promotional material. The creative work is also accompanied by written reports; the size of the reports depends upon the nature of the specialization and the topic chosen in a particular specialization. Students completing their degree programs in advertising and public relations (PR) are required to do their final projects on advertising or PR or both. In advertising, the written work includes integrated marketing communication campaigns, whereas production-orientated work consists of television commercials, print advertisements, and below the line (BTL) promotional material including streamer, billboards, standees, bunting and other material. Other than these, media plans in the form of Excel sheets are also included in the final project. Similarly, specialization in public relations includes a public relations strategy paper whereas PR promotional material, communication tools and videos are creative products. Final projects in TV and radio consist of production elements (video and audio) and a written report. Written reports are made on the script and production details.

The literature about plagiarism and its various dimensions is mostly related to problem identification. Many studies tell us about the perceptions of students or faculty about plagiarism (Bull, 2001; McCabe & Trevino, 1996). Scanlon (2003) conducted a survey and found that plagiarism was a serious issue and most of the students reported that their peers did it; but interestingly, the results on self-reporting on plagiarism showed a lesser number of cases. Clough (2003) discussed various approaches to detecting plagiarism in text. He declared automatic methods better than manual methods for plagiarism detection.

Plagiarism in the mass communication specializations of radio, TV, advertising, film and public relations can be detected by a change in the style of working and creativity by the students. Bull (2001) found through a survey study that a change in the writing style of students was the best signal for plagiarism. Pennycook’s (1996) work on plagiarism is especially interesting. He described a relationship between text, ownership and memory and tried to draw our attention toward the cultural nature of plagiarism.

Pecorari’s (2001) research findings are also very interesting. She not only analysed the text of students but also conducted interviews with them. Her findings showed that plagiarism was not always intentional and an apparent similarity in the text did not mean that the author produced the text solely with bad intentions. Pecorari (2003) also pointed out the need to take extra care when declaring a written text a plagiarised version.
Ashworth, Bannister, Thorne and Students (1997) conducted research to find out the students’ perceptions about plagiarism. It was found that, at times, students are unintentionally trapped into plagiarism. It was also found that group dynamics in studies was one of the reasons that made students plagiarise their work.

Maurer, Kappe and Zaka (2006) stated that plagiarism control demanded strategies and tactics beyond the application of software. It cannot be controlled by checking the language similarities by entering the data in available software; rather it demands the expertise of experts and the creation of policies at the supra regional level.

The issue of dealing with plagiarism is different in disciplines in which creative work is presented other than in a written format. Mass communication offers similarities with these disciplines. Computer science is included in the list of such disciplines. Software development and the coding of computer languages for various purposes can hit the plagiarism. Liu (2006) stated that the availability of open source projects has made it easier to plagiarise software in computer sciences. He developed a new tool to detect the plagiarism. Similarly, the availability of an unlimited number of pictures, graphics, illustrations, and audio and video recordings has made it easier for the students of mass communication to fall prey to plagiarism. In countries like Pakistan the issue is more grave, as controlling plagiarism even in written dissertations is an uphill task. The situation is more complex in the case of mass communication specializations that involve design, video and audio elements. Therefore, this study was conducted to understand the difficulties and solutions of ensuring academic integrity in mass communication.

**Research Question**

What are challenges and solutions for academic integrity in mass communication education in Pakistani universities?

**Methodology**

Qualitative methodology of in-depth interviews was used in the study. A total of twenty (20) interviews were conducted. Purposive sampling was the method. Data was collected from the University faculty members who mostly taught and supervised in the areas of TV & radio production, advertising & public relations, and film studies. Universities were selected purposively from across Pakistan. Both public and private sector Universities were included. Interviews were conducted on the telephone.
Findings and Discussion

It was found that most of the faculty agreed that the discipline of mass communication offered different challenges from other disciplines when it came to ensuring academic integrity. Mass communication has emerged as a unique discipline with its own degree completion requirements. The assignments and projects completed by students not only contain written work but also include a design part and audio & video components.

It was found that Turnitin is not being used extensively by mass communication faculty to check the similarity index of the student's work. The faculty who teach and supervise in the areas of radio, television and film are not using it at all, but the faculty who teach and supervise in the areas of advertising and public relations use it in a sporadic way; i.e. sometimes they use it for the final projects, but not in the regular class assignments. The possible reasons for not using Turnitin are many. Faculty believe that they have enough experience of supervising the work of students over the years that they do not consider it necessary to use Turnitin for plagiarism checks. They were of the opinion that while supervising the work of students, they monitored the work very closely and students reported to them about the progress at regular intervals. Therefore, there is a continuous monitoring and checking of the work that precludes the possibility of any fake or plagiarised work on the part of students.

Many faculty members also said that they did not have personal accounts on Turnitin software and it was a hassle to use it from the library’s accounts in such a regular manner, which is why they did not use it for the students specializing in TV, radio, film, advertising and public relations.

Several faculty members argued that using Turnitin for radio, TV, film, development communication, advertising, and public relations projects was of no use because one can only check the written work, although that was only a very small part of projects / theses and assignments in these specializations.

Faculty said that there was a definite discrepancy among the different specializations of mass communication when it came to dealing with plagiarism. Usually, research theses are taken more seriously when testing for plagiarism and Turnitin reports always accompany them at the time of submission. For the radio, TV, film, advertising and public relations theses / final projects, Turnitin reports are not always required. It depends upon the discretion of the supervisor whether to ask for Turnitin reports or not. In the majority of cases, supervisors do not ask for a Turnitin report. For assignments, it is very rare that Turnitin reports are required. The reason for these discrepancies is the nature of projects in different specializations.
Responding to a question on the satisfaction level of academic integrity among faculty for the students specializing in theory and research and other specializations, the faculty said that they were satisfied with the research and theory and print media, but for TV, radio, film, advertising and PR they were not very satisfied. They said that universities took the issue of academic integrity very seriously and there was a high level of consciousness among the faculty when it came to checking the level of similarity in a student's research and creative work. They said that they had a method to ensure plagiarism-free work for research theses; but for other specializations, they did not have any standardized methods to ensure plagiarism-free work.

Faculty responded that at times students completing their degrees in radio, TV, film, advertising and public relations did take advantage of not having any standardized criteria for accessing the level of similarity in their work. These final projects mostly consist of design, video and audio elements. There is no repository or any database for such work that can make it possible to access the level of similarity in these works.

Faculty showed dissatisfaction over the measures taken by their respective departments and university administration to ensure academic integrity. The level of dissatisfaction was higher for the departments and lower for the universities. They stated that university administration kept on taking various steps to ensure academic integrity among faculty and students. Mostly, the central libraries of the universities play a proactive role in these efforts. At the departmental level, these issues are not discussed or debated at the level they should be. It was also found that faculty feel there is a need to take more steps in that direction because there is still room for produce plagiarised work that could be exploited. They also suggested that students must be made properly aware of the damage and insult that a breach in academic integrity may bring to them.

Responding to the question on the level of difficulty in ensuring academic integrity in class assignments vs. theses/projects, faculty were of the view that ensuring it was easier in final theses compared to class assignments. They said that the number of students in a class, the workload on faculty during the semester, the unavailability of resources and the absence of academic policies are main reasons that prove a barrier for the teachers to ensure academic integrity in class assignments.

Faculty gave a mixed opinion about the incidents of breaches of academic integrity they encountered in their academic routines. They said that occurrence of such incidents depended upon the level of students’ sensitization created during the initial semesters of degree programs. If students are sensitised well at the beginning of their degree programs, then they try to avoid plagiarism and work
with more academic honesty, otherwise they do not take the issue seriously and tend to be trapped in copy-paste routines leading toward plagiarism.

Most of the faculty was of the view that when they encounter such a breach, their response depends upon the level of work that was plagiarised. For class assignments and term papers, usually a penalty is not given and students are warned, guided and then made to revise the work. For final projects/theses, strict actions are suggested. Faculty also gave the opinion that usually students worked closely with their supervisors and cases of plagiarised work were identified at very early stages of the final projects/theses, and students were made to correct them.

Most of the faculty declared that plagiarism both a moral and an operational issue. They said that society was heading toward a moral decline and this was reflected in academic practice as well. They also said that plagiarism was an operational issue because of lack of resources, teaching and supervision workload and the dearth of innovative approaches to managing plagiarism made it difficult to deal with.

Faculty agreed that mass communication students were well familiar with the concepts of academic integrity, plagiarism and originality. Being in a discipline that requires a lot of creativity in written as well as audio-visual content, mass communication students are motivated to practice originality to create an identity for themselves in the creative sector after graduation, in the future. Students are educated that their survival depends upon their ability to make something new through their creative skills. They are discouraged from copying and being inspired by tried and tested formulas. They are educated that in the academic world, plagiarism is the biggest crime that could bring embarrassment to them.

Talking about the challenges that the academic community face while ensuring academic integrity, faculty responded that there were dozens of challenges that one had to overcome to keep the work of students pure from any plagiarism. The challenges faced by faculty included lack of resources, a discrepancy between the requirements to complete the degree in different specializations, the burden on faculty due to teaching and supervision workload, and lack of any systematic and standardised criteria to access the level of plagiarism in the work done in the departments of radio and television production, advertising, public relations and development communication.

Faculty suggested different methods to ensure academic integrity among the students of mass communication. These suggestions and techniques ranged from inculcating an enhanced moral obligation to developing innovative ideas to make the students bound to abide by academic integrity. Faculty proposed inculcating a creative mindset, awareness of the need to do hard work, exhibition of creative work, formation of a creative data base and encouraging the enrolled students to
create possible solutions to deal with plagiarism in mass communication. All these concepts and methods appear to be novel, and could help faculty to create a space for the mass communication discipline that is free from the pollution of plagiarism.

Faculty greatly appreciated the idea of establishing a repository for creative work done by the mass communication students in radio, television, advertising, public relations and development communication. They said that modern digital technology has made establishing such repository quite easy. In Pakistan, all the Universities are connected to each other in the form of a network through the bodies of higher education; that is why they can be asked to become a partner in this initiative. They showed hope that establishing such a network can also help in creating motivation among the students to excel further in their creative efforts.

Faculty said that creation of a moral strength within students that may draw them to remain within the boundaries of academic integrity could be the best possible way to ensure academic integrity. They highlighted the importance of creative mindset as a significant contributor in making creative individuals experts in their respective fields. They said that this factor could make students better learners in their academic lives and honest professionals in the future.

Conclusion

This study concludes that there is a need to adopt innovative strategies to ensure academic integrity in advertising, public relations, radio, TV, film and development communication programs offered in mass communication departments. The faculty should take the issue of academic integrity and plagiarism seriously. The possible solutions should address the issue both at the moral and operational level. Faculty need to take steps to form a database for the design and audio-visual parts of mass communication projects.

References


Appendix

Interview Questions

Q1. Does mass communication offer different challenges when it comes to ensuring academic integrity than other subjects in social sciences, arts and humanities? If so, then what are the reasons?

Q2. Do you think that Turnitin is being used quite extensively by the faculty to prevent plagiarism among the students? If not, what are reasons?

Q3. Do you find any discrepancy when it comes to dealing with plagiarism among the students completing different specializations in mass communication? Please elaborate.

Q4. Are you satisfied with the level of academic integrity among the students completing specializations in theory & research and other specializations?

Q5. Do you think that students completing their specializations (advertising, public relations, TV, Film, development communication) take advantage of the composition of their final projects, consisting of both written and production work?
Q6. Are you satisfied with the measures taken by your department or university to prevent plagiarism among the students?

Q7. Do you find assurance of academic integrity more difficult in final projects / theses or in class assignments, or in both cases?

Q8. How often do you find a breach of academic integrity among students you are teaching or supervising and how do you deal with them?

Q9. Is academic integrity a moral issue or an operational issue?

Q10. Do you think that mass communication students are well familiar with concepts of academic integrity, plagiarism and originality?

Q11. As a university faculty of mass communication, what are challenges that you face when it comes to ensuring academic integrity?

Q12. What are your suggestions to ensure the academic integrity among the students of mass communication?

Q13. Please tell us about your concept of establishing a repository of creative work completed by students of mass communication in various universities across Pakistan?

Q14. How can the concept of a creative mind set be helpful in making mass communication students abide with moral responsibility to ensure academic integrity?
Teaching About Plagiarism at Higher Education Level

Abstract: The aim of the survey carried out in this study was to find out how students at all 30 faculties of the University of Zagreb are educated about plagiarism. The content of codes of ethics was analysed and all courses that included issues about plagiarism were identified. The method used was content analysis of the syllabi at the University’s and faculties’ web sites. The majority of the programs (87%) do not have courses that explain plagiarism. Syllabi of 23 courses were analysed according to the following parameters: year of study, scientific field, whether the course is compulsory, which ethical issues are included (plagiarism, authorship, citations, etc.), and how old the latest bibliographic reference in the recommended literature was. It is necessary to enhance faculty programs at the University because today’s students are future scientists and authors. Finally, the basic content of a course about plagiarism is proposed.

Keywords: authorship, Croatia, ethics, plagiarism, research integrity, students

Introduction

Plagiarism is one of the three main manifestations of research misconduct (Bornmann, 2013). The other two are fabrication and falsification of research results; thus some authors use the abbreviation FFP (fabrication, falsification, plagiarism) when writing about research misconduct (Martinson, Anderson, & de Vries, 2005). Plagiarism is defined as using and passing off someone’s intellectual property (words, concepts, ideas, etc.) as one’s own, without giving credit (Hames, 2007). Credit can be given by proper citing of sources.

The Internet today gives many possibilities for students to plagiarise, i.e. to cheat, while writing their exams and assignments. The copy-paste practice is easy and can be done in seconds. In addition, many companies offer to write essays for students in exchange for money. However, the Internet also gives professors and mentors many possibilities to detect plagiarism. A much better solution is to prevent plagiarism and cheating by educating students – explaining principles of
professional and academic ethics and teaching them about information literacy that includes ethical use of information (Gilliver-Brown & Johnson, 2009; Webber & Johnson, 2000).

Students often take advantage of modern technologies to cheat by plagiarizing. It is easy and they are ready to take the risk of being caught. They have various reasons for doing so. Navarre Cleary (2017) gives the top ten reasons why students plagiarise. Some of them are: laziness, sloppiness, lack of confidence, belief that static knowledge belongs to everyone, they do not know how to explain other people's ideas in their own words, they are still learning, and they are used to a collaborative model of knowledge production. Also, they could be under pressure to maintain their grade point average (Spieler, 2012) in order to qualify for a college, job position or scholarship.

A survey of British universities in the academic year 2009–2010 identified 17,000 serious incidents of cheating, most of them cases of plagiarism. This number is 50% higher than four years earlier (Barrett, 2011). Based on the 2012 British Office of the Independent Adjudicator annual report (OIA, 2012), students very often cheat accidentally – they are not informed what is acceptable and what is not.

There are several options for universities to prevent plagiarism. They should implement at least some of the following (if possible, all of them):

- publish a code of ethics that includes an explanation of plagiarism and authorship, e.g. the code of ethics at New York University (2006) or the University of Birmingham (2013)
- publish guidelines for students and handouts, such as on the web sites of Middle Georgia State University (2018), the University of Pretoria (2008) or Vienna University of Economics and Business (2018)
- accept and recommend other institution’s guidelines, e.g. guidelines of the Office of Research Integrity of the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (Roig, 2015) or guidelines of the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (2018)
- introduce online courses and tutorials on their own web sites, such as courses at the University of Birmingham (2018) or Nuffield Department of Medicine (2018) at Oxford University, or recommend other institutions’ courses, e.g. online course providers such as Epigeum (2018)
- and the most important: implement compulsory courses into their study programs.
Research Aims, Methods and Sample

The aim of the research was to investigate how faculties at the University of Zagreb educate students about plagiarism. The University’s Code of Ethics was analysed; courses about plagiarism at the faculties were identified and their syllabi were analysed.

The largest Croatian university, the University of Zagreb, consists of 30 faculties covering all scientific fields. In the first part of the research, the University’s Code of Ethics was analysed to find out whether topics about plagiarism are mentioned. Also, the faculties’ web sites were analysed to learn whether they recommended the University’s Code of Ethics and/or if they published their own guidelines. In the second part, all the available programs at the faculties’ web sites were analysed. There are 310 programs at the faculties of the University of Zagreb. Syllabi of 245 programs were available online in December 2017. Twenty-six (10.6%) programs included at least one course that mentioned plagiarism-related topics (plagiarism, authorship or citation practices). Those programs have 23 different courses (some programs at the same faculties use the same course). The courses were compared regarding year of study, scientific field and whether they are compulsory. The literature was analysed to find out how old the newest reference was, since the topic of research integrity is evolving. Courses that deal with ethics in specific fields, e.g. experiments with humans or animals, and do not mention plagiarism, authorship or citation practices, were not included in the analysis.

The limitation of the analysis is that some faculties do not regularly update their web sites with information about the study programs. Therefore, some syllabi in the analysis might have newer versions that were (in December 2017) still not available online.

Research Results

University of Zagreb Code of Ethics

All Croatian universities have codes of ethics or similar pronouncements and all of them have at least one statement that explains plagiarism (Hebrang Grgić, 2014). The current version of the University of Zagreb Code of Ethics was published in 2007. It gives ethical rules for all the students and all the employees of the university. It has six parts and 41 paragraphs. The third part is entitled Ethical Rules in Educational, Scientific and Artistic Activities and has 14 paragraphs (paragraphs 14–27). Some of the paragraphs are about: professional duties in education, unacceptable practices in the teaching process, usage of people and animals in scientific research, fabrication of research results, falsification, etc.
The title of the 19th paragraph is *Plagiarism*. It says that all forms of plagiarising texts and ideas are unacceptable. All members of the academic community have to guarantee the originality of texts or artworks they authored. They also have to guarantee the honesty and accuracy of cited sources used in their work.

Authorship is not defined in the code, honorary and ghost authorships are not mentioned by name, but paragraph 19 says: “It is expected that authorship is assigned to all and only those authors who intellectually contributed to texts or artworks. Intellectual property of all the members of academic community has to be protected” (University of Zagreb, 2007).

According to the University’s code, the University has to establish an Ethical Board and faculties should establish Ethical Committees. The committees should act according to the University’s Code of Ethics. Despite the fact that faculties do not have to publish their own codes of ethics, some of them have similar documents (codes of ethics, rules or regulations).

Seventeen faculties publish the University’s Code of Ethics on their web site and another ten faculties recommend the code only by mentioning it on the web site. Three faculties do not mention either the code or any similar document, although being part of the University connotes the implementation of the University’s policies, including ethical ones. Ten faculties publish their own code of ethics: eight of them do not mention plagiarism, six mention citation practices, and one explains authorship saying that guest, ghost and honorary authorship is not allowed. The same faculty in its code explains that biased citation is not acceptable.

However, students cannot be educated about plagiarism only through codes of ethics. Sometimes students are not even aware of the rules. The first important thing is to make the rules visible and accessible through the University and faculty web sites. Only two faculties in the University of Zagreb have direct links to the University and faculty ethical policy on their home pages. All the other faculties should rearrange content on their web sites to make ethical policies more visible. In addition, shorter versions or guidelines for students would be helpful.

**Courses about plagiarism**

*Analysis of study programs*

Another important way of educating students is introducing courses about ethics and plagiarism in the study programs. Our analysis shows that 10.6% of programs at the University of Zagreb have courses that mention plagiarism and related topics.

We analysed the syllabi of all the 23 courses according to the following parameters: year of study, scientific field, if the course is compulsory, if it explains the main structure of a scientific text, which ethical issues it includes (plagiarism,
Teaching about plagiarism at higher education level

authorship, citations, etc.), and the age (i.e. year) of the latest bibliographic reference in the recommended literature.

Fifteen out of 23 courses are compulsory. That means that the courses about plagiarism are compulsory in 6.2% study programs at the University of Zagreb. Eight courses are in the first year of study (seven of them compulsory); 22 courses explain the structure of scientific texts, 17 explain citation practices, 10 mention ethics, six courses mention plagiarism, and three explain authorship (Chart 1). On the study program level analysis – courses in seven programs mention plagiarism (2.9% of all the analysed programs, Chart 2).

Figure 1: Topics connected with plagiarism in courses at the University of Zagreb

Figure 2: Study programs at the University of Zagreb including courses mentioning plagiarism in their syllabi
Twenty syllabi have a literature section and we analysed how old the newest reference is (Figure 3). On average, references are 10 years old. There are six courses where the latest reference is up to five years old. All the other courses use and recommend literature that is more than five years old. There are many new trends in the field and the recommended literature should be up to date. All the references on one course are more than 10 years old – the newest was published in 1993. Some of the courses are probably updated in practice, but the content on the web pages was not updated.

Figure 3: Number of syllabi with average age of references in the literature sections

![Bar chart showing the distribution of reference ages in syllabi.]

Examples of courses

The content of two courses will be presented – one at a faculty in the field of social sciences and another from a faculty in the field of natural sciences.

The first example is course entitled Academic writing, a compulsory course at a faculty of social sciences. It is compulsory in the first year of undergraduate study. Students have 30 hours during the first semester to learn about three topics – scientific style of writing, formal aspects of academic texts, and the content of academic texts. In the second topic, plagiarism is explained, as well as other manifestations of research misconduct, in order to prevent students’ future misconduct. The course consists of practical work – students have to analyse scientific texts and to express their own opinion precisely and in academic style. For the course, literature is not available online. (Faculty of Political Science, 2018).
Another example is a course at a faculty in the field of natural sciences. The course is entitled *Elements of scientific work*. It is compulsory in the fifth year (i.e. second year of graduate study). Students have 45 hours to learn about the main principles of scientific work, writing and publishing scientific papers, critical reading and data interpretation, scientific projects and scientific misconduct, including plagiarism. Sub-topics that are explained on the course are self-plagiarism, ghost authorship, journals’ retraction policies, writing services as dishonest practice and many examples are given. At the end of the course, there is an online exam. There are six references in the literature section: the oldest from 1978 and the newest from 2010 (Faculty of Science, 2012).

**In Conclusion: A New Online Course**

The number of courses that deal with plagiarism in the study programs at the University of Zagreb is extremely low. Although probably many professors and mentors mention plagiarism informally, it is unacceptable for a study program not to formally include the topic. Based on our survey, as well as on other earlier research and experience, ethical issues that should be explained in a course about plagiarism are:

- definition of the academic community
- how the community communicates
- definition of scientific journals
- definition of research integrity and research misconduct
- definition of ethics (professional ethics, academic ethics)
- definition of information literacy (academic literacy, ethics literacy, online literacy, open access literacy, etc.)
- definition of authorship and intellectual property
- copyright law – traditions and concepts (moral and economic rights)
- unethical authorship (ghost authorship, guest authorship, honorary authorship, gifted authorship)
- definition of plagiarism (and self-plagiarism)
- guidelines on how to avoid plagiarism including definitions and examples of:
  - citation practices
  - citation styles and systems
  - paraphrasing
  - footnotes
  - bibliography
  - self-citations
Such courses should be compulsory and at the early stage of higher education (in the first year of undergraduate study if possible, but also a wider aspect of ethics and plagiarism could be implemented in courses after the first year).

This concept is the basis of an online course that is being developed (March 2018) in cooperation with the University of Zagreb Computing Centre (SRCE). The course will be freely available in Croatian language under CC-BY-NC-SA licence (Creative Commons – Attribution – Non Commercial – Share Alike). Approximately 6 hours will be provided for finishing the course. The course will be available in Moodle (course management system). It will consist of three main chapters: Authorship, Plagiarism and Citing. The topics will be presented through text, quizzes and multimedia (e.g. animated schemes). The course will be recommended to all students and also to professors to include it in some of the existing programs.

Free online courses could be the basis for new and more detailed, compulsory courses. Free online courses are important for bridging the gap until new programs are developed and implemented at the University.

References


Plagiarism and Artefacts: A Phenomenon of Neglected Ethics

Abstract: Intellectual wealth has been appreciably protected in the modern era by WIPO, still keeping certain domains of creativity in oblivion. Artefacts are a primary source of past information, even those neglected by historians. This paper intends to accredit originators of artistic creations and to notify artefacts as a tool to detect intellectual theft in various fields. Innovation in art works, like the fourth dimension of Picasso, has its origin in the six-dimensional world represented in Muslim Miniature Paintings, but no one has ever pondered on it. Similarly, the initiators of certain scientific inventions are lost, and credence is gained by those guilty of plagiarism. This paper focuses on Muslim artefacts as an instrument to detect plagiarism in the field of art and other than arts. Through textual and formal analysis, Persian miniatures of the Abbasid and Safavid eras, along with architectonic ornamental motifs will be focused upon to divulge conclusions.

Keywords: artefacts, perspective, robotic technology, six-dimensional space

Introduction

Among all living organisms, only man is equipped with multifarious ingenuities that have engaged him in ceaseless creative endeavours bringing physical comfort along with aesthetic pleasure in his life. A social animal, he is famous for, developing rules to live in equity with his fellows which turned in modern times to protecting his intangible possessions, evolving into WIPO (World Intellectual Property Organization) in 1967, collaborating with 191 member countries. It is meant to safeguard immaterial property of the worldwide creative brains concentrating on all fields of scientific or artistic creativities to entrust authority to the real patrons, and also to safeguard against unfair competition.

In the aesthetic field, creativity and beauty along with extreme sensitivity work collaboratively, but are little less concentrated in measures for their protection, i.e. IPRs (Intellectual Property Rights). Artefacts and art works are powerful expressions of their regions providing first-hand information about their times. Because
the perception of artists is considered to be very penetrating, placing their creations in the category of chronicles of their times, their works can be utilised as tools to detect plagiarism of many sorts. The paper will pursue artefacts to scrutinise them for useful information about various facts. It is an exploratory research study based on the extrinsic and intrinsic analysis of artistic creations to certify originators in various artistic or scientific fields, and to add to the positive efforts of WIPO. Although, the subject is vast, but basis of Picasso’s 4th dimensionality, the roots of robotic technology, and of certain chemical formulas, along with the initiators of five-fold symmetry in the field of design, which will be focused upon most, along with certain other cursory references recommended for further research.

Spatial Dimensions

Pablo Picasso (1881–1973) is elevated for bringing about a radical break in the representational phenomenon of art by introducing a 4th dimension in his paintings, which was a deviation from the usual course. Artists had been trying since ancient times to perfectly capture the third dimension, that is, depth on the flat surface of walls, boards or canvases having only two dimensions, with length and breadth but no depth (Arnason, 1968, p. 13). They had been trying continuously to create the illusion of perfect depth through various means, and then enwrapped it within the guise of “isms” in the modern age. It was to associate novelty; otherwise their main goal was to chase the illusion of depth.

Viewing the annals of history, one finds that greater progress occurred in the Classical Greek era (5th–4th century B.C), and Renaissance (1300–1700 A.C), when artists viewed it in a mathematical manner through linear perspective, which made things mechanical, besides being artistic. Baroque (1600–1700) and Rococo artists (late 17th–early 18th century) tried to solve the problem through colours, that is, with the help of aerial perspective. A mixed stance was adopted by the Neo-Classical (1760–1830), Romantic (1770–1850), and Realist (1850s–early 19th) painters by focusing both on linear and aerial perspectives. A swift move was then taken by the Impressionists (19th century) who were keen to focus on rapidly-changing light effects. They were running after fleeting moments of light, ignoring altogether form and solidity of form, although they claimed to capture reality in its most perfect form. Cezanne (1839–1906), the Post Impressionist painter, tried out colours of the richest hue that, according to him, bring solidity to the objects, instead of infiltrating these with light or dark tones. Despite the variety of stances adopted by these artists, all of them were trying to create the perfect illusion of depth that is the 3rd dimension, until no one in the western world ever thought beyond it. Though spatial tension was introduced by Cezanne when he
promulgated the idea of stressing the use of colours in their highest frequencies, he too did not diverge from capturing visual truths.

Picasso, to the contrary, was the first to introduce the 4th dimension, so he is greatly exalted for breaking the customary stance and viewing the other side of perceptible reality. He is considered to be the forerunner of this tradition, because all agree that reality exists beyond human perception; for the reverse of the perceptible side of every object, in reality, exists too. If he painted a profile or isometric view of any face, the imperceptible side of the nose is also made visible by twisting it a bit towards the viewer, known as simultaneity of vision. Moreover, in places, he represented the continuity of moments as well, for instance, in his paintings *The Weeping Woman* (1937), and *The Girl with a Mandolin* (1910), instead of isolated time, the continuity of changing time is tried out by Picasso, which is considered to have no precedence. In *The Weeping Woman* one can feel the continuous sighs of the woman with tragic inhaling and exhaling of breath of pain, along with emerging and falling tears. Prior to this, the western critics extolled their art and artists for having the capacity to create illusion of depth, and made derogatory remarks about Muslim artists for being incapable of rendering depth (Papadopoulo, 1979, p. 52), allocating to Muslim Miniature Painting the title of craft instead of art.

On the other hand, third dimensionality does not appear to be the concern of Muslim artists; they were after six dimensions which is the actual reality of space, defined by ibn Sīna (980–1037) in his book ‘*Uyūn al-Ḥikmah*. He was of the view that a space having dimensions less than six cannot accommodate a six-sided object. There is no doubt that all objects, whether natural or man-made, have at least six-dimensions: front, back, left, right, top and base; the first four are relative and the last two are absolute (Nasr, 2007, p. 224). So, their placing can only be in a space having these dimensions, otherwise their locations would not be defined anywhere. It is logical to stand in affirmation with ibn Sīna for six-dimensional space instead of the three defined by westerners.

The perception of Muslim artists in this context, is exalted not to be disparaged, as has been done by those having limited or myopic vision. Therefore, six-dimensional space is the concern of Muslim artists. The fourth-dimension, in this context, is not a novelty to be celebrated, when a loftier stance has already been taken by another source, which is to be granted due credit. But it arouses another question, about how the human eye can see all six dimensions that do exist but only three are discernible at a glance. Contemplation for a solution to the pertinent problem involves making an analysis of mobile or circular perception versus stationary or rectilinear vision, approving the former. Rectilinear perception can view only three dimensions of space while circular vision can view an object from all sides.
Human perception is mobile too; one cannot perceive a location while fixing one's eyes on one point only. When a person is stationary, his eyes move around to view a scene, up and down, right and left. Perception of the camera is static, focusing on one point only while leaving the rest a blur. Though, the camera is based on the function of the human eye, the eye, being a living organ, does not completely work like a machine. Moreover, man views reality in its totality, while the man-made gadget has far less potential than living organisms. So, only mobile perception can view six dimensions of space, best explicated in Muslim miniature paintings, where not only the exterior view of any area is delineated but it is artistically combined with the interior and even beyond that, while subterranean chambers too, are made visible. It is a comprehensive portrayal of any of the localities portrayed.

Figure 1: Line drawing after the miniature painting: Life in a Town, from Khamsa-i Nizâmi, Tabrîz, 1539–43. Opaque water colours, ink and gold on paper. 28.3cm×20cm. Harvard University Art Museum. (Sketched by the researcher)

A very impressive specimen of six-dimensional space is rendered in the miniature painting Life in Town (Sims, Marshak, & Grube, 2002, p. 197) from Shah Ṭahmâsp's Khamsa-i Niţâmi (1539–43), fig. 1. Here, from inner to outer, right to
left, and top to the base of the town; each and every activity is rendered artistically through the mobile perception of the artist. At a glance one views the inside of the palace, pedestrians in zigzag streets with shops, the inside of houses, or terraces with a variety of activities. All is organised in such a way that the multifarious units form a united whole.

Figure 2: Details from Fig. 1

Figure 3: Details from Fig. 1
In the extreme foreground, the prince is in the mode of recreation, is busy with musicians, dancers, and drinking party, while servants bring baskets of fruit, fig. 2. The street outside the palace is portrayed with pedestrians and buyers around shops, a humble kitchen with a mother cooking while children wait, fig. 3, and a mosque at the other end of the street where a religious leader is persuading a young man to enter, fig. 4. Opposite is the upper storey of the palace with beautiful young princesses enjoying themselves, fig. 5, at their back is the inside of another house, where a scholar and a student are engrossed in discussion, fig. 8, while a domestic cat is enjoying a nap, fig. 7. At the back is a garden with blossom and maple trees, and a terrace at the top end with a drowsy lady peeping down from the projected balcony. The height of naturalism is discernible in the rendering of a dog looking with open mouth to find the right place to jump down. An example of subterranean chambers combined with an exterior view is The Death of Zahhak (Welch, 1976, p. 44) from Houghton’s Shâhnâma (1527), figs. 8–9.
Figure 5: Details from Fig. 1

Figure 6: Details from Fig. 1
Figure 7: Details from Fig. 1

Figure 8: Line drawing after the miniature; Death of Zahhak from Hougton’s Shāhnāma Tabriz, 1527. 47.3×17.0 cm. Metropoliyan museum of Arts New York. (Worked out on computer by the researcher)
The inside and out sides of a cave, or houses- their ornamentation, accessories, utensils, costumes, canopies, balconies- everything of the town is defined to utmost perfection by registering the entire six dimensions of space, recorded through multiple points of view, capacitated by circular mobile perception, while Picasso adopted a less elevated stance by introducing a fourth dimension with his immobile stance, that led him to rely on distortions. Muslim artists, on the contrary, retained beauty while adding novelty; although their perception is not usual, they defined six dimensions eruditely, without making things unusual or distorted. Picasso’s accredited novelty of delineating the oblivious-side through simultaneity of vision is definitely a plagiarised act when Muslim artists had already invented and displayed a better version of it almost four centuries earlier.

The Persian or Mughal artists of India never allowed the limitations of human sight to restrict them within the framework of a three-dimensional world. They invented ways to overcome these limitations and captured entire dimensions of the physical world. Stationary rectilinear perception can decipher at most three dimensions, and Picasso had to contort shapes to render the 4th-dimension, while novelty retaining beauty was introduced centuries earlier by Muslim artists, not by Picasso. There are certain other elevated stances too, linked with Muslim Miniature Paintings.

**Origins of Robotic Technology and Islamic Art**

Knowledge of the past is normally traced through chronicles; usually having subjective interpretations with consciously moulded facts. But artefacts peep deep into the past objectively, for creativity is a pure activity, and artists are unconscious
interpreters of their time; that is why prehistoric eras are traced and analysed through artefacts. This paper will also examine artefacts that credit the origin of Robotic Technology to the Abbasid era (750–1258); the culmination of Muslim science and culture, when Europe was in a deep slumber.

An illustrated manuscript of the Abbasid period by al-Jazari is *al-Ja‘mi al-Ilm wa al-‘Amal al-Naf‘i fi Ṣina‘at al-ḥiyāl* (1198–1206), containing fifty illustrations of mechanical devices that provide a substratum for modern technology. Very few people know about al-Jazari’s engineering scholarship; his enigmatic representations of water and candle clocks, robotic figures and vessels serving drinking bouts, fountains that change their shape and colour, and water-raising machines along with many other devices that are still functional for multifarious mechanisms (al-Jazari, 1989, pp. 134–135). Here the role of Miniature Painting is accelerated, providing a perfect precedence for Robotic Technology along with other Muslim eruditions in the field of science.

The miniature titled; *Servant with a water ewer* (Gladiss, 2004, p. 195) is actually an image of a hand-washing humanoid Robot, fig. 10, fully clad in upper and lower gowns and a turban, holding an earthenware jar in his right hand with a bird on it, while his left hand holds a comb, mirror and towel.

**Internal Mechanism and Function of the Humanoid Robot**

The robot has arms, legs and head made up of copper plates, while the ewer is of brass. Its right hand is hollow, holding the ewer. A narrow pipe bent in the form of a siphon has one shorter end and another longer horizontal end; the former moves into the upper part of the arm with a small whistle ball fitted to its top. The right hand is rigidly fixed while the left arm is movable about an axle fixed in the elbow extension, one end of which has a fixed weight that raises the arm up to the shoulder holding a mirror, comb and towel.
A reservoir is fixed in the breast inclined toward the right arm, and a pulley is fixed above it near the left edge. A valve is fixed in the bottom of the reservoir almost in line with the centre of the figure. It has an upward extension ascending to the shoulder and turning to the back side of the neck with a handle fixed to its end. A knob is attached to it to open and close the valve. The main body of the valve has an obliquely drilled channel towards its lower end. Its upper end is within the reservoir and lower end is outside, below the bottom. A tiny pot with a hole at its bottom right is fixed below the lower edge of the valve, and the longer pipe of the siphon is fixed into its hole. A float is inserted in the valve rod through piercing it from its centre and it rests on the bottom seat of the valve. A staple is fixed on its surface with a string attached; the other end is attached with a pulley outside the left of the reservoir. It hangs down and is attached to a hole in the weight in the extension of the left elbow, fig. 11. The reservoir is filled with water through a hole in the head.
of the figure. When a knob on the handle at the back of the neck is twisted, it opens the valve and water is discharged into the small pot below the valve, then, from the larger tube of the siphon it moves to the ewer. Air in the ewer is emitted through the only path of the smaller tube of the siphon leading to the whistle ball, and it appears to be producing a sound from the beak of the peacock on the lid of the ewer.

Figure 11: Details from Fig. 10

Meanwhile, the float at the seat of the valve ascends to the water surface, leaving its string loose. But no sooner has water drained from the reservoir, the string is pulled and the left arm extends slowly with the mirror, comb and towel. After use, when the towel, comb and mirror are returned back, the robot becomes placid. This is how the humanoid robot functions. (al-Jazari, 1989, pp. 134–135). The mechanism of the figure is visible only showing his breast, arms, hands, legs and feet. The water tank, pistons, and pulley with staple and strings connected to it are parts of the mechanism made discernible to the viewer, even when the figure represented is draped. Here also, outer is combined with inner to define six dimensions of the represented space.

No one has ever pondered on these facts and attribution as the primary mover of robotic technology is given to an American, George Devol (1912–2011), who registered a digitally operated robot in 1954. There is no record, other than an artefact, to prove emanation of robotic technology seven centuries earlier than its reported evidence in the twentieth century. In the field of science, a patron has to apply to the relevant authorities to get his inventions patented in order to attain a mark of distinction. Hence, artefacts are the ultimate authentic credentials, because the inventors are recorded through pictorial evidence in the past.
Hydraulic law is attributed to the Florentine artist Leonardo Da Vinci (1452–1519), although al-Jaziri’s book delineates illustrations of many mechanical devices, such as Water Raising Machine, Main Illustration of Pump, Servant with Pitcher and Basin, Phlebotomy Measuring Device, and Figures with Vessels for serving in Drinking Sessions. Pictorial illustrations of the above-mentioned devices along with many others, are living specimens to detect plagiarism in the Modern technological world; because Muslim Science reached unprecedented heights during the European Medieval Ages. It was due to their love for learning and knowledge that books were acquired from Greece, translated, experiments carried out, and new conclusions drawn, for there were Khazānat al-‘Ilm (Papodopoulo, 1979, p. 38) and Bayt al-Ḥikmah (Papodopoulo, 1979, p. 36) attached to mosques. The milieu produced scientists and mathematicians of the highest calibre, and their erudition can be viewed in the architectonic design on Muslim edifices as well.

Five-Fold Tessellation in Architectural Designs

Muslim buildings of the European Medieval Ages are so intricately decorated with geometric patterns that they must have employed geometricians of great calibre. Some very complex issues addressed by European mathematicians and physicists were unravelled only in the 20th century. Five-fold symmetry, that is, pentagonal and decagonal designs, are most difficult to spread with continuity, symmetrically over vast spaces. The solution is attributed to an American, Roger Penrose, since he is purported to have deciphered the issue in 1973, whereas in 1200 CE these designs in their perfect symmetry were used in Central-Asian buildings of the Muslim World. Extremely complicated geometric patterns produced through rotation of single unit cells and their incorporation on a larger scale can be subject to several distortions. But their tessellation in Muslim edifices is flawless, where perfection and beauty are consummate, as these designs are composed of units of many different geometric shapes. They are constituted by the tessellation of geometric stars; special sets of equilateral polygons of different sises and shapes and complicated strap work. These are based on “crystallographically allowed symmetry”, which means natural order is followed to compose these designs. A break-through occurred in the mathematical domains of the Muslim World when novel concepts were developed, and then brought to perfect heights in the 15th century. They have precedence of half a millennium over their formulation in the west. The best specimens of five-fold symmetry can be viewed in Muslim edifices such as Darb-i Imām Shrine, Iṣfahān (1453 C.E), the Shrine of Khawāja ʿAbd Allāh Anṣārī at Guzargāh in Herat, today Afghanistan (1424–49), and the Mausoleum of Mama Hatūn in Tercan Turkey (1200). Most famous in this context
is the shrine of Darb-i Imām, where in the intricate geometric formations very few asymmetries of only minor differences are noted (Lu & Steinhardt, 2007, pp. 1106–1110). Imputing credit to Roger Penrose in this context is again a plagiarised act and needs to be amended.

Kieth Critchlow, by analysing these designs more critically, asserts that some of the intricate designs adorning Muslim edifices bear resemblance to the underlying structures of certain chemical formulas (Nasar, 2000, p. 88). One specimen can be viewed in the Wazīr Khān Mosque in Lahore, Pakistan; a Mughal monument of Shāhjahān’s era (1628–1658) erected in 1634. It opens up new avenues of thought as to whether Muslims had already investigated the atomic structure attributed to Danish scientist Niel Bohr, who arrived at this model in 1913. Hence, the Mughal edifice is almost three centuries older than Bohar’s model (Khan, 2011, pp. 297–298), figs. 12–13. A similar design is apparent in the Gök Medresse, Sivas, Turkey. Analogously, other specimens are discernible in various other Muslim monuments. The thesis requires further research to reach some definite conclusions.

**Conclusion**

Art is the most powerful tool to provide first-hand knowledge of factual realities, being the most unbiased and impartial source of its times. As described by John Ruskin (1819–1900), the English poet, writer and artist that history is recorded by strong nations through three sources; by their chronicles, actions and artistic endeavours. But he elevated the last for being the most authentic, like a primary source of referencing. Hence, it is a perfect tool to detect plagiarism of different sorts. Artists are most sensitive creatures, affected even by a minor stir in their surroundings that triggers their imagination. An artist cannot be forced to create some specific piece of art- the very reason that artefacts can be used in many cases as a perfect tool to detect plagiarism.
Figure 12: Design resembling Bohar’s Atomic Model in Wazīr Khān Masjid. (Khan.M. Wazir Khan Mosque Rediscovered) 2012. (Photographed by the researcher)

Figure 13: Bohar’s Atomic Model. (Worked out on computer by the researcher)
References


Section 3: Essay Mills and Contract Cheating
Global Essay Mills Survey in Czechia: Insights into the Cheater’s Mind

Abstract: University student cheating is a widespread problem. A project called Global Essay Mills Survey (GEMS) was launched to explore student self-reported use of essay mills and associated sites or companies. This paper deals with contract cheating in the Czech Republic and shows results from data collected through the GEMS project. More than 500 respondents answered questions related to contract cheating – students’ motivation, circumstances, experience and opinions. We found that 19.7% of the students admitted to various forms of contract cheating. In this article, we look closely at this group of respondents and compare their answers with the non-cheating group. We conclude that cheaters are more aware of somebody else who had their work ghost-written, find more reasons to excuse their behavior, and suggest more lenient penalties.

Keywords: cheating behaviors, contract cheating, Czechia, essay mills, ghost writing

Introduction

Cheating is a common part of life today for students (Rabi et al., 2006). Many researchers and psychologists have examined the reasons leading students to cheat. In order to prevent (or at least minimise) student cheating, educators have to understand the cheaters’ behavior and identify factors leading them to cheat.

According to Hutton (2010), students cheat because the benefit/cost trade off favors cheating. McCabe and Trevino (1997) indicate that students cheat because they see their peers doing it. Hence the students’ opinions may also be a result of peer pressure and lead students to be rather tolerant toward dishonesty among their peers (Lim & See, 2001; Rabi et al., 2006).
Definition of cheating

A broad meaning of the term “cheating” is *actions that attempt to get any advantage by means that undermine values of integrity* (USD, 2018). According to Sheard, Markham, and Dick (2003, p. 46), “cheating is described in terms of a series of practices which cover a range of areas that can be defined as illegal, unethical, immoral or against the regulations of a course or institution”. Furthermore, some research indicates that students do not understand what constitutes cheating (Burrus, McGoldrick, & Schuhmann, 2007). They are not able to define this term and even more, they do not perceive many inappropriate behaviors as cheating (Rabi et al., 2006).

In this study, we focus mainly on contract cheating. This term was defined by Clarke and Lancaster (2006, p. 2) as “offering the process of completing an assignment for a student out to tender”. Newton and Draper (2017) believe that contract cheating threatens to seriously undermine higher education standards.

The legal aspects of contract cheating have been dealt with, for example, Draper and Newton (2017). They call for a new criminal offence to be created under UK law which specifically targets the undesirable behavior of these companies in the UK, though the principles could be applied elsewhere.

Our motivation

The opinions and attitudes of cheaters have been explored by many researchers and the number of students who report having cheated is still alarming. The aim of this article is to analyse data from the GEMS project that was collected in the Czech Republic with a focus on those who admitted cheating. The purpose of this research is to identify cheaters’ opinions and attitudes and to reveal the motivation factors and circumstances leading them to cheat. The results will be combined and compared with similar research conducted in Czechia one year earlier (Foltýnek & Králíková, 2018).

Methodology

This paper is based on data collected within the GEMS (Global Essay Mills Survey) project. As the name itself implies, this research examines student self-reported use of essay mills and associated sites/companies. The online questionnaire served not only to identify the cheaters and tools that they use the most, but also to explore the views of the respondents on students’ behavior, consequences of cheating, and their opinions on the legality of essay mills.
The questionnaire was created by an international team led by Rebecca Awdry from Deakin University in Australia. The English original was translated into 22 languages, piloted, debugged and distributed online through coordinators in each country.

In total, 10,495 responses were collected (6,989 full and 3,506 partial). As the responses were collected based on the home language, it was necessary to reassemble them according to the country of origin. Australia, Serbia, Sweden, Chile, Czechia and Romania were the most represented countries in the survey, followed by Turkey, Slovakia, Hungary, Italy and Ukraine.

In Czechia, data collection was carried out with the help of volunteers who distributed the link to the questionnaire among their classmates and friends at various universities and faculties across the country. This method was used in previous research as well and proved to be efficient (Foltýnek & Králíková, 2018). Due to the informal form of distribution, students were open and not afraid that their admissions would have any consequences for them.

For the research, only full responses were used. For the purposes of this article, we divided the respondents into cheating and non-cheating groups based on their answers to 14 questions, asking whether they had ever received a work from essay mills, peer sharing sites, essay bidding sites, contract essay sites, another student, or a friend or family member to submit it as their own work. Particular questions distinguished whether it was for money, document exchange, or free. The specific questions are provided in the Appendix. Those who answered at least once differently from “no” or “never” were considered as cheaters.

Data processing was carried out in MS Excel. Pivot tables were used to monitor independence using Pearson’s chi-squared test. The significance level for the $p$-value was set at 5%.

**Results**

Out of the total number of 574 responses, 113 respondents (19.7%) were identified as cheaters, i.e. acquired work (either paid for or free) from various sources to submit it as their own. First, we will look closely at how they obtained the work. The largest number (82) received it from a friend or family member. For 63 respondents, this was the only response; the rest (19) used this method in combination with others.
Table 1: How the Cheaters Obtained their Work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How they obtained the work</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Obtained via internet – paid</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtained via internet – exchange of documents</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtained via internet – for free</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtained via internet – cumulative</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>6.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtained from another student – paid</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>All above cumulative</strong></td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obtained from a friend/family – for free or paid</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>113</td>
<td>19.7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the students (82) acquired their work from someone else only once or twice. Another 27 students did it up to 5 times, and 4 did it more than 5 times. As we can see, about a quarter of cheaters repeated their offence multiple times.

In the following part, we are going to compare the views of the cheating and non-cheating students.

Cheaters are more aware of their friends or peers having used these sites and they are more aware of someone who has been caught (see Table 2). Therefore, they may perceive this behavior as normal and lapse into it as well.

Table 2: Awareness of Others Using Contract Cheating Sites and Being Caught for Contract Cheating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Cheaters agree</th>
<th>Non-cheaters agree</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Are you aware of any of your friends or peers having used these sites</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
<td>24.5%</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(essay mills, exchange sites, peer sharing, or assignment bidding sites)?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are you aware of anyone who has ever been caught for having submitted</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work which they bought?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To prove that the difference between cheaters and non-cheaters was statistically significant, we used Pearson’s chi-squared test (Pearson, 1900). We will show the calculation just for the first question; the rest were done analogically. Our null hypothesis was that the answers of cheaters and non-cheaters don’t differ. The distribution of the answers is shown in Table 3.
Table 3: Distribution of Answers for The Question “Are You Aware of Any of Your Friends or Peers Having Used these Sites (Either Essay Mills, Exchange Sites, Peer Sharing, or Assignment Bidding Sites)?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers to the question</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>All answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-cheaters</td>
<td>348</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheaters</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>574</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the answers, we calculated theoretical frequency $m$ for each cell, which is shown in Table 4:

$$m_{ij} = n_i \cdot \frac{n_j}{n},$$

where $n_i$ is the number of all answers in row $i$, $n_j$ is the number of all answers in column $j$, and $n$ is the number of all answers (Pearson, 1900).

Table 4: Theoretical Frequencies for the Question “Are You Aware of Any of your Friends or Peers Having Used these Sites (Essay Mills, Exchange Sites, Peer Sharing, or Assignment Bidding Sites)?”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers to the question</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Yes</th>
<th>All answers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Non-cheaters</td>
<td>331.7</td>
<td>129.3</td>
<td>461</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheaters</td>
<td>81.3</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>574</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on these two tables, we calculated Pearson’s chi-square:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i}^{r} \sum_{j}^{c} \frac{(m'_{i,j} - m_{i,j})^2}{m_{i,j}}$$

where $r$ is the number of rows, $c$ is the number of columns, and $m'$ is the number of observed answers (Pearson, 1900).

The result of this calculation is $\chi^2 = 14.515$. There is one degree of freedom. Upper-tail critical values of the chi-square distribution table give a critical value of 3.84 at 95% significance level. As the chi-squared statistic of 14.515 exceeds this critical value, we rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that the answers of cheaters and non-cheaters were different at 95% significance level.
Let us look at the circumstances under which the respondents think it is acceptable to cheat. We can see that cheaters identify each of the given scenarios as an excuse for cheating more often than non-cheaters. Consequently, non-cheaters ticked significantly more often the option “Never” (specifically, 51.6% of non-cheaters stated that it is never acceptable to cheat; only 16.8% of cheaters thought the same).

Table 5: Under What Circumstances Do You Think It Is Acceptable to Cheat?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scenario</th>
<th>Cheaters agree</th>
<th>Non-cheaters agree</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>If you don’t understand the topic</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you run out of time due to other pressures (e.g. having to work many hours to pay your fees)</td>
<td>58.4%</td>
<td>30.4%</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you don’t get enough time or support from your tutors</td>
<td>43.4%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you have too many assignments due at the same time from different classes</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
<td>22.3%</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If you don’t see the purpose of the task you are asked to complete</td>
<td>39.8%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If the module/unit/subject is compulsory and you don’t want to study it</td>
<td>34.5%</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Never</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
<td>51.6%</td>
<td>&lt;.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>2.2%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cheaters are also more lenient in terms of suggested penalties. As we can see from Table 6, cheaters more frequently suggested more lenient options, whereas non-cheaters suggested harsher penalties. If a student is caught submitting work written by someone else, 27% of non-cheaters suggested expulsion as an appropriate penalty. To the contrary, only 8% of cheaters agreed with this outcome. Cheaters significantly more often suggested a lower mark (31.9% compared to 21.0% of non-cheaters) or re-submission of the task (63.7% compared to 41.6% of non-cheaters).
Table 6: What Do You Think Should Be the Outcome for Students Caught After Buying Work and Submitting It as their Own?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proposed penalty</th>
<th>Cheaters agree</th>
<th>Non-cheaters agree</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expulsion</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>27.1%</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspension for the rest of the year</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suspension for the rest of the semester/term</td>
<td>3.5%</td>
<td>4.3%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having to re-do that unit/module/subject</td>
<td>50.4%</td>
<td>53.4%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being failed for the unit/module/subject with no chance to re-take</td>
<td>4.4%</td>
<td>8.5%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being failed for the assessment task with no chance to re-take</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Having to re-submit the assessment task</strong></td>
<td><strong>63.7%</strong></td>
<td><strong>41.6%</strong></td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having the marks reduced</td>
<td><strong>31.9%</strong></td>
<td><strong>21.0%</strong></td>
<td>= .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being made to undertaken an academic integrity module/class, etc.</td>
<td>12.4%</td>
<td>9.5%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Having the cheating recorded on the student's academic transcript</td>
<td>24.8%</td>
<td>27.8%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
<td>3.9%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The next question was “Why do you think that students use these sites at university”. Again, we will look at the difference between cheaters and non-cheaters (see Table 7). As we can see, for most of the reasons, there are no significant differences between cheaters and non-cheaters. The most significant difference was in “Seeing other people doing it”. This reason was chosen by 35.4% of cheaters, but only by 23.6% of non-cheaters.

Table 7: Why Do You Think that Students Use these Sites at University?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for contract cheating</th>
<th>Cheaters agree</th>
<th>Non-cheaters agree</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Studying in another language</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didn't understand academic requirements</td>
<td>37.2%</td>
<td>31.2%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External pressures (family, boss, etc.)</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>10.6%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ran out of time</td>
<td>83.2%</td>
<td>78.7%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is cheap to do</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The last group of questions we are dealing with asked students about the (il)legality of essay mills. At first, students were asked if they think essay mills are illegal in their country. Then, they were asked if they should be illegal. Those who answered yes were asked whether it should be the companies’ or students’ fault.

There was no difference between cheaters and non-cheaters regarding their opinion of the legality of essay mills. In both categories, around 27% think essay mills are illegal, about 30% think the opposite, and the rest are not sure (see Table 8; p = .479). The fact is that under current Czech legislation, essay mills are legal. Of course, a student submitting work written by someone else is violating study regulations and possibly committing fraud, but companies themselves are not doing anything illegal.

When it comes to the question about whether the essay mills should be illegal, the opinions of these two groups differ (see Table 9; p-value is 0.004). Whereas 54.2% of non-cheaters think that essay mills should be illegal, in the group of cheaters it is only 38.9%. Then, 38.1% of cheaters and 25.4% of non-cheaters think they should not be illegal and the others are not sure. Both groups agree that contract cheating is both the student’s and company’s fault.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for contract cheating</th>
<th>Cheaters agree</th>
<th>Non-cheaters agree</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fear of failure</td>
<td>51.3%</td>
<td>55.1%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeing other people doing it</td>
<td><strong>35.4%</strong></td>
<td><strong>23.6%</strong></td>
<td>= .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not motivated to do the work themselves</td>
<td>63.7%</td>
<td>71.1%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Want a higher grade</td>
<td>42.5%</td>
<td>42.3%</td>
<td>&gt; .05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
<td>&lt; .001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Do You Think Essay Mills Are Illegal in Your Country?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Cheaters</th>
<th>Non-cheaters</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>26.5%</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
<td>27.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>44.2%</td>
<td>42.7%</td>
<td>43.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>29.2%</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
<td>29.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9: Do You Think It Should Be Illegal (Against the Law) for Companies or Other People to Be Able to Sell Work to Students to Help Them Cheat in their Degree?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer</th>
<th>Cheaters</th>
<th>Non-cheaters</th>
<th>All</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>38.9%</td>
<td>54.2%</td>
<td>51.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>23.0%</td>
<td>20.4%</td>
<td>20.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>38.1%</td>
<td>25.4%</td>
<td>27.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The results suggest that students who self-reported at least one form of contract cheating also saw their peers doing it more often. They are also more aware of someone else who has submitted work elaborated by a third party. And to a large extent, they see this as a reason why students cheat. Cheaters also more often consider various scenarios as an excuse for cheating and suggest less severe penalties for contract cheating.

In Czechia, research on contract cheating has already been carried out by Foltýnek and Králíková (2018). Their survey was conducted in 2017 and the number of respondents was 1016. In total, 8% (77) of respondents admitted cheating, compared to the GEMS results; where up to 19.7% (113) of respondents could be identified as cheaters. A noticeable difference between the two results may have a very simple explanation. While in the first study (Foltýnek & Králíková, 2018) it was possible to identify a cheater based on one question only, in GEMS the respondents were identified as cheaters if they answered other than “not” or “never” in at least one question out of fourteen. These questions provided more specific scenarios and therefore students had more chances to realise that they actually did something similar.

Let us now look at the question asking whether they were aware of someone who had ever submitted ghost-written work. In the research of Foltýnek and Králíková (2018), the proportion was 34%, compared to 24.5% in GEMS. It should be noted that in both cases, these responses came only from those identified as non-cheaters. The cheaters in GEMS expressed awareness of such cases more often. The earlier study (Foltýnek & Králíková, 2018) did not ask cheaters this question.

These two research studies agree on the reasons under which it is seen by students as acceptable to cheat. If we focus on the non-cheaters, respondents in both studies most often answered never, followed by lack of time. In the GEMS research, those identified as cheaters were also asked this question, answering that cheating is acceptable in the case of lack of time. According to Foltýnek and Králíková (2018), lack of time was the most frequent reason leading students to
cheat. Putting these two results together, we can see that Czech students cheat most often because they see this as the most excusable.

Students’ contract cheating was also investigated in Albania, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, FYR of Macedonia, Montenegro, and Serbia in 2016 within the South-East Europe Project on Policies for Academic Integrity (Glendinning et al., 2018). Researchers found that 27% of students from this region knew someone who had their work ghost-written, which is the same result as in GEMS (if we don’t distinguish cheaters from non-cheaters).

Hosny and Fatima (2014) revealed that 21.62% of investigated students (undergraduate female students from one particular university in Saudi Arabia) admitted to “previously paying someone to do an assignment for them”, compared to 19.7% in the GEMS study.

Newton and Lang (2016) mention the unpublished results of a survey performed by Turnitin in 2013 at US universities. In this study, 7% of students admitted to having purchased an assignment and about 23% to knowing of someone among their peers who had done it. Out of 19.7% cheaters from GEMS, only 5% actually purchased their works (via the internet or from another student), and 14.3% obtained it from a friend (without distinguishing whether it was for free or paid).

**Limitations of the study**

The percentage of women who participated in the survey was higher than in the real Czech student population. Based on data from the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports of the Czech Republic (2017), there were 56% female students in this country. Even the research of Foltýnek and Králíková (2018) conducted in the Czech Republic struggled with this problem. In the previous research, 80% of participants were women (Foltýnek & Králíková 2018); while in the GEMS data presented in this research the percentage of females was 75%. Smith (2008) argues that disproportion is linked to surveys done online, where women are more willing to respond than men. Differences in responses between genders have not been investigated in this paper, but the research of Foltýnek and Králíková (2018) found that men self-report cheating significantly more often than women. Therefore, the results may be biased and the real percentage of cheating students may be even higher.

**Conclusion**

This paper presents Czech results from the Global Essay Mills Survey which investigated student attitudes to different forms of contract cheating. Based on the
answers to 14 different questions, 19.7% of respondents were identified as cheaters, most of them obtaining the ghost-written work from a friend or family member. The most significant findings from our study are that students who self-reported contract cheating also:

- More often see others committing contract cheating;
- Are more aware of someone being caught for contract cheating;
- Find various circumstances as excuses for cheating, whereas the majority of non-cheaters think that cheating is unacceptable;
- Tend to suggest less severe penalties for cheating.

The survey also asked about the legality of essay mills. Neither group of respondents (cheaters and non-cheaters) differed in their opinion that essay mills are illegal. A significant difference appeared in the question of whether they should be illegal. The opinion about making contract cheating services against the law was higher in the non-cheating group.

The next steps will be to perform a similar analysis on the data from other countries involved in the GEMS project and to make a mutual comparison. We will try to formulate general recommendations by learning from good practices in countries with a low percentage of cheaters. Overall, the results indicate that institutions must not be lenient towards student cheating, because the behavior of peers emerged as one of the major excuses for cheating, together with lack of motivation, not understanding the task, and poor time management.

**Acknowledgement**

The authors would like to thank Rebecca Awdry for the survey tool and methodology design. This article was funded by the Internal Grant Agency of Mendel University in Brno, project number PEF_DP_2018006 and by ESF funded grant on MENDELU international development, project number CZ.02.2.69/0.0/0.0/16_027/0007953

**References**


Appendix

Questions used for identification of cheaters

A respondent was identified as a “cheater” if he/she responded to the identified questions at least once in a different way than “never” or “no”.

- Have you ever bought work (with money) from any of the following types of sites, to submit to your university as your own work?
  - Essay mills (sites that sell pre-written essays)
Peer-sharing sites (sites which ask the user to upload an essay or resource before they can download something)
Essay bidding sites (sites where the user uploads their requirements for work and available writers bid to undertake the work at competing prices)
Contract essay sites (sites which offer the reader bespoke essays to their specific requirements and timeframes)

- Have you ever received work by exchanging a document or information with any of the following types of sites, to submit to your university as your own work?
  - Essay mills (sites that sell pre-written essays)
  - Peer-sharing sites (sites which ask the user to upload an essay or resource before they can download something)
  - Essay bidding sites (sites where the user uploads their requirements for work and available writers bid to undertake the work at competing prices)
  - Contract essay sites (sites which offer the reader bespoke essays to their specific requirements and timeframes)
- Have you ever received work for free (without money) from any of the following types of sites, to submit to your university as your own work?
  - Essay mills (sites that sell pre-written essays)
  - Peer-sharing sites (sites which ask the user to upload an essay or resource before they can download something)
  - Essay bidding sites (sites where the user uploads their requirements for work and available writers bid to undertake the work at competing prices)
  - Contract essay sites (sites which offer the reader bespoke essays to their specific requirements and timeframes)
- Have you ever bought work from another student to submit as your own assignment?
- Have you ever got work to submit as your own (whether free or for money), from a friend or family member?

Abstract: Academic integrity is the foundation upon which the academic sector stands. Contract cheating, a form of academic dishonesty where students get assessments written by others, has taken on a darker turn with the ease of use and over-reliance on technology. To the best of the researchers’ knowledge, no studies so far have looked at the student population and trends in contract cheating in the UAE (United Arab Emirates), a country whose education sector has been booming in recent years. Therefore, it is imperative to explore and understand the contract cheating phenomenon in the UAE. For this preliminary study, focus group interviews were conducted with undergraduate students. The results indicated that 95% of students were aware of contract cheating, 91% aware of others receiving substantial, unpermitted help, and 77% were aware of others turning in work done by others. These findings document the first records of student-reported incidences and establish the existence of contract cheating in the UAE. With this knowledge, the paper paves the way for a comprehensive future study with a larger dataset of instances in the UAE.

Keywords: academic integrity, contract cheating, e-cheating, essay mills, student cheating, UAE

Introduction

Academic misconduct is a global issue that has been researched consistently over the years (Bowers, 1964; McCabe, 1992; McCabe, Trevino & Butterfield, 2012). Studies have highlighted numerous reasons why students cheat or are likely to cheat, e.g. being overloaded at school (Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes, & Armstead, 1996), passing the course (Newstead, Franklyn-Stokes, & Armstead, 1996), getting
grades and lack of time (Muhney et al., 2008), among others. With the infiltration of technology, cheating has transformed into e-cheating, with newer methods and forms of cheating (Khan, 2014). Contract cheating is a form of academic dishonesty where students get someone else or a company to write and complete their assessment, sometimes in exchange for money (Clarke & Lancaster, 2006). Students have been practicing getting someone else to write an essay or a report for decades (Betram Gallant, 2008). However, it has been the focus of research for the last decade due to a boom in websites and these web-based business models gaining popularity (Clarke & Lancaster, 2013). This act can be dated as far back as the nineteenth and early twentieth century when fraternity houses were found to have had mills in their basements churning out and often selling papers for friends, classmates and peers (Stavisky, 1973). The first cases of modern day “essay mills” showed up in the 1950s and 60s and mushroomed across campuses in the United States (Stavisky, 1973). The onset of technology and the Internet have only made the problem more far-flung and widespread (Lancaster, 2017), with the twenty-first century information era giving the term “paper mills” its own twist, i.e. it has now gone online.

Top universities in the UK, USA and Australia have been embroiled in essay mill scandals in recent years, conferring punishments ranging from failing subjects to revoking degrees (Grove, 2017; Khomami, 2017; Marsh, 2017). In the UK, Lords have called for the banning of online essay services and companies in a bid to tackle the problem (The Wave, 2017). On a similar note, Australia’s Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency (TEQSA) has called for banning such services on or around the university campus and sites (Lane, 2017). Ireland recently took legal steps to criminalise and tackle essay mills following in the footsteps of New Zealand, which made it illegal for companies to advertise any kind of third party services to students (McKie, 2018). What is worrying is that traditional text-matching plagiarism-detecting solutions are unable to provide the means to detect and deter contract cheating (Lancaster & Clarke, 2014). Hence, a number of studies have begun to look closely at the issue of contract cheating such as Clarke and Lancaster (2013), Wallace and Newton (2014) and Rigby, Burton, Balcombe, Bateman, and Mulatu (2015) among others. Most recent studies have gone beyond establishing incidences and have made a significant contribution to exploring issues such as attempting to detect contract cheating in assessments (Clare, Walker & Hobson, 2017; Dawson & Sutherland-Smith, 2018; Rogerson, 2018), analysing contract cheating advertisements (Kaktins, 2018), and even exploring contract cheating as an agreement in order to analyse its legal and ethical ramifications (Tauginiene & Jurkevicius, 2017).
Relevance to UAE

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is a young nation comprised of seven states or emirates that are ruled under a federal government (CIA, 2018). The country hosts a considerably large group of expatriates who represent more than 200 nationalities (Emirates 24/7, 2016). The UAE’s economy depends not only on oil but also tourism and more recently education (Ali, 2018). It is important to note here that the UAE is currently ranked 17th in the Global Digital Competitiveness index, topping globally in Business Agility, Future Readiness, Regulatory Framework and Technology (Cherrayil, 2018). The country is a magnet for digital startup companies and innovative entrepreneurs (Sadaqat, 2018), and boasts spending power averaging AED 480,315.09 million from 2001 until 2017 (Trading Economics, 2018).

Until 1977, the UAE had only one higher education institution (US Department of Commerce, 2018) but has now replaced Malaysia and Singapore to become the fourth most-desired destination for higher education after the USA, UK and Canada (The Young Vision, 2016). It is a higher education hub for students from all over the world and to cater to this demand, various international universities are establishing their offshore campuses here. More than 100,000 higher education students are enrolled in these universities (CAA, 2018). Dubai alone has more than 25 branch campuses of international universities (Swan, 2014) having different syllabi, culture, and governance, making UAE a very diverse educational service provider.

Studies carried out nationally highlight 60–80% self-reported cases of cheating and plagiarism (Moussly, 2012; Shahbandri, 2015; Swan, 2017). It is important to note that we found only 42 national studies conducted on academic misconduct through a simple metadata search using Google from January 2017 to January 2018 for the period 2005–2017. About 50% of those studies were research studies while the rest were news articles. To the best of the researchers’ knowledge, no studies have looked at contract cheating among students in the UAE and Middle East, indicating a significant gap in the literature.

With the UAE’s young education sector establishing quality education and producing graduates on a global platform, it is crucial to explore and understand the current status of contact cheating among higher education students, given the above evidence of existence of other forms of academic dishonesty. This can provide a strong basis for developing a holistic approach to tackling the menace of contract cheating in the UAE.
To establish the need for such an explorative investigation, this paper is positioned as a preliminary focus group study targeting higher education students in the UAE.

**Research Objective**

The research objectives of the study aim to:

RO1. determine evidence of the existence and awareness of contract cheating among higher education students in the UAE.

RO2. (i) explore the services which students most frequently use for contract cheating
    (ii) explore the reasons why students use contract cheating services.

RO3. understand how students are most commonly contacted by essay mills.

**Research Methodology**

To fulfill the research objectives of this project, focus group interviews were conducted as they are very good tools to use for conducting exploratory research, especially when little is known of the topic of investigation (Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook 2007).

The recommended size for a focus group is generally between five to twelve respondents (Marczak & Sewell, 2018; Tynan & Drayton, 1988), with fewer respondents recommended for a sensitive or difficult topic (Tynan & Drayton, 1988), and multiple sessions are said to yield stronger results (Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2007). Hence, four focus group interviews were conducted for this study, with two focus group sessions having five respondents each and two sessions having six respondents each.

After attaining ethical clearance, independent research assistants recruited and trained in the rules of engagement (Krueger, 1988) moderated the four sessions. At each session, lasting 30–45 minutes, the focus group moderators explained the process of the group interview and consent/removing consent; and noted the responses without any identifiable information about the respondents. After the interviews, the research assistants met for a debriefing with the researchers.

**Results and Discussion**

In this section, demographic information and focus group deliberations addressing the three research objectives will be discussed.
Demographic findings of the study
Of the 22 respondents, 9 were female and 13 were male. The mix of students was thus gender balanced. Further, the students were all undergraduate students having proportional representation from both the school of business and that of engineering.

Figure 1: Distribution of respondents by gender

Findings addressing research objective RO1
When prompted on awareness of contract cheating, only 5% of the group had never heard of such an act and were surprised it could be considered as academic dishonesty. In contrast, 95% of the group agreed that they had in fact heard of contract cheating. Further discussions revealed that 86% of group were aware of at least one individual who had requested help in writing their assessment, thus indicating a very high level of awareness of contract cheating and recorded instances of contract cheating among the students.

Figure 2: Percentage of respondents who had heard of or had knowledge of contract cheating as an academic misconduct
Figure 3: Percentage of respondents aware of at least one individual who had asked someone else to write his/her assignment

The awareness level and recorded incidents, albeit indirect, seem astonishingly high. Further discussion with the groups revealed interesting information indicating the seriousness of the issue. While 77% of the group had heard of students turning in work done by someone else, 91% had heard of students receiving substantial unpermitted help on an assignment, and 64% had heard of students writing a paper for someone else.

These findings can be considered very significant. According to Bretag (2017), the range of students who turn in work done by someone else is typically 6–10%, a number that is similar to a recent study in the Czech Republic that found 8% self-reported instances of contract cheating (Foltynek & Kralikova, 2018). In our study, the numbers recorded were higher than this. We feel that the modus operandi of a focus group, whereby the interviews were done by student research assistants with assurance of total anonymity of the researchers and confidentiality, led to a high level of confidence and engagement among the participants, who then gave honest and genuine answers. This is further supported by the literature, which strongly suggests that when dealing with sensitive topics (such as contract cheating in this study), focus groups of friends is a very good methodology to use in order to record accurate results based on the participants’ discussion (Oliveira, 2011). In fact, extant literature on focus group methodology for sensitive topics has shown that it helps to establish an enjoyable, more constructive atmosphere of data collection, moving power from the researcher to the participants (Morse, 1994; Kitzinger, 1994; Kitzinger & Barbour, 1999). Our results seem to support this argument and in turn help to explain the anomalous finding.

It is also very important to note here that as this study has a small sample size and is a preliminary study, we do not claim that the results are a representative sample for a population of higher education students. However, these findings
definitely justify the claim that contract cheating exists among students in the UAE and needs further investigation.

**Findings addressing research objective RO2**

In further developing an understanding of contract cheating in the UAE’s education sector, discussions revealed that the focus group contract-cheated most in theory and research-based or subjective courses that expect more writing than numerical or facts, a finding that is consistent with the existing literature (Trenholm, 2007).

*Table 1: Responses Suggesting Most-Likely Subjects that Students May Resort to Contract Cheating*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects most likely to attract contract cheating</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research subjects</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult subjects</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy subjects</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minor subjects</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major subjects</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Answer</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Group members mentioned that the subjects students considered “Easy” also had a high chance of being outsourced. This draws attention towards the nature of assessment and the relevance of assessment design to learning outcomes, as reported by Rogerson (2018) and Baird and Clare (2017).

In addition, the group quoted lack of enthusiasm, poor time management and procrastination as possible primary reasons why students sought alternative ways to get their assessments completed.
Table 2: Responses Suggesting Reasons for Contract Cheating

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Close deadline, or submission required in the due week itself</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No motivation for the subject/teacher/assessment/learning</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not having the required skill set to complete the assignment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When the weighted grade of the subject is too high</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Working at a job as well as studying at university, laziness, or poor time management</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult subjects requiring a lot of research</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not participating in the discussed topic</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussing ‘cost’ as a significant possible enabler, 64% agreed that cost certainly mattered for students when getting a paper written, just as 64% agreed it also mattered how soon assessments would be completed and returned. However, it is also interesting to note that the focus group thought students would also be cautious of the quality of the work the students received and be more likely to contract cheat in group assessments where they could share the overall cost, a finding supported by Rigby et al. (2015).

When the focus group discussed the topic of faculty members ignoring contract cheating and that of university policy, they were split on both points, and interestingly so. While 50% agreed that some faculty ignored the issue, 27% said their faculty did not ignore it, 5% said that sometimes faculty ignored it, and 18% said they were not sure. Similarly, 43% said they found university policies hindered contract cheating while 33% said they helped, 14% said they were not sure, and 10% did not participate in this discussion. These findings, especially about the role of policy, are interesting. While the findings on teachers’ attitudes are consistent with existing research (Khan, 2014), the finding on policy is quite contradictory, as literature has thus far always pointed to the importance of policy as deterrents of academic misconduct (Bretag et al., 2011; Khan, 2014). When further discussed, the group revealed that they felt the policies in their campuses did not take contract cheating into account as academic misconduct and “only focused on plagiarism”. This is an interesting finding because it also brings to light the need for consistency in academic integrity policies, which has been and continues to be a focus for researchers across the globe (Khan, Khelalfa, Sarabdeen, Harish, & Raheja, 2018; Tennant, Rowell, & Duggan, 2007). We feel there is scope for further investigating students’ responses on a large scale and acquiring a deeper
understanding of how students view the role of university policies in helping or hindering contract cheating on their campuses.

**Findings addressing research objective RO3**

This sub-section throws significant light on students’ perception of whom they deem to be a third party; how they are approached, and how they approach others to contract cheat.

It is important to note that the focus group did not necessarily define ‘third party’ as essay mills as they mentioned a variety of personal contacts such as ‘seniors’, ‘friends’, and peer groups including ‘current classmates’, and even ‘working people’ as possible third parties. One group member discussed a strange phenomenon not found in prior contract cheating literature:

> Students sometimes ask multiple students to write segments of the assignment, for instance, for a 1000-word report or essay, a student might approach five different students and ask them to write 200 words each.

Group members were then encouraged to discuss how and where they thought students were approached by third parties. While 50% agreed they knew of students who went looking for someone to write their papers for them, they were quick to point out e-mail, advertisements, social media and even outdoor student events as means and places where companies contacted them regularly. They expressed surprise at the level of professionalism demonstrated by the agents approaching them, who were sometimes post-graduate students in their own universities, working for mills or looking for contract jobs to earn extra money. One respondent further explained:

> Companies seem to know exactly who we are, where we study, and contact us on a regular basis, as if from a database of clients.

Therefore, the focus groups were well-aware of how and where the companies approached students to pitch their business.

The above findings stand as a record of contact cheating incidents among higher education students in the UAE although, as discussed previously, the small sample size does not reflect the entire student population’s behavior or practice. However, we cannot ignore that the data reveals statistics much higher than reported in current literature. Hence, further research is proposed to quantitatively explore the nature and extent of contract cheating behavior in the UAE.
Conclusion

Contract cheating is a constant threat to academia (Lancaster, 2017) and stakeholders are waking up to the true depths of the infiltration of contract cheating everywhere (Bretag et al., 2018). In response, stakeholders are also bringing in policy and regulation changes (Lane, 2017).

The findings from this pilot study confirm the first recorded instances of contract cheating among higher education students in the UAE as reported by the students themselves and provide preliminary insights on areas more prone to contract cheating. The results highlight the enablers of cheating (cost, high subject weightage, un-enthusiasm, simultaneous submission of multiple assignments, procrastination) and emphasise the importance of faculty action and university policy in reducing students’ likelihood to contract cheat. The study also made a significant discovery in the manner and behavior of students in using peers, friends and seniors more than actual companies and the practice of using multiple ghost writers for a single assignment. This provides an insight into specific patterns of behavior that may be prevalent among the student body in the UAE, uniquely different from other regions.

One of the limitations of the study is the small sample size but keeping in mind our aim of exploring the subject to establish the need for a more comprehensive study on contract cheating, we think it served our purpose.

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Section 4:
Integrity Issues Related to Research and Publication
Challenges in Publishing at Newly-established Universities in Kosovo and Macedonia

Abstract: As elsewhere in the world, universities recently established in Kosovo and Macedonia are facing many challenges with regard to publishing articles. As new institutions, they have not yet been able to create the conditions for their staff to publish articles in a "safe way"; their academic staff have been unknowingly and accidentally subject to some hijacked and predatory journals. The phenomenon was noticed during the promotion process for Associated Professors. Therefore, the aim of this article is to present the challenges faced in this regard by the staff of universities, ways in which these hijacked and predatory journals were detected, and measures taken in order to prevent this phenomenon from happening again and to help staff in publishing in real and credible journals and publishing houses. Sharing their experience might be useful for other young institutions that might face similar challenges in the future.

Keywords: hijacked journals, Kosovo, Macedonia, new universities

Introduction

"The democratization of science via the Internet has brought not only benefits but also challenges to publishing; including fraudulent behavior and plagiarism, data and statistics reporting standards, authorship confirmation and other issues which affect authors, readers, and publishers in different ways" (Hausmann & Murphy, 2016, p. 280).

The democratization of science via the internet has had far-reaching effects all over the world where the internet is available (Hausmann, 2016). This process seems to have its positive and negative effects. On one side, the possibilities for academics to publish their results and work in open access journals and more specialised journals have increased. On the other side, the risk of falling victim to predatory journals, predatory publishers, and hijacked journals also seems to
be increasing. Many scholars have explained the meaning of such journals and the elements that help in identifying such fake journals and publishers. Starting with “predatory journals”, which are described by Clark and Smith as commercial journals that are based on the pay-and-publish model and do not guarantee the quality of published papers as they are not peer-reviewed journals at all (Clark & Smith, 2015). They often claim fake impact factors to cheat the authors (Jalalian, 2015). The “predatory publishers” usually accept manuscripts that are weak or faulty in terms of scientific quality and charge substantial fees to authors without providing essential editorial and publishing services. These publishers are known as “predatory open access journal publishers” as well. Indeed, the term “predatory open access” was conceived firstly by Jeffrey Beall (Beall, 2012; Rahman, 2014).

In addition to preparatory journals and publishers, scholars are facing publishing challenges from hijackers through their hijacked journals. The term “hijacked journals” was introduced to academics by Jalalian in 2012 (Dadkhah, 2015) but the first hijacked journal was reported in 2011 (Jalalian & Dadkhah, 2015). These journals, termed as “journal phishing” (Dadkhah, Sutikno, Davarpanah Jazi, & Stiawan, 2015), are described as fake short-term websites of authentic ones, utilizing the title and ISSNs of reputable journals (Jalalian & Mahboobi, 2014). Thus, some original journals stop publishing, and hijackers continue publishing in their name (Bohannon, 2015). The proof that the hijackers make money by stealing the identities of legitimate journals and collecting article-processing charges on papers that are submitted has been reported by several authors (Lukić et al., 2014).

Hence, the main difference between the hijacked journal and predatory journal is that a hijacked journal has a fake website, which mimics the website of a reputable, indexed journal; while the predatory journal has a fake name and unrecorded ISSN (Dadkhah, 2015). Predatory journals have been reported by academic researchers from almost all over the world, while hijacked journals have not been reported as often (Dadkhah, 2015). None of these journals would exist if authors or scholars stopped submitting articles. The question is why authors do submit to such journals and become victims of such hijackers and persons publishing predatory journals. Part of the answer relates to the pressure that authors have to fulfill legal requirements in order to get promoted in their academic titles. Another reason is that some of the authors are misled due to lack of experience in publishing abroad and are not familiar in detecting hijacked and predatory journals.

As he was concerned with the detection of such journals, the librarian of Colorado University, Jeffrey Beall, developed the well-known set of criteria (Rahman, Dexters, & Engels, 2014), but according to Mehrpour and Khajavi (2014), Beall's criteria are somewhat problematic in the sense that any reactive
blacklist inherently fails to provide a comprehensive response to the problem (Mehrpour & Khajavi, 2014). Hill developed a set of criteria for identifying authentic and credible journals instead of developing a list of hijacked and predatory journals and publishers (Hill, 2015). Indeed, this challenge and many other challenges exist mostly for authors from developing countries. The risk seems to be higher for some academics that are working at universities in developing countries, especially those countries that have recently (in the last ten years) established new public and private universities and require high standards of publishing as in developed countries; such is the case with some western Balkan countries. The academics and scholars of these countries face financial problems in publishing via credible journals due to lack of access to reputable scientific resources, means and research source databases.

Kosovo and Macedonia are countries of the western Balkans that have established new public universities working under limited financial circumstances but aiming for high standards, especially in research and publishing. The academic staff working for the universities of such countries, unintentionally, have been victims of some hijacked journals. The aim of this article is to present the challenges faced in this regard by these universities and their academic staff, show ways that these hijacked journals were identified, and measures taken to prevent this phenomenon from happening again. The academic staff need to be encouraged to publish in credible journals and publishing houses. Publishing is very important not only for their advancement; their promotion is a condition for the universities to open programs at doctoral level.

The hypothesis is that the academic staff of such universities are facing many challenges in fulfilling the publishing criteria for their career advancement set by the institutions, while receiving very limited support by the institutions to reach such high publishing standards. In order to test this hypothesis, the following research questions are addressed:

- What are the main challenges faced by the academic staff of such universities?
- Did they pay for publishing in journals, attending conferences and how much did they pay?
- Are they receiving financial support from their institution in order to publish and participate at conferences?
- To which journals did they submit articles and did these articles help them in their career advancement?

The methodology used to answer these questions and test the hypothesis is explained below.


Methodology

Due to the lack of scientific materials and studies related to this topic, the research methods used for testing the hypothesis of this article are both the Qualitative Method and the Quantitative Method. The total number of academic staff employed at public universities in Kosovo is around 1,307, while in Macedonia the number of academic staff (including research staff) is around 3,769 (UniRank, 2018). The present research covers only the academic staff of public universities, as in Kosovo only these universities can give academic titles, such as: Professor, Associate (Assoc.) Professor, Assistant (Asst.) Professor, and Assistant. Respondents are classified based on their gender, education level, academic and scientific title, and institutions at which they work. The sampling method is a census sampling in this study. A questionnaire was distributed to all 235 academic staff (professors and assistants) at the universities of Kosovo and Macedonia, and the response rate was 50.33% \((n = 117)\). The questionnaire was sent to the respondents online and to some of them as hard copies. Of the respondents, 38.5% were female and 61.5% were male; 35.9% of them were aged between 25–35, 61.6% between 36–56, and only 2.1% were aged between 57–65. Furthermore, 71.8% were holders of a PhD degree (asst. professor, assoc. professor, regular professor) and 28.2% holders of a master degree. In terms of their faculties, 25.6% are from Economics, 33.5% from Food Technology, Environment, Biology, and Agronomy; 10.3% from Law, 2.6% from Education and Pedagogy, 2.6% from Music, and 25.4% from other fields.

Interviews with open questions and discussions (individual discussions) were conducted with 20 high-ranking administrators at public universities in Kosovo and Macedonia (rectors, vice-rectors, deans and vice-deans of faculties).

In addition, the method of desk research was conducted on the legal acts and policies related to research, publishing, recruitment and advancement of academic staff.

Results

The data and analysis of respondents’ replies to the questionnaire was carried out through SPSS 19.0 statistical program. On the questions related to publication during the last ten years, all the respondents had published. As presented in Figure 1, 61.5% of them were men and 38.5% were women. Out of these, 71.8% hold a doctoral degree and the rest hold a master degree. About half of them are assistant professors (44.4%). Respondents from the fields of agriculture, tourism and environment had published more than other fields (33.5%). The second most common research area was economics. Most of the respondents were from Kosovo.
(84.6%) and 15.4% were from Macedonia. Most of the respondents said they had participated in an international conference before they submitted their papers to scientific journals (71.1%).

Figure 1: Publishing scientific papers in last ten years in international journals

Figure 2: Conference participation

Respondents answered the question about whether they had paid for the publication of their article(s) and participation at conference(s). About half of respondents (39.5%) that participated in our study had paid for publication of their papers, 34.2% of them had sometimes paid for publication of their papers and only 26.3% of them had never paid (Fig. 3). The majority of them also had paid for their participation at a conference. As presented in Figure 4, 73.7% of respondents had paid for their participation in scientific conferences.

Figure 3: Payment for publication of scientific papers

Figure 4: Payment for conference participation
Those that had paid declared the amount and 39.5% of them paid between 100 and 350 euro for their publications, 23.7% paid between 350 and 550 euro, whereas 28.9% had never paid. A small percentage (5.9%) paid from 550–1000 euro and above 1000 euro.

Figure 5: Amount paid for publication of article

Most of the participants (68.4%) had paid for their participation in various scientific conferences with an amount of between 100 and 350 euro, and only 13.2% of them had paid between 350 and 550 euro.

Figure 6: Amount paid for conference participation

Most of the respondents were satisfied with the quality of the conferences in which they participated and 60.5% evaluated them as excellent while 23.7% rated them as very good. About 60% benefited by advancement in terms of academic title from their scientific conference participation (Fig. 7).
Almost all of the participants (86.8%) felt they had never been a victim of publishing in fake scientific journals, and only 5.3% were victims of false journals. When asked if they had received comments and suggestions before their papers were published in fake journals, only 2.6% of them answered yes (see Fig. 8).

On the question related to the support received by respondents, the support of their home institution for publication of scientific papers seemed to be very little as the majority did not receive any at all. Only 13.2% of respondents said that they had financial support on a regular basis from their institution (see Fig. 9). Respondents said that sometimes the cost of conference participation or paper publication was affordable if they paid from their own budget, while 23.6% said that it was not affordable, and only 2.6% said yes (Fig. 10).
While interviewing and discussing with some of the high level managerial staff of the universities (rectors, vice rectors, deans and vice deans), it was stated that some of their staff applying for advancement of their academic title included in their CV articles that were published in some journals included in Beall’s list. The interviewed officials explained that those articles found on Beall’s list were not taken into consideration for the advancement of academic position of their academic staff, and due to such articles and the lack of articles published in credible journals, some lecturers were not promoted from Assistant Professor to Associated Professor and other academic titles.

In order to help their staff, the Senate of two public universities in Kosovo approved the recommendations of the 34 databases of journals and publishers in which the articles of their academic staff were published, and this was a condition for accepting an article for their advancement (Haxhi Zeka University, 2016). Web of Science and Scopus were listed as the first two databases. According to this recommendation, articles listed in the databases 3 to 34 (different from Scopus and Web of Science), but at the same time listed as hijacked or predatory journals, were not counted for the academic advancement of staff. This Recommendation was issued due to the lack of definition as to what an “International Journal” means in Kosovo. This year, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology issued an Administrative Instruction recognizing the principles of international magazines with a review and defining the coefficient (1 or 100%) of five (5) international platforms (MEST, 2018): 1) Web of Science, 2) Scopus, 3) EBSCO, 4) World Cat. and 5) DOAJ. The Ministry allows a university to add platforms but with a lower coefficient starting with 85%. All these legal interventions took place as the Law on Higher Education in Kosovo (Kosovo Parliament, 2011a), and the Statute of Public Universities (Kosovo Parliament, 2011b, 2011c, 2011d), foresaw only a
requirement for academics to publish in peer-reviewed international journals; however, they did not define what an international journal means.

In Kosovo, the legal requirement to become a Professor is to hold a PhD degree (except staff from Arts), to have three years of working experience (for first-time elected Assistant Professors) and to publish an article in a peer-reviewed international journal (three articles to become Associate Professor and five articles for ordinary Professor). In addition, to obtain the title of Associate Professor, they have to publish monographs, while for the title of ordinary Professor they have to mentor a PhD student. Since the debate about Beall’s list appeared, public universities are checking whether the articles of their staff were published in journals included in Beall’s list. However, the universities and the Ministry of Education in Kosovo have not yet clarified legally what it means to publish in an international peer-reviewed journal. The Ministry of Education in Kosovo this year has included the above-mentioned databases in order to ensure that an article is published in a credible journal, meaning those listed on those databases.

The criteria for recruiting academic staff are almost the same in Macedonia but the situation is better in terms of “international journal with peer review”. The legislation on higher education in Macedonia defines what it means to be an international journal and includes Web of Science as a recognised platform (Macedonia Parliament, 2015).

Discussion

The present results are evidence that the academic staffs of the universities under study, especially those in Kosovo, face many challenges in fulfilling the publishing criteria for their career advancement set by their institutions. There was not a clear legal basis for awarding an academic title regarding the condition of “publishing in an international journal with review”. As a result of such a legal gap, some of the academic staff, especially in Kosovo, were not promoted in their academic titles and a lot of publications were not taken into consideration by the University, even though they paid quite a lot of money for their publication. This challenge was mostly faced by the academic staff of Kosovo universities, while in Macedonia this legal gap was removed in 2015 with a Law on amending the Law on Higher Education. In Kosovo, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology approved this year the Administrative Instruction, in this regard. In Kosovo, the criteria for electing academic staff are defined under the above-mentioned law.

In addition, lecturers are very rarely supported by their institutions, as the majority of the respondents declared that they did not receive support from their institutions at all (59%), 23.1% very little, and only 13.2% get support on regular
basis, while 2.6% did not ask for support (see Fig. 9). Therefore, the majority have to cover all expenses themselves in order to publish in international journals and platforms, even though they do not speak the English language, which is not a requirement to become an academic at their institution. This financial aspect is another challenge for the academic staff: 23.6% said that those expenses are not affordable out of their own budget and 2.6% aid yes, while 66.7% said that only in some cases were these expenses affordable from their budget (Fig. 10). The above results show that the amount of money to be spent by the academic staff is very high in comparison with their income. The amount they did pay was from 100–550 euro, while the monthly salary for academics in Kosovo is around 1000 euro; The income for the academics in Macedonia is even lower, if not half of it. Thus, the hypothesis of the present article is proved by the results showing that the academic staff working for universities in these countries is getting very limited support from their institutions to reach high publishing standards.

The hypothesis raised in this article that the academic staff became victims of hijacked and predatory journals, unintentionally or by accident, proved to be true based on the above results, as 87.2% of respondents declared that they were not victims of these fake journals, 7.2% declared yes, and 2.6% were not aware which are fake journals. Indeed, these results are because the universities in Kosovo (consisting of the majority of respondents) are newly-established and their full time academic staffs (the majority of them) have not gone through the advancement procedure and did not face these procedures. Some of the academic staff that did achieve advancement of their academic title had included in their CV journals that were listed in Beall’s list.

Even though the Senate of universities in Kosovo, and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology in Kosovo, have defined the platforms for publication, the problem is not solved as there are still cases where you can find a journal indexed in Scopus, but at the same time in Beall’s list, such was the example of Pharmacology, Toxicology and Pharmaceutics. The Macedonian solution was to legally define the meaning of international reviewed journals as defined under the Law on amending the Law on Higher Education in Macedonia. The same solution has been proposed by Hill (2015). Hill proposed considering the following questions when submitting articles for publication: who is the ‘customer’?; inclusion in databases and indexes; awareness of ethical and legal issues; awareness of open access conventions; what is the peer review process and editorial procedure? Based on such criteria, the current legal base of Kosovo looks only at one of those five criteria, being, the inclusion of journals in databases and indexes. Answers by the respondents of the present research proves that the peer review process and
editorial procedures are not clear in their quality, as 15.5% received confirmation for acceptance of their article for publication within a period from 1 day to 2 weeks. This is an extremely short time for providing a quality review.

Finally, it should be emphasised that Kosovo universities have used Beall’s list as a tool to identify the hijacked and predatory journals. Officials in Kosovo who were interviewed stated that Beall’s list was the only tool used to detect this type of non-credible journals, but they did not set a list of criteria regarding which journals are credible for publications, similar to what has been proposed by Hill.

**Conclusions**

This article presented the main challenges faced by the academic staff of newly-established universities in Kosovo and Macedonia in terms of meeting high standards of publishing articles. The main goal of the present article was to describe such challenges. The article proves that the academic staff of those universities are required to fulfil the highest standards in publishing their articles, such as publishing articles in a foreign language in an indexed journal listed on the most well-known platforms: Web of Science, and Scopus. In order to publish in such journals, academic staff almost always have to cover the expenses without being supported by their institutions. Another challenge faced by the academic staff of these newly-established universities was also the lack of legal definition of “international journal with review.” Since 2015, academic staff in Macedonia, different from those of Kosovo, do have a legal definition of an international journal with review. Due to the lack of legal advice and financial support, the academic staff are very often becoming victims of hijacked and predatory journals, especially those from Kosovo. Nonetheless, both countries and their institutions need to develop criteria to allow their academic staff to assess unfamiliar journals and make informed decisions on the assessment. As Hill stated, those criteria must first be developed and then communicated to the academic staff.

The positive effect of the proposed solution is to help the academic staff not become victims of hijacked and predatory journals by paying the journals and then not getting advancement in academic title. It is important for universities to have more staff with academic titles, which will allow them to start providing doctoral studies. In addition, the universities will benefit from the valuable work of their academic staff.

Future work will focus especially on further determining the criteria for assessing unfamiliar journals through the development of a good educational and publishing plan, as well as software tools for the detection of such journals. This will contribute also in dealing with fake conferences and bogus impact factors.
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Abstract: This paper aimed to share the experiences of young scholars on the quality of research to ensure academic integrity by identifying their perceptions and practices of research and publication in the field of social sciences and its impact on the quality of their work. By using qualitative research design, the study embarked on the case studies of ten international postgraduate students from different countries who are enrolled in different universities in Malaysia. They were selected by using the convenient sampling technique. In-depth interviews were conducted with the respondents to collect the relevant information, which was then analysed by using the thematic analysis technique. The findings of the study indicated that to fulfil the escalating needs and demands of publications in higher education, research is becoming more challenging with respect to its quality and innovation. Young scholars and researchers in various fields are confronted with various issues related to quality and progression due to lack of knowledge about academic integrity matters. On the other hand, demands of the quantity of research publications often endanger quality in research, and the use of fake publication sources threatens young scholars to get their degrees on time as well being alarming for their career progression in academia. The study concludes that even though the trends of global education and research culture are increasing day-by-day, the eminence and novelty of research are still exigent due to researchers’ personal progression and the competition in academia. This study recommends the promotion of quality-based publication horizons to meet the ever-increasing demands and needs of research publications in order to achieve academic progress.

Keywords: academic integrity, higher education, quality in publication, research

Introduction

Academic integrity is reflected through the fairness, respect and professional conduct of educational activities. Anderson, Shaw, Steneck, Konkle and Kamata (2013) assert that academic integrity builds upon honesty and trust in teaching and research. Plagiarism is a serious offense that affects academic integrity. Many studies
Adeela Rehman

(Bretag et al., 2013; Howard & Robillard, 2008; McCabe, Trevino, Butterfield, & McCabe, 2001) highlight plagiarism as the most heated rupture of academic integrity, due to the need to safeguard the originality and honesty of scholarly works.

In the meantime, research is an integral component of higher education which seems an easy and simple task, but its quality and misconduct to encourage authors to produce more in number remains delinquent. Although the issue has been raised and emphasised at various national and international forums, institutionalised efforts are still needed to ensure academic integrity (Godecharle, Nemery, & Dierickx, 2013; Titus, Wells & Rhoades, 2008; Wager, 2013). This paper reflects on the association between research publication and academic integrity as well as the challenges faced by young scholars to ensure quality-based research work. In this regard, globalization plays an important role in promoting global education and research culture. This is evident through the influx of international degrees being offered and these students endure their research obligations. Here, students not only seek opportunities to benefit from their academic experience, but also to build up their social and professional networks within a global context (Fleischaman, Lawley, & Raciti, 2010). On the other hand, in regards to the quality of research and academic integrity, young scholars are confronted with numerous challenges in fulfilling the academic requirements of professional growth. Shaw and Erren (2015) also highlight that research malpractice with respect to plagiarism and the number of publications are the greatest threat to professional integrity.

**Problem Statement**

The quantity and quality of research are important indicators to measure institutional performance, research funding, recruitment and promotion of faculty members. However, little consideration has been given in subjectively measuring performance based on internationally-accepted standards which threaten integrity in academia. Many previous studies (Kasperkevic, 2014; Van-Noorden, 2010; Wolverton, 1998) highlight the matter of quantifiable measurements of individual performances in academia, and it is challenging to address the quality of research publications. Competition to publish more is increasing in academic culture; which is quite challenging for young scholars with less publications and citations, as well as the difficulty of identifying the best and most acceptable journals in which to publish their papers.

The present study focuses on the inclination and challenges faced by young scholars to compete in the academic world as postgraduate students and as faculty members. This study will highlight the experiences of young scholars to meet the quantity-within-quality of research publication to ensure academic integrity.
Objectives

The following objectives were formulated to address the aforementioned issue:

- To identify the scholar’s perception and practices about research publications with respect to their quantity and quality.
- To explore the challenges faced by young scholars in regard to the quantity and quality of research publications.
- To relate the scholars’ perception of quantity and quality of research publications with academic integrity.

Significance of research

The study will highlight the challenges encountered by the research scholars with respect to the quantity and quality of research publications. As a quality-based publication is challenging and demanding, the findings of this study will allow policy-makers to re-think the measurement indicators used to evaluate the performances of faculty members in various disciplines. The analysis will also foster the knowledge of the academician and postgraduate students to produce research work to meet both the required quantity and quality.

Methodology

This section comprises the research design and method used to accomplish the study.

Research Design

The research was qualitative in nature in which in-depth interviews were conducted with international postgraduate research students studying in Malaysia.

Sample

The interviews were conducted with ten international students. The students were randomly selected based on their availability and willingness to provide information for the study.

Instrument of the Study

An interview guideline was used to conduct the interviews since the respondents were asked open-ended questions that focused on their research experiences and quality.
Data Analysis

After collecting the data, thematic analysis was performed. The collected information was sorted into different themes and explanations were based on the relevant literature.

Results & Discussion

The results of the study are divided into two parts; Part 1 presents the demographical characteristics of the respondents and Part 2 consists of thematic analysis of the study.

Part 1: Demographics of the Respondents

The demographical information of the respondents with respect to their country, gender and level of study is illustrated below:

Table 1: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents’ Demography

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The data in the above table illustrate that the majority of the students were from Nigeria while the least number of participants belong to Indonesia. There were an equal number of students from Bangladesh, India and Pakistan who
participated in the study. Malaysia has the highest number of postgraduate students from all these countries. There were 135,000 international students enrolled in Malaysian institutions in 2014 coming from Bangladesh, China, Indonesia, Pakistan, India and Nigeria (ICEF, 2016). There is wide diversity of the international students in Malaysia due to its cost effectiveness (Study Malaysia, 2017), reflecting the trend of globalization where more people are getting degrees abroad.

Gender-wise, there was an equal distribution of the respondents for the study. A majority (80%) of the respondents were pursuing a postgraduate degree in public educational institutions. The high percentage of those getting a doctorate-level degree from foreign universities itself indicates the trends of global research-oriented culture.

**Part 2: International Students and Research Culture**

The inclinations of global education are fostered with the advancement of globalization which has resulted in a prospering research culture. It also creates new avenues for interdisciplinary studies and research. The influx of international students coming from various countries leads to fluctuation in the level of knowledge and experiences due to their wider interest in the field of social sciences. Consequently, the emerging trends of international education and the trends and values of obtaining international degrees are increasing, particularly at postgraduate level. Pereda, Airey and Bennett (2007) also state that international students are different from local students in the context of culture, language and educational experience, which can also be reflected in their research work.

The current state of interdisciplinary research in the social sciences promotes the common interest through frequent academic and research interactions via substantive seminars and conferences. Thus, the research culture has been associated with faster publication.

Due to the high number of international students in Malaysia, interdisciplinary research has moved beyond simple collaboration and now means teaming up to integrate data, methodologies, perspectives, and concepts from multiple disciplines in order to advance fundamental understanding or to solve real world problems. One of the respondents mentioned that:

*Being an international student in Malaysia, I got the opportunity to meet with a number of professors who have lots of publications and excellent knowledge of their respective field. By collaborating with them, I have increased my own research potentiality and produce many research papers in impact factor journals.*
Similarly, another respondent stated:

*As an international PhD student, I have published a few papers in high quality conferences and two to three papers in indexed journals within the three years of my degree. The global environment of scholars from various countries assisted me to enhance my research abilities and to work with them to increase my publications.*

The researcher’s own experience of being an international student can verify the above mentioned responses. In this regard, the global exposure to interaction with intellectual minds belonging to various countries and their varied experiences of research enlightened the researcher to broaden her research horizons. The ability to conduct a number of research studies in collaboration with experts also boosts the interests and competition of publications in the academic world. Edward and Roy (2017) pointed that incentives for the researcher merely focus on the quantity of their scientific performance.

According to one of the respondents:

*Individual publishing in social sciences is difficult. The involvement of other researchers of various backgrounds with research experience enabled me to improve my writing abilities to produce good research papers. I always respect the suggestions and guidelines of the experts as well as my peers’ input in my research work. Together we can escalate the research culture in academia.*

Analysis shows that research is an integral part of postgraduate studies, the international exposure and networking increase research activities across the disciplines. As mentioned by some of the respondents, research publications are quite challenging due to their demands and the nature of the studies; establishing networks with other researchers/experts across disciplines is in the interest of the research and its publication.

**Academic Integrity and Research**

Academic integrity is understood as the professional and ethical values a researcher needs to follow in order to avoid any misconduct or dishonesty in writing and publication. The researcher sought to explore the postgraduate students’ perceptions and practices of academic integrity in this research in order to ascertain their commitment and trustworthiness in their work.

The majority of the students’ perception of academic integrity in research is to avoid plagiarism and breaching the data. One of the respondents stated this as:

*For me, academic integrity means I should minimise plagiarism in my research, although 100% cannot be avoided due to the extensive research available in the market.*
Similarly, another respondent mentioned that:

*I think that being a postgraduate student, it is my responsibility to follow the ethical considerations of the research. I tried not to breach academic integrity in my research. I presented the original data without any fabrication and misrepresentation of the data. So I think I am honest with my work and every postgraduate student should also be.*

In contrast to the above mentioned response, another participant said:

*I know the research ethics and plagiarism guidelines ensure academic integrity in my work. But sometimes, consciously or unconsciously, we postgraduate students need to play with the data to produce the desired results, such as a minor change of data or adding forged data. In my opinion, as 100% correct data and 100% actual research is not possible due to the number of constraints, such as needing urgently a publication to appear in the viva exam, demand of a number of publications, etc., some delinquencies occurring in the research might threaten its academic integrity.*

The above-mentioned excerpt illustrates that students do not consider the breaching of academic integrity is an unethical matter. A study by Rehman and Waheed (2014) supported the argument by highlighting the research findings of a qualitative study conducted on postgraduate students’ research activities. The findings illustrated that academic dishonesty among students is considered a normal part of their studies, as various misconduct in their research were reported.

Institutions must have a mechanism to verify and monitor students’ research activities and careful examine the study produced. In response to the provision of institutional ethical guidelines, one respondent mentioned that:

*The university has provided ethical guidelines for conducting research and expects the students to follow them. As an international student, I am not only representing my home university where I am teaching but also my country; therefore it is my responsibility not to breach academic integrity in order to maintain the reputation of my institution and country.*

Universities trust such expectations from international postgraduate students to maintain academic integrity in their studies. As a result of this, students also follow the ethical guidelines when doing research. The argument is supported by Grimes (2004) who stated that 85% of US students considered breaching academic integrity is ethically wrong. It can be assumed that if students feel guilty, they will try to avoid any unethical ways. Huber (2014) also suggested that character building through research publication should be introduced among PhD scholars to highlight their intellectual services to humanity.

In contrast, sometimes students do not know about the concept of academic integrity as they have not been provided any guidelines or regulations from their institutions, as well as not having come across such matters. As one of the respondents quoted:
I don’t know about the ethical matters of publishing my own work, which is considered as self-plagiarism, in the case I submitted my thesis in Turnitin software. The institution has not provided any rules and regulations for publishing some parts of my own work from my own thesis.

The researcher’s observation and experience about the above-quoted excerpt illustrate that every journal has its own guidelines for plagiarism detection, which is usually interpreted through a similarity index. If it matches extensively with already-submitted unpublished thesis work, it is considered as self-plagiarism. Some journals accept an article on the provision of the Turnitin report generated by the institution to check for plagiarism, but some may not accept it. Therefore, due to lack of knowledge about particular matters, students may be hurt from issues of academic dishonesty. A study by Mahmud and Bretag (2013) conducted at Australian universities to explore postgraduate research students’ knowledge of academic integrity also justify the argument by highlighting that students have less knowledge on this matter. Some of the students were not aware of their institution’s policies regarding academic integrity; due to which students were not aware how to avoid breaches of academic integrity.

**Issues and Challenges: Quantity vs. Quality of Research**

The debate on quantity versus quality in scientific publishing is significant and reflects the time and effort utilised to produce high quality research work as opposed to writing numerous low-quality research papers. Unfortunately, in academia, a higher number of publications is often associated with quality, and is usually measured by the number of citations (Michalska-Smith & Allesina, 2017). Similarly, one of the participants of this study illustrated the issue thus:

*Writing good quality papers is difficult in the current trend of focusing on quantity of publications. In social sciences, it is very challenging to produce a greater number of publications with qualitative research, in which you can manipulate the variables and write more articles.*

With respect to the relationship between quantity and quality in research, one respondent said:

*High quantity gives us more respect among colleagues and academia. More and more citations by our peers and students as well as self-citation increase the impact factors of our papers, which leads towards quality of work.*

Michalska-Smith and Allesina (2017) supported the above argument by highlighting the relationship between more productive years with more citations. Consequently, the study found a significant, positive relationship between quantity and quality in relation to the citation counts for each publication. Analysis shows
that more appreciation and rewards resulted in more papers and higher counts on citation; hence, there is a need to address the matter of quality in order to measure academic integrity.

One of the respondents mentioned that:

Because of the competition and requirements for a quantity of papers, a researcher cannot spend too much time producing quality work. Therefore, many times the researcher just manipulates the data and produces many papers, as many as he/she can, from the same data. The quality of publication is only measured through high impact factor journals and indexed journals.

Haslam and Laham (2010) supported the above response by examining associations between the quantity, quality and impact of publication records of 85 research scholars in the field of social sciences, who were traced from during their PhD studies until 10 years post-PhD. The findings illustrated a strong association of impact with quantity, rather than quality, which is demanded in many prestigious institutions.

As a suggestion, one respondent stated:

I think, if a small piece of work is important for a small community, it should be published in an appropriate place, irrespective of its high impact. The nature of work for the targeted audience will increase the quality of the publication through its citation by the relevant people at a relevance place. Although high impact is necessary for academic growth, one should not ruin the value of the research and its intended audience by placing it on a broader and immoral podium.

The findings of this study illustrate that international postgraduate students’ experience of interdisciplinary research broadens their horizon for conducting research on global issues. Nonetheless, due to the increasing demands of publications in academia, innovation is being jeopardised in research. It is also challenging for the researcher and academician to produce quality research with limited time and resources.

Conclusion

This study aimed to gauge the accelerated trends of global education and research culture. It enables countries, especially developing ones, to build partnerships with developed nations in the education sector, not just to improve their education system, but also to broaden research horizons. This enables them to share and learn from each other’s research experience, which not only enhances their individual knowledge but also enables them to increase the international research competencies of their native countries. Global exposure broadens the horizon
of international students to explore a wide arena of multidisciplinary fields by producing high quality research papers.

Besides these trends in higher education and research, various disciplines are still confronted with various issues related to the quality of research. Requirements for scholars to produce more research publications not only jeopardise quality but also undermine the academic integrity of higher education. The perception of postgraduate students about academic integrity is diverse in nature as the majority of students know about academic misconduct but cannot entirely avoid it due to the pressure to publish more papers rapidly. Some of the students were not even aware of the issues and concerns of academic integrity, which is quite challenging for themselves and their institutions. It is concluded that young scholars are optimistic toward enhancing the research culture as well as enhancement of their academic integrity. However, they need institutional support to provide them with unblemished guidelines on research activities and publication in order to enhance the quality of research and academic integrity.

References


Abstract: This paper reviews the prospective role of university libraries (ULs) in preventing plagiarism among Pakistani researchers. A sequential mixed-methods research strategy was used to collect data about the status and prospective role of ULs in preventing plagiarism in Pakistan. A questionnaire-based survey of all central ULs in Pakistan was used to gather basic facts and perspectives, and nine chief librarians who administer text-matching software (Turnitin) in their universities were interviewed in-depth. According to both data sets, most of the librarians have adequate information-technology skills and are willing to play a significant role in preventing plagiarism. They believe, however, that strong support by policy makers and academic authorities would help libraries to be more effective in this task. Towards that end, this paper highlights specific measures that university libraries in Pakistan and other developing countries can employ to combat plagiarism and teach, facilitate and promote the ethical and legal use of information by researchers.

Keywords: anti-plagiarism instruction, detection, Pakistan, plagiarism prevention, role, university librarians

Introduction

Academic plagiarism as a serious academic offence received significant attention in Pakistan when the Higher Education Commission (HEC) of Pakistan started its campaign against plagiarism in 2007. To curb the problem, HEC issued instructions to all universities to implement plagiarism policies, use plagiarism detection/similarity index software, report plagiarism cases, and impose penalties on those who plagiarise. It is mandatory since then that all research work of MPhil and PhD students, along with the international publications of universities’ researchers, must be submitted for checking in anti-plagiarism software (Pakistan Higher Education Commission, n.d.).

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3 The paper is based on data from the PhD study of the first author.
To facilitate access of the software within the universities, HEC instructed the universities to appoint a focal person. The focal persons are authorised to issue a plagiarism-free clearance certificate (based on the similarity index report) for a particular research item. They are also responsible for organizing formal and informal training sessions for instructors on the operational usage of the software. A researcher is bound to get a clearance certificate from the focal person for his/her research work prior to final submission (Piracha, 2011).

Universities selected a person to be appointed as focal person from various units such as quality enhancement cells (QEC), faculties, central libraries, and IT centres (Mansoor & Ameen, 2016). Piracha (2011) reported that in 2007, the Punjab University Library was the only library in Pakistan where the chief librarian was designated as the focal person for this service. He stated that initially, the library had only one licence, but that was not sufficient to meet the demands of the university. Later, HEC acquired the services of Turnitin and the library was declared as Turnitin’s administrator in the University of the Punjab. The library further created instructor login accounts for faculty members involved in PhD programs and their training. He concluded that as a result of these efforts, “now there [in University of the Punjab] is a wave of awareness under which scholars are being guided by the instructors on how to avoid copying others’ work” (p. 131).

The literature indicates that in 2007, HEC was the first higher education governing body in South Asia that had implemented a zero-tolerance plagiarism policy and allocated funds for providing free access to anti-plagiarism software in its recognised public sector universities. In the most advanced neighbouring countries of Pakistan, such as India, organised efforts to control academic plagiarism at higher education level started in 2010 and even after that (Bailey, 2013; India University Grants Commission, 2012).

**Conceptual and Theoretical Framework**

University libraries occupy a central place in the research and development process at higher education level and have a well-established role in facilitating research through the organization and dissemination of information. As part of the libraries’ research support role, many research scholars have discussed the role of ULs in plagiarism prevention and its prospects, as well as its benefits, for the academic community (Auer & Krupar, 2001; Bartlett & Casselden, 2011; Bronshteyn & Baladad, 2006; Burke, 2005; Gibson & Chester-Fangman, 2011; Lampert, 2008; Peterson, 1988; Sharkey & Culp, 2005; Stubbings & Brine, 2003). However, a visible role for ULs in ensuring the ethical use of information to promote academic
The role of university libraries in preventing plagiarism

integrity at the level of higher education institutions is still getting off the ground in countries like Pakistan.

The literature indicates that there are two roles that ULs play in helping their institutions to control plagiarism, (a) as a detection officer/assistant (Burke, 2005; Wood, 2004), and (b) as an anti-plagiarism instructor (Forbes, 2007; Kloda & Nicholson, 2007; Lampert, 2004). As detection assistants, some university librarians provide help to their faculties in detecting plagiarism in the students’ assignments through personally-developed techniques for finding matching text available on Google and other web sources (Burke, 2005; Wood, 2004), while others are playing a role through the formal participation of their libraries in anti-plagiarism software services purchased by their university administrations (Kloda & Nicholson, 2007; Piracha, 2011).

As anti-plagiarism instructors, university librarians are creating awareness regarding the fair use of information and knowledge through information literacy instruction programs (Boden & Holloway, 2004; Bronshteyn & Baladad, 2006; Forbes, 2007; Lampert, 2004). The libraries also use workbooks, instructional handouts, manuals, bibliographical instruction programs, library orientations, and websites to educate the students. These help the students and faculty to learn about the ethical use of information by appropriately citing previous research and avoiding unintentional plagiarism.

The majority of studies conducted in Pakistan on the subject of plagiarism reveal that conceptual awareness regarding plagiarism and its implications is lacking among students (Cheema, Mahmood, Mahmood, & Shah, 2011; Nazir & Aslam, 2010). Students are also unaware of their university’s plagiarism polices (Murtaza, Zafar, Bashir, & Hussain, 2013; Ramzan, Munir, Siddique, & Asif, 2012). Along with this, a remarkably low level of awareness was also found about correct referencing methods and the use of quotation marks in both students and faculty (Shirazi, Jafarey, & Moazam, 2010).

Therefore, scholars suggest that, in addition to HEC’s current efforts, there is a strong need to adopt a “multi-pronged strategy” to increase awareness (Cheema et al., 2011; Khan, 2012) and information skills (Farooq & Haroon, 2014) among researchers along with inculcating ethical and moral values among students at an early age (Aslam & Nazir, 2011) in order to control plagiarism effectively. This strategy may include the establishment of academic integrity centres in universities and such centres can be part of the central university library (Soroya, 2014) along with introducing full-fledged courses on research ethics (Shukr, 2014) in universities. Moreover, Turnitin software can be used in a more effective manner,
as a formative learning tool to enhance students’ writing skills against plagiarism, as compared to its current status as detection software only (Rana & Tuba, 2015).

As the literature indicates, identifying and punishing plagiarism is not enough and there should be more efforts to create awareness by inculcating the values of hard work and honesty and developing information literacy skills in researchers to control plagiarism in Pakistan. The authors of this study theorised that university libraries have the potential to play a critical role in undermining plagiarism through instructing researchers on information skills and the ethical use of information. In this regard, the perceptions of librarians regarding the potential of an anti-plagiarism role for ULs are very important, along with weighing up the current level of participation of university libraries in the anti-plagiarism campaign in Pakistan. However, no study was found in the literature exploring this potential role of university libraries and examining this particular aspect in Pakistan. Therefore, this study was aimed at exploring the experiences and perceptions of university librarians on this aspect.

The research questions of the study were:

1. To what extent are university libraries involved in various anti-plagiarism activities in Pakistan?
2. How do university librarians perceive the role of ULs in preventing plagiarism, and what do they suggest as effective means to achieve it?

Methodology

The study is based on a selection of data collected by the first author during her doctoral research (Mansoor, 2016). A pragmatic theoretical lens was required to collect data on the exploratory and explanatory nature of the research questions. Therefore, a Mixed Method sequential explanatory research design was adopted, with a quantitative phase in first stage to determine the current situation of libraries’ anti-plagiarism practices and participation. This was followed by a qualitative phase to examine the prospects of the role of ULs in plagiarism prevention in the view of university librarians.

The survey method was used in the quantitative phase to collect data from a dispersed population with a questionnaire as the instrument in order to maintain the objectivity of the findings. To get a complete picture on how much university libraries are participating in anti-plagiarism activities, a structured questionnaire was designed.

At the time of the instrument’s development, two relevant studies (Gibson & Chester-Fangman, 2011; Kloda & Nicholson, 2007) were found containing
questionnaires with the aim of collecting data from academic librarians on their libraries’ anti-plagiarism practices and the role of librarians. These studies were analysed and relevant constructs were derived. The views of some LIS experts on information literacy and plagiarism detection in Pakistan were also taken into consideration during the development of the initial questionnaire. Furthermore, personal observations of the researcher and information about the current practic-es of ULs in Pakistan helped in the development of variables for the questionnaire.

In order to check the reliability of the instrument, a pilot study was conducted in March 2014 on a purposive sample of four ULs in Lahore city. Cronbach’s alpha values ranging from .80 to .94 were obtained for the items; it was therefore considered to be good. To check the face and content validity of the instrument, expert opinion was sought from senior library professionals at the central library of the University of the Punjab. These library professionals were assisting in the plagiarism detection service and were considered aware of the nexus between libraries and plagiarism prevention. A few faculty members from the Department of Information Management at the University of the Punjab were also consulted to review the instrument. Following the recommendations of these experts, some statements were rephrased to improve the readability and layout of the question-naire. The questionnaire was sent in June 2014 to 144 ULs; and with multiple reminders, 99 responses were received by October 2014. The data were then ana-lysed with the help of statistical software SPSS.

In the second qualitative phase, the interview technique was used to get in-depth understanding and explanations of the variables associated with the pro-spective role of ULs. The findings of the questionnaire survey revealed that 13 ULs were officially assigned to manage the plagiarism detection service and were found to be providing anti-plagiarism guidance to users on a regular basis. There were 29 more ULs which were providing detection services on an informal basis and were occasionally involved in anti-plagiarism guidance activities. On the other hand, the libraries that were not involved in the provision of the service were rarely involved in anti-plagiarism guidance activities. Therefore, it was decided that to get a meaningful picture of the prospective role of ULs in plagiarism de-tection and prevention, the group of library heads who not only had experience in managing the plagiarism detection software service in their libraries but were also providing anti-plagiarism guidance on regular basis would be approached for interview. A consent letter was sent to the 13 library heads; however, only nine gave their consent to be interviewed. The interviews were conducted in 2015 and data were analysed thematically.
Findings and Discussion

University libraries and anti-plagiarism activities

The ULs were asked in which anti-plagiarism activities they were currently involved and to what extent. The data established that ULs were participating in two types of anti-plagiarism activities, i.e. plagiarism detection (Turnitin software) based practices (Table 1) and anti-plagiarism guidance based practices (Table 2) in Pakistan. To participate in detection-based activities, a UL should have access of Turnitin software and the data indicated that out of 99 responding ULs, only 42 confirmed that they have access to Turnitin software.

Among those 42 ULs, almost 70% were involved formally and informally in checking PhD and MPhil theses for potential plagiarism cases through Turnitin and 67.5% were also providing training to their faculty members on software usage. Thus, the data indicates that an active participation of ULs in providing Turnitin based services existed wherever the libraries were engaged.

Table 1: Frequency Distribution of Status of Turnitin-based Services of ULs (N=42)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turnitin Services</th>
<th>Not at All</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Similarity check for PhD and MPhil theses and issuance of certificate</td>
<td>3 (7.3%)</td>
<td>10 (24.3%)</td>
<td>29 (70.7%)</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Checking research work on informal request of the researcher</td>
<td>2 (5%)</td>
<td>11 (27.5%)</td>
<td>27 (67.5%)</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educating the use of “Turnitin” to faculty</td>
<td>5 (12.5%)</td>
<td>7 (17.5%)</td>
<td>28 (70 %)</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Always

However, with regard to guidance based activities, the occurrence frequencies (Table 2) were found less regular among the survey-responding libraries. Almost 43% ULs were regularly offering anti-plagiarism guidance at the reader and reference desks and conducting workshops along with introducing plagiarism policies in their library orientation programs. Less than 40% ULs mentioned use of the library website as a regular medium to instruct researchers about plagiarism.
Table 2: Frequency Distribution of Current Anti-plagiarism Guidance Practices of ULs (N=99)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anti-plagiarism Guidance Practices</th>
<th>Not at All</th>
<th>Sometimes/Often</th>
<th>Mostly/Always</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Instructional guidance at reader and reference desks against plagiarism</td>
<td>17 (17.3%)</td>
<td>39 (39.9%)</td>
<td>42 (42.8%)</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating in workshops on anti-plagiarism education (referencing skills, etc.)</td>
<td>23 (24%)</td>
<td>32 (33.3%)</td>
<td>41 (42.7%)</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introducing plagiarism policy into library orientation programs</td>
<td>30 (31.6%)</td>
<td>24 (25.2%)</td>
<td>41 (43.1%)</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating awareness against plagiarism through library website</td>
<td>33 (35.1%)</td>
<td>25 (26.5%)</td>
<td>36 (38.2%)</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photocopying restrictions</td>
<td>19 (20.4%)</td>
<td>40 (43.01%)</td>
<td>34 (36.5%)</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborating with the faculty on anti-plagiarism classroom learning</td>
<td>26 (27.7%)</td>
<td>35 (37.2%)</td>
<td>33 (35.1%)</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing leaflets on plagiarism policy at reader/reference desk</td>
<td>38 (39.2%)</td>
<td>33 (34%)</td>
<td>26 (26.8%)</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scale: 1 = Not at all, 2 = Sometimes, 3 = Always

**Perceptions on role of ULs in preventing plagiarism**

The survey participants were asked to share their opinions on the role of ULs in fighting plagiarism as part of their library’s research support obligation. The findings revealed that 87 respondents (Fig. 1) considered provision of anti-plagiarism guidance as part of a library’s research support role and among the librarian’s prime responsibilities. Some of them commented that ULs are the best places to initiate awareness against plagiarism because these are “the hub of information and research” and “heart of an institution”.

Figure 1: Library’s role in combating plagiarism as part of research support role
The interviewees were asked to share their experiences as active members of the anti-plagiarism campaign in their universities and to suggest methods which ULs should adopt to play an effective role in the campaign.

**Detection through similarity index software**

Six out of nine interviewees believed that a role for the library in the detection of plagiarism through the Turnitin service has benefits for the library itself and academia. They perceived that such a role is similar to verifying information authenticity, and libraries are bound to serve in information-related matters.

Three interviewees claimed that the provision of this service through the libraries has ensured and increased the checking process of research work within their universities. One of them declared that wherever librarians have taken over responsibility for the service, use of the software has increased. Another explained similarly that in her university the researchers feel it more convenient to visit the library for the service as compared to the Quality Enhancement Cell (QEC) office of the university because the researchers find the attitude of librarians more cooperative compared to the attitude of QEC staff members.

The interviewees claimed that the service increased the interaction of researchers with the library. They claimed that this interaction exerts a positive impact on the value of their library and its resources. One interviewee expressed it thus:

*We are happy. The presence of this service has also increased the number of students visiting daily and people are recognizing our efforts. It has increased the use of our other resources. Although it has put pressure on library staff, I feel it increases our worth as well. I recommend that this service should be provided through libraries. It will be beneficial for all.*

However, three interviewees rejected any participation of ULs in the detection service. They argued that librarians should not be involved in this service because it is not primarily their department and librarians are not trained to use this software or to detect plagiarism. They said that the service should be managed by the QEC of a university. However, they still believed in a library’s role in providing anti-plagiarism guidance as part of research support activities. They argued that instructing on plagiarism avoidance is more valuable and helpful in preventing plagiarism than merely detecting the similarities between two documents.

**Instruction plans**

All interviewees believed that lack of conceptual awareness and lack of information skills among researchers in the struggle against plagiarism are major causes of its prevalence and so provision of instructional help against plagiarism by the
libraries would be more beneficial for the research scholars. The interviewees stressed that librarians have expertise on information skills and are trained resource persons to guide and facilitate researchers on matters regarding information and especially on referencing skills and tools. Two interviewees were of the opinion that their libraries function as research wings in their universities. One interview we conducted was with a member who holds the portfolio of Director of Research in his university. His library, and not the university’s QEC, is responsible for ensuring the quality of research through the training of research skills and creating awareness on information ethics. Interviewees believed that universities should prefer to use librarians as resource persons to share the sole burden on faculty members for advising students. They asserted that joint efforts by faculty and librarians may bring more fruitful results against plagiarism.

Six interviewees considered workshops as the most preferable medium of instruction at the ULs for creating awareness and training researchers against plagiarism. Few interviewees mentioned that conducting information literacy programmes and inclusion of special courses were more fruitful. They stressed that such programs and courses should include understanding the implications of plagiarism, effective information searching skills, citation manuals, and software skills and writing skills as primary features.

Figure 2: Perceptions on an instructive role for ULs

An instructive Role of ULs against plagiarism

Library as Research Support Center

- Training
  - Information skills
    - Searching
    - Organizing
    - Citing
    - Citing software
    - Paraphrasing
    - Critical thinking and writing

- Methods of instruction
  - Workshops
  - Information literacy program & courses
  - Reader & Reference desk

- Awareness
  - Types of plagiarism
  - Implications of plagiarism
  - Reference manuals
  - Importance of providing references in research
The views of the interviewees support the authors’ assumption that university libraries have the potential to assist in plagiarism prevention. However, it appears that to get maximum benefits from libraries, their formal induction into the anti-plagiarism campaigns of universities is essential.

Conclusions

University libraries are contributing to anti-plagiarism missions in Pakistan. However, due to certain reasons such as lack of acknowledgment and support from administration, and low frequencies of anti-plagiarism guidance practice, the ULs’ contribution is not sufficiently visible. The formal induction of ULs in any already-established plagiarism controlling mechanism of a university can be beneficial, and ULs can contribute to this by offering regular anti-plagiarism-based information literacy instruction programs and workshops. Libraries should be officially involved in anti-plagiarism activities and encouraged to accelerate their guiding practices by their respective administrations.

References


The role of university libraries in preventing plagiarism


