

A Framework for Discouraging Plagiarism in Higher Education

Charles M. Mueller

The aim of this paper is to propose an eight-point framework for reducing plagiarism among university students. Prior to presenting this framework, the paper will briefly discuss the definition of plagiarism, reasons why it is a serious problem, and individual and contextual factors that lead students to engage in this unethical behavior. The paper will then discuss how plagiarism can be reduced through the fostering of appropriate attitudes, development of requisite research and writing skills, design of appropriate assignments and curricula, and establishment of consistent institutional guidelines and practices. The final section reflects on some general considerations to be kept in mind when instituting the framework.

Defining Plagiarism

There is considerable consensus regarding the basic features of plagiarism. These features are captured in the definition provided by The Office of Research Integrity ("Definition of Research Misconduct,"), stating that plagiarism "is the appropriation of another person's ideas, processes, results, or words without giving appropriate credit". Eaton's (2017) investigation of definitions of plagiarism at 20 English-speaking Canadian universities showed that some universities opted for broad definitions, such as Concordia University's (2015) statement that plagiarism entails "the presentation of the work of another person, in whatever form, as one's own or without proper acknowledgement" (p. 4). However, most of the 20 universities made explicit mention of (1) written materials, (2) ideas, theories, and concepts, and (3) data or research results, although fewer mentioned digital or creative works.

This general definition leaves some latitude for disagreement regarding specific cases. Clearly, the use of a word or short phrase from another paper may be innocent: authors, after all, do not own language itself. On the other hand, long strings of words or entire sentences are unlikely to reappear by chance in more than one text unless they were copied. This has led some writers to suggest that plagiarism be precisely defined as the borrowing, without giving credit, of a specified number of lexical items from a text, often from around four to seven words (see, for example, Hexham, 1992). While this attempt to develop objective criteria is laudable, these quantitative definitions bring with them several thorny issues. Consider, for example, books specifically designed to provide students with “templates” for academic rhetorical moves. These often provide academic collocations and syntagmatic patterns with open slots that are meant to be adopted and used verbatim, presumably without citation. For example, one popular academic writing primer *They Say I Say With Readings* (Graff, Birkenstein, & Durst, 2006) gives, as a template for introducing a topic, the phrases, “When it comes to the topic of _____, most of us will readily agree that _____” (p. 25). Using even the more lenient word string length criterion, a student’s use of these phrases, taken directly from the book, would clearly be classified as plagiarism.

The issues with quantitative definitions are not confined to students’ use of academic collocations provided by writing textbooks. A recent position paper (McFarlin, Lyons, & Navalta, 2010), for example, states that 46% of the papers submitted to their peer-reviewed journal contained plagiarism. The “plagiarism” in this case referred to authors’ use of language from previous publications, generally their own previous introduction and method sections, without major rewording. Since authors often reuse key background information and methods in subsequent studies, the decision to reuse this language is understandable. The authors give the following as an example (p. 68) of what they regard as

plagiarism:

Published statement: Regular Exercise has a number of health benefits, which can lead to an improved quality of life.

Plagiarized version: Exercise Training has a number of health benefits, leading to improved quality of life. (11 of 16 plagiarized words, 68.7% plagiarized)

Properly Rewritten: It is well documented that regular physical activity can lower fasting cholesterol and glucose, which may reduce morbidity. (0 of 16 plagiarized words, 0% plagiarized)

It is difficult to make much sense of this. First, the “plagiarism” being referred to consists almost entirely of instances of self-plagiarism (a topic taken up below); moreover, the so-called plagiarized version is clearly a paraphrase. The “properly rewritten” version, on the other hand, does not even contain the same content. While the authors could have perhaps taken the time to find synonyms and rephrasing to ensure that the language for their new submission was more distinct, it is unclear how this would serve the general aims of the academic establishment.

In the current paper, *plagiarism* will not be defined simplistically as reuse of borrowed words and phrases for the obvious reason that words and phrases are reused as a matter of course in language. Rather, it is here argued that the plagiarized words or ideas must constitute elements that are sufficiently distinctive within the original text to warrant concern. While objective and quantitative measures are desirable, they are not always practical or valid. Bouville (2008) is thus correct in asserting that mechanical reliance on word

string length and software to spot plagiarism is ill-advised.

A highly contentious issue in the literature on plagiarism involves so-called “self-plagiarism” , which involves the recycling of materials from one’s own previous publication without acknowledgement. In academic publishing, limited reuse of material is often deemed permissible (Bruton & Rachal, 2015), but the line separating acceptable from egregious practices is still debated. Self-plagiarism often occurs in the form of so-called “salami-publishing” , in which authors seek to inflate the number of their publications by needlessly dividing their research output into multiple publications with largely redundant content. While this strategy achieves the laudable aim of disseminating knowledge, it is inherently dishonest if the author is presenting previously published research as an original contribution. Many scholars (Offutt, 2016) have voiced strong opposition to treating self-plagiarism as a form of plagiarism, yet it has also been pointed out that text recycling can, in fact, run afoul of the law when a third party, such as a journal, owns the copyright to previous work that is duplicated without permission (Eaton & Crossman, 2018).

Within the context of higher education, self-plagiarism can often take the form of students resubmitting old papers or reworking them for another assignment without informing the instructor that this has been done. Research suggests that both students and faculty are often unclear regarding the concept of student self-plagiarism and that faculty members seldom discuss the dangers of self-plagiarism with their students (Halupa & Bolliger, 2013).

Plagiarism can also be defined in terms of the psychological states and cognitive processes of the person engaged in the behavior. An important distinction is related to intent. In many cases, writers may actively aim to deceive readers regarding the source of the borrowed material. In other cases, there may be unconscious errors stemming from faulty source recall (Hollins, Lange, Berry, & Dennis, 2016; Perfect & Stark, 2012). Faulty recall is presumably exacerbated

by poor tracking of sources during the research process itself.

Research on plagiarism has often employed taxonomical classifications. Walker (2010), for example, distinguishes student plagiarism as (1) sham (presenting quoted material as if it were paraphrased), (2) verbatim (copying material from a source), and (3) purloining (submitting a substantial part or all of another student's work as one's own). Howard (1999) has introduced the term *patchwriting* to describe unintentional plagiarism that involves "copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one synonym for another" (p. xvii). Yet it must be acknowledged that patchworking is often used to conceal plagiarism. Moreover, the use of paraphrase as a *conscious* strategy to avoid detection is now enhanced through the emergence of internet-based paraphrasing tools (Rogerson & McCarthy, 2017).

This paper will adopt Concordia University's (2015) more general definition of plagiarism as "the presentation of the work of another person, in whatever form, as one's own or without proper acknowledgement" (p. 4). Furthermore, plagiarism will be regarded as more flagrant if it involves the uncredited use of others' works (versus one's own previous publications) and particularly if the borrowing of words coincides with the borrowing of the distinctive ideas of another author. From an ethical standpoint, intentional borrowing with the aim of misleading the reader will be regarded as particularly problematic.

Why Plagiarism is a Problem

There has been a growing interest in plagiarism (Macfarlane, Zhang, & Pun, 2014) due to the emerging realization that it represents an attack on key values within the academic world. A pressing concern, of course, is its prevalence. Research (Blum, 2009) suggests that plagiarism among students is quite common. Walker (2010), in one of the rare objective accounts of the

occurrence of plagiarism, examined 1,098 papers from 569 students at a New Zealand university using the plagiarism detection service Turnitin (<https://www.turnitin.com/>). Plagiarism of some sort was detected on 26.2% of the papers. Extensive plagiarism was found in just over 10% of the papers. Purloining was rare, constituting just 1% of the total.

As plagiarism constitutes an ethical lapse, some have voiced concern that it has a contagious effect. The behavior is likely to be modelled by others (e.g., junior classmates) leading to denigration of institutional standards (Traniello & Bakker, 2016). Yet its ethical import need not be entirely based on immediate consequentialist concerns. Experiments show that people perceive plagiarism as wrong even when there is minimal harm to the originator of an idea (Silver & Shaw, 2018). This suggests that adverse reactions to plagiarism are associated with basic human emotional responses to perceived unfairness. In short, people balk at others' devious attempts to enhance their reputation.

Factors Facilitating Plagiarism

Plagiarism occurs due to a constellation of contextual and individual factors. A key contextual driver behind current concerns is technological innovation. With the Internet, there is a ready availability of sources that can be easily downloaded or copied (Jereb et al., 2018). A more sinister development is the increase in “paper mills”, websites that sell or even produce papers for students for a fixed fee (Anderson, 1999; Dickerson, 2007).

Another contextual factor is related to cultural attitudes that influence students' perception of plagiarism. Cross-cultural differences are highly contentious as certain generalizations are sometimes perceived as stigmatizing a population. That said, some research (e.g., Bloch & Chi, 1995) suggests that attitudes toward citation practices are significantly influenced by cultural context. For example, Bikowski and Gui (2018) found differences between

Chinese students studying in China and Chinese students studying in the U.S. based on the participants' verbal reactions to videos describing instances of textual borrowing. Specifically, they found that the students studying in the U.S. expressed more negative views of unattributed copying from a text. Rinnert and Kobayashi (2005), using questionnaires and interview responses, similarly found that Japanese university students had less knowledge of source citation practices relative to their U.S. peers, and that they were more open to borrowing words and ideas without citation. On the other hand, other studies (T. A. Hyland, 2009; Martin, 2012; Teeter, 2015) have failed to find significant cross-cultural differences.

A prevalent idea in many discussions regarding plagiarism and culture is that the East-Asian Confucian tradition has been at odds, in important ways, with Western notions of intellectual property (Sowden, 2005). Echoing this view, Balve (2014) claims that Confucian emphasis on the authority of instructors “makes it difficult for Chinese and Japanese students to adopt the Western model of critical discourse” and has led to an academic culture in which students parrot back the words of their professors with only minor modification (p. 85).

While cultural differences undoubtedly exist, simply equating Confucianism with a culture of plagiarism seems highly problematic (Liu, 2005). As Stone (2008) points out, the notion that Confucian culture did not believe the provenance of the written word to be important is misleading. Rather, attributions were often deemed unnecessary due to scholars' extensive knowledge of classical texts. Moreover, attributions were often provided. Stone also reminds us that the Confucian tradition co-existed with Buddhism, Daoism and other influential traditions, and that even Confucianism itself has varied greatly over time. In sum, claims regarding cultural influences need to be more critically evaluated.

Regardless of national origin, some students resist the temptation to plagiarize; hence, individual factors are likely to play a major role in this area.

A review of 83 empirical papers by Moss, White, and Lee (2018) showed that plagiarism is fostered by an over-emphasis on competition and success, impaired resilience, lack of confidence, impulsiveness, and biased cognitions. Research using the Theory of Planned Behavior framework has found that plagiarism is predicted by lack of self-control (Curtis et al., 2018). Other contributing factors appear to be pressure for good grades, laziness, and poor writing skills (Selemani, Chawinga, & Dube, 2018), as well as negative attitudes toward the class content or the instructor (Park, 2003).

Students writing in a second language are understandably more prone to plagiarize (Keck, 2006; Li, 2013). This appears to be especially true for students with lower L2 proficiency (Keck, 2014). A study of students studying English in Vietnam (Perkins, Gezgin, & Roe, 2018) found that students who plagiarized had significantly lower English ability than those who did not. Finally, there is some evidence that female students plagiarize less (Jereb, Urh, Jerebic, & Šprajc, 2017).

Reducing Plagiarism

The following section examines an eight-point framework (see Fig. 1) for discouraging plagiarism in the higher education context. In response to individual factors leading students to engage in the unethical borrowing of words and ideas, the framework puts forth methods for instilling appropriate attitudes and developing requisite research skills. In response to contextual factors that make plagiarism more likely, the framework addresses curriculum and assignment design and institutional policies.

Discuss plagiarism within the context of research ethics. At the undergraduate level, students are generally unaware of the extent to which research publications function as a sort of currency within the academic world,

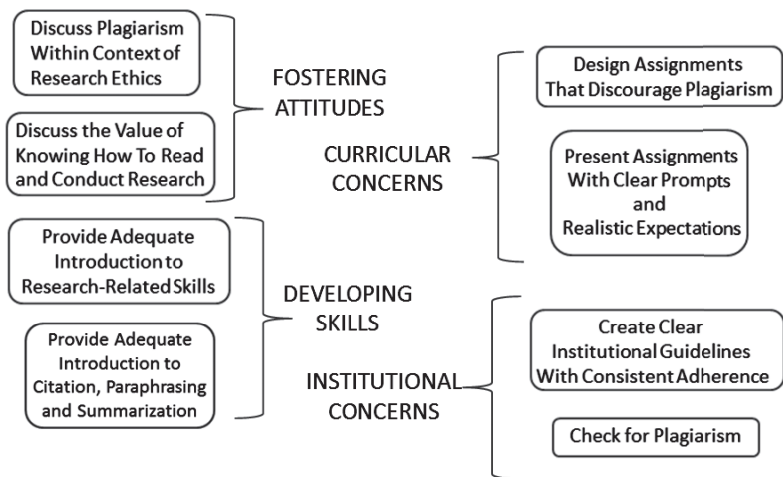


Figure 1. An eight-point framework for reducing plagiarism in higher education.

determining scholarly reputation and opportunities for advancement. For this reason, universities need to make students aware of how ideas and scholarly work is credited. While this information should be imparted in the context of classes on writing and research, it can also be provided in more piecemeal fashion by associating ideas discussed in class with specific scholars and published works. In other words, much of the learning about how attribution functions in the academic world comes from emulating appropriate behavior modeled by instructors. Scandals involving ethics violations by high-profile scholars or politicians (Tudoroiu, 2017) may also provide an opportunity to discuss the serious sanctions against plagiarism within the academic community. Regardless as to whether our definitions of plagiarism include self-plagiarism, students also need to be aware of ethical violations associated with turning in the same work, or portions of the same work, for a second assignment without informing the instructor.

Point out the value of knowing how to read and conduct research. Students often perceive research writing assignments as yet another hoop to jump through in order to pass a class and graduate. In this sense, apathy toward research and citation standards may reflect a general state of demotivation regarding learning. As Blum (2009) says,

As long as contemporary students regard their university years as simply a stage of life that must be endured—and this may be a hard reality for academics to accept—there will be a fight for their attention. Scaring them into honoring the rules of attribution is unlikely to succeed. What we ultimately desire is for them to want to learn. (pp. 170-171)

Students' motivation to engage in their own original research without resorting to plagiarism will be enhanced if students see a connection between research topics and their own interests and feel that they have a worthwhile contribution to make. It is therefore worth pointing out that the ability to understand research will be crucial throughout their lives as they evaluate research-related findings that they encounter in the news and other sources. Moreover, research skills translate well in many situations in which they must solve complex problems in life or at work.

Provide an adequate introduction to research-related skills. Instructors, who have often been highly active as consumers and producers of research, can easily underestimate how foreign research is to students, who have probably only encountered knowledge ensconced in textbooks and other authoritative works. For this reason, a preliminary step is to expose students to simple research studies in outline form as early as possible.

Students should then be systematically trained in key research skills to include: (1) source identification and evaluation (Pickering, 1998) including web-

based sources (Stapleton & Helms-Park, 2006) along with practical techniques for tracking sources during research such as the use of bibliography managers (e.g., EndNote, RefWorks, etc.), (2) formulation of a research question that is focused, clear, and answerable to guide the research process (Agee, 2009) that is appropriate for the student's skill level, time constraints, and access to information, (3) application of a method and a framework of analysis, and (4) reporting and discussion of findings, with realistic conclusions regarding what can be discovered in a single small study and with appropriate hedging of speculative statements (K. Hyland, 1996).

The four-part IMRD structure (introduction, method, results, discussion) common to most empirical research published in peer-review journals provides an excellent organizational tool for students in most majors, and it also provides a sound structure for the summary of research studies in terms of a research question, what was done to answer the question, what the findings were, and what the findings mean at a practical and/or theoretical level. To assist students in understanding the specific rhetorical moves within the parts of research papers, many excellent books have appeared, some designed specifically for non-native speakers of English (e.g., Glasman-Deal, 2010; Swales & Feak, 2004).

Provide an adequate introduction to citation, paraphrasing, and summarization. Paraphrase and summarization are difficult skills as they require advanced syntactic knowledge related to the reordering of textual elements and advanced lexical knowledge, specifically knowledge of hypernyms and shell words (for a discussion of the latter, see Schmid, 2000). In addition, students need to master a number of collocational patterns common within academic writing. These should be explicitly taught in combination with the associated rhetorical moves (for an excellent attempt to do this, see Graff et al., 2006). For example, phrases conventionally used to refer to what other authors say about a topic (Graff et al., 2006, p. 21) could be taught in a lesson on how to write a

literature review.

When learning how to cite sources, students need to be made aware of the difference between in-text and end-of-text citations. Eventually, they also need to develop a sense of the multiple functions that citations perform. Bizup's (2008) BEAM framework, if adapted for pedagogical purposes, may be useful. He divides citations into background information that the writer relies on, exhibited materials that a writer analyzes and interprets, argumentation with which the writer engages, and method-related materials that provide a governing concept or a means of answering a research question. Even if these different citation functions are not explicitly taught, instructors should take opportunities to show how they are operating in academic texts covered in class.

Students should be reminded that knowledge cannot appear out of thin air: all knowledge comes from either (1) the writer's experience or logical inferences, or (2) from an external source. Consequently, any statement (beyond obvious common knowledge) needs to be backed up by either a logical argument or methodological statement explaining how the student obtained the information (e.g., via their own analysis of data, a survey, or observation) or a citation. Since students are often unaware of how common citation is in academic writing, it helps to go through some sample papers. Students also need to be informed regarding rules for repeating citations within the same paragraph or text. Finally, citations, in addition to constituting an ethical requirement, should be taught as positive elements of good writing that can serve to buttress a statement.

Crucial to the success of any program is the identification and discussion of even minor failures to cite information in early drafts of student work. While it is important to discourage plagiarism, instructors need to remain sensitive to the positive potential inherent in students' appropriation of patterns and collocations within texts. This is especially true in the case of students writing in an L2, who often rely heavily on published papers as models for their own writing (Moskowitz,

2016). A study by Villalva (2006) is instructive. She examined the literary development of two Latina bilingual high school students in the U.S. One of the students made extensive use of patchwriting, but much of the appropriated language was later incorporated into the student's written and oral production (cp. Howard, 1999; Ouellette, 2008).

This being the case, admonitions to students to simply put everything in their own words may oversimplify "the task for students encountering a new discourse, who do not yet possess the appropriate linguistic repertoire necessary for writing about academic or discipline-specific topics" (Pecorari & Petrić, 2014, p. 278). As Moskovitz (2016) argues, modern students inhabit "a world in which copying and pasting has become integral to the practice of writing and in which the repurposing of material...is increasingly the norm" (p. 6). For this reason, students can benefit from practical advice on how to appropriately mine texts for useful expressions and collocations while avoiding plagiarism.

Design assignments that discourage plagiarism. As mentioned earlier, a key cognitive factor leading to plagiarism is students' self-control. Beset with multiple assignments and a perceived lack of time, students may succumb to the temptation to take ethical shortcuts to complete an assignment on time. Even so, "assessment designs that minimize plagiarism opportunities will help to counteract plagiarism regardless of students' level of dispositional self-control" (Curtis et al., 2018, p. 236).

Assignments differ greatly in their susceptibility to plagiarism. The worst, in this regard, are completely open assignments in which students select a general topic freely without constraints or guidelines and with only a single final draft required. On the other hand, assignments that are divided into incremental stages with work at each stage submitted and evaluated do much to deter plagiarism. Ideally, comments on student work submitted at each stage should set the direction for the following stage. Assignments of this type include

portfolio assessment (Hansen, Stith, & Tesdell, 2011) or research assignments conducted in stages based on collaborative work in class (Mueller, 2016). As a general rule, research assignments in which students must submit multiple drafts strongly discourage plagiarism by ensuring that the students do not procrastinate (a behavior that increases the temptation to plagiarize as the due-date for the assignment approaches) and by ensuring that instructor feedback is incorporated in subsequent drafts (which students attempting to plagiarize a text will find difficult to do).

Unique assignments are also useful in this regard (Hansen et al., 2011). For example, a class focused on Lakoff's (1987) theory of cognitive metaphor could include an assignment in which students must watch a speech by politicians running in a current election and identify the ways in which metaphor is being used to frame debates on key issues. In this imagined assignment, the specification of a theoretical framework already limits the number of papers that would be candidates for plagiarism, and the requirement that the data for the assignment be taken from a current media source ensures that useful academic work on the topic is unavailable.

A final feature of assignments designed to reduce plagiarism is that they are likely to engage and challenge the students so that the students feel that the assignment is worthwhile. That said, in some cases, the development of unique assignments every semester may be impractical for some instructors. In this case, it is best to at least rotate the topics each year so that students are less likely to encounter students among their senior classmates who did research on the same topic in previous years.

Present assignments with clear prompts and realistic expectations. Students will be more tempted to plagiarize if they feel they are incapable of completing the assignment. It is therefore imperative that instructors set realistic (yet challenging) goals and provide students with the training and guidance needed

to reach those goals. With this in mind, it is crucial that prompts for assignments are clear. Ideally, they should include key verbs (or nominalized verbs) that delineate the type of research and approaches that would be acceptable. Examples include verbs such as *analyze*, *identify*, *discuss*, *report*, *compare*, *explain*, *define*, and *evaluate*. The relevance of these verbs in prompts should be discussed as well. For example, the verb *analyze* typically means to gain a deeper understanding of some data by sorting the data, often into expert (non-obvious) categories. An *evaluation* involves determining whether something is good or bad based on specific criteria, which are usually informed by theory and prior research.

Both instructor and student expectations also need to be realistic. To cite just one example of an *unrealistic* expectation, it is common to require students to *critically* evaluate previous research in their review of the literature. Unfortunately, even if students understand the nature of the task, their ability to do this is severely constrained by their unfamiliarity with the full range of work in a given field. Even graduate-level students who focus exclusively on a particular area will only gain the ability to do competent critical evaluations of previous research after years of work in their field. Thus, undergraduate students who take such requirements seriously may see plagiarism as the only way to fulfill the assignment's requirements. For this reason, instructors' notion of what students would learn in an ideal world must be tempered by acknowledgement of what is possible.

Create clear institutional guidelines with consistent adherence. A perennial issue for institutions is developing consistent rules and norms that are actually reflected in instructors' practices. Around 40% of U.S. faculty members admit to ignoring cheating (McCabe, Butterfield, & Treviño, 2012). Unfortunately, this attitude is likely to lead to a snowballing effect in which such behaviors become even more prevalent.

Guidelines also need to be communicated to students. Rules regarding plagiarism should be clearly presented and reiterated to students in both research and writing instruction and in the context of assignments. Sufficient follow-up is also needed to ensure that students actually understand the concept of plagiarism (cp. Gullifer & Tyson, 2014). Furthermore, across the institution, there should be consistency in the way that guidelines are interpreted and applied, with flagrant and intentional plagiarism treated as a serious infraction. Student work containing a significant portion of plagiarized passages, indicating that the plagiarism was intentional, should receive a failing grade and should not be otherwise evaluated in terms of content. Strong injunctive norms such as the use of honor codes may also be an effective deterrent if they are actively and appropriately implemented (Curtis et al., 2018; McCabe et al., 2012).

Check for plagiarism. No policies on plagiarism can have an effect if unethical practices are not detected in the first place. In many cases, plagiarism can be detected as the instructor reads through the paper with sensitivity to features that signal the borrowing of words or ideas. Ideally, it will be detected in earlier drafts of a paper and on assignments that students do in their earlier years of their programs. Researcher shows that pointing out instances of plagiarism has some effect by encouraging students to moderate their behavior in later assignments (Walker, 2010).

There are many useful heuristics for detecting inappropriate borrowing. Quite often, plagiarized work will contain unnatural shifts in style. In many cases, especially if students are writing in an L2, there will be unique and colorful phrases that students are unlikely to have coined on their own. As mentioned earlier, the use of other writers' expressions constitutes a gray area; it is my opinion that this is not necessarily a problem. Yet these copied phrases may indicate more flagrant borrowing. To determine whether this is the case, distinctive expressions in a student's written assignment can be put into search

engines along with some of the adjoining text to determine whether more problematic textual borrowing has occurred. In some cases, searches will reveal that much of the language and ideas have been taken from another source, even if some of the original language has been altered through paraphrase.

Many schools also use Internet-based plagiarism detection services (e.g., Turnitin.com). With these services, an instructor pastes a student text into a search box, and the service compares the text to a large database of academic texts. In some cases, the service also adds the student paper to its database, a practice that has led to controversy and legal disputes at both U.S. and Canadian universities (Krsak, 2007).

Plagiarism of ideas can sometimes pose a challenge for detection; however, this form of plagiarism can often be uncovered during student-teacher conferences when the student is asked to explain the ideas in the paper and what led to these ideas. In some cases, students who plagiarize make use of technical terms associated with a particular theoretical framework (e.g., communities of practice), under the false assumption that the term has only a general meaning. Terminology can thus be used to trace writing back to its original source.

When detected, instructors need to be careful to differentiate between different types of plagiarism. In many cases, students have simply lost track of where information came from in their paper. In other cases, students falsely believe that citing an author early in the paper allows them to describe the author's ideas later in the paper without additional citation. However, many students plagiarize knowingly in an attempt to avoid the significant mental effort inherent in conducting and reporting research. These deliberate attempts to evade assignment requirements must be dealt with seriously.

Conclusion

Plagiarism presents inherently difficult (and sometimes heart-wrenching)

decisions. As Blum (2009) straightforwardly states:

So our policing of inclusion, quotation, and so on is a very special kind of law. It is particularly unnatural. We do our students a disfavor if we claim that this law is eternal and obvious, because it is neither. (p. 177)

University instructors have a gatekeeping responsibility; yet, at the same time, they have genuine concern for their students and a desire that they succeed. When student violations result in disciplinary actions, it is important that the student-teacher relationship be reconstituted. As Vehviläinen, Löfström, and Nevgi (2018) point out:

Empathy, compassion and care-ethical reasoning are apparent not only in individual teachers' reactions, but also in narratives in how the pedagogical community, through its procedures, protects the student from stigma and provides a way back to study in the academic community. The collective practices for dealing cautiously with the suspected plagiarism aim at restoring the student's identity as a party in the pedagogical relationship. (p. 15)

It is perhaps inevitable that at least some forms of plagiarism will occur at universities; yet serious infractions can be sharply reduced by designing programs, courses, and assignments that foster appropriate attitudes and develop strong research and writing skills. These skills, attitudes, and appreciation for other's contributions are essential for preparing students to engage as full-fledged members of the academic community.

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