

HELPS FOR RESEARCHING

Choose a topic, text, person or term.

Check in a general dictionary or an encyclopedia to determine the meaning of the term and to get a broad overview of your subject. Examples:

Webster's Dictionary
World Book Encyclopedia

Look for a variety of possible terms or meanings. Ex. Flood, Deluge
This could be done by using a thesaurus such as:

Roget's International Thesaurus
Webster's New World Thesaurus

Once a term is defined, then begin to narrow your focus. Refer to a subject encyclopedia or dictionary. Examples:

Zondervan's Pictorial Bible Dictionary
Baker's Dictionary of Theology

Use the bibliographies from each of the encyclopedia articles.

Once the term is defined by a specialty dictionary or encyclopedia, then look for the term, topic, text, or person in general survey or introduction books on the subject. Examples:

Jensen's New Testament Survey
General introduction to the Old Testament

Then, look for books, such as commentaries, on the specific topic.

Books on the same topic are cataloged in the same area. Find one book on the topic and look at the books on either side for additional information.

Use the index of a book to determine if the term or topic is in the book. More scholarly books include multiple indexes (I.E. author index, subject index, scripture index).

Once the term is manageable, look in journal indexes for latest research on the topic, term, text, or person.

ATLA Religion Database with Full Text ATLASerials

An index of religious periodicals dating back to 1949, as well as over 60 full-text journals in religion.

Religion and Philosophy Collection

A database covering 300 full text journals in the areas of religion and philosophy.

Catholic Periodical and Literature Index

An index covering Catholic periodicals and literature.

Old Testament Abstracts

A collection of abstracts covering topics in the Old Testament.

New Testament Abstracts

A collection of abstracts covering topics in the New Testament.

Christian Periodical Index

An index of Evangelical Christian periodicals covering over 30 years.

Academic Search Elite via EBSCOhost

Full text for more than 2,000 serials, including more than 1,500 peer-reviewed journals. Indexing and abstracts are provided for all 3,466 journals in the collection.

Religious and Theological Abstracts

Abstracts covering religious and theological periodicals and books.

EBSCO e-journals online

Full text of journals for which the Overton Memorial Library holds print subscriptions.

Guide to Social Science and Religion in Periodical Literature

An index of social science and religious periodicals with coverage beginning in 1970.

Restoration Serials Index

An index to churches of Christ periodicals and lectureships.

Southern Baptist Periodical Index

An index covering Southern Baptist periodicals.

Look for reliable Internet resources.

- a. A full-text journal article read from the web is simply a journal article. The form in which it was read is irrelevant.
- b. Reliable Internet resources include postings by government agencies, articles by recognized scholars in a given field of study, and information gained from academic sites (IE, a professor's class notes).
- c. Anonymous articles are always treated as **unreliable** resources.

Full text journal articles found on a database are NOT considered an Internet source.

Essential things you need for bibliographical data

Book:

Author
Title
Place
Publisher
Date
Pages if quoted

Journal article:

Author
Title
Journal name
Volume number
Year
Pages

Last Name, First Name. Title of Book. Place of publication: Publishers Name, Date of Publication. Pages used for paper.

Chapman, Gary. Five signs of a functional family. Chicago, IL: Northfield Publishing, 1997. 144-151 p.

Last Name, First Name. "Title of the Article." Title of Journal. Volume of journal, number or date of issue. Page number of article.

Johnson, Samuel. "The Date of the Exodus." Journal of Biblical Literature. 114, 4 (October 2002), 157-169.

Terms to Define:

Abstract is a brief summary of an article's major points.

Article is a print source, usually published in a newspaper or journal, which provides current information and is generally written by an expert on its topic.

Author is the writer or originator of a book or article. An author search will yield books written by the name entered.

Bibliography is a listing of books available in a field.

Book is several sheets of written or printed paper fastened together between two covers.

Call Number identifies the subject of the book and the exact book. Has two parts: 1. The Dewey Decimal number identifies the subject of the book. 2. The cutter number identifies the author of the book.

Citation is the information identifying a specific book or article. It usually includes author, title, publisher, pages and journal title for articles.

Full-Text is the entire work, usually an article, found on a website.

Index is an alphabetical list at the end of a book telling on what page a particular subject, name or scripture may be found.

Journal a collection of scholarly articles on one subject geared to the serious student.

Keyword is a word found within an online public access catalog record. The fields in which the word can be located are title, author, subject, and note.

Library Catalog is a list of the collection in the library.

Magazine a collection of popular-level articles geared to the general audience.

Monograph is a specialized treatise on a single subject or branch of a subject.

Periodical is a newspaper, magazine, journal or other publication that is published at regular intervals (weekly, monthly, or quarterly).

Periodical Index is a subject or author index to articles in selected periodicals.

Plagiarism is any means, intended or otherwise, of presenting someone else's work as one's own, including undocumented quotations and paraphrases and work written or rewritten by someone else. (see information below)

Reference Collection is a sort of mini-library within a larger library. It covers all the major subjects covered in the larger library, but it does so by means of dictionaries, handbooks, guides, subject bibliographies.

Subject is the principle theme or idea of a book or article. A subject search will yield materials that use that term in the subject field of the record.

Table of Contents is the listing of the titles of the chapters in a book. It is usually at the front of the book.

Title is the inscribed name of a book or article. A title search will yield books having that title.

Title page is the page of a book that list the title, subtitle, author and possibly the publisher and location of the publisher.

Verso is the back title page of a book. Usually the copyright date of the book is located.

Searching the Online Public Access Catalog (OPAC) in the Library

First Screen

Easy screen

Search for:

Using

Key words

Titles

Authors

Subjects

Browse

Search

*To search for an author the author's last name must be typed first, followed by a comma then a space and then the first name. Example:
Osterhaus, James*

Second Screen

Call Number

Title

Author

Copyright Date

221.44 W969T

Text of the Old Testament an introduction to the

Wurthwein, Ernest

1972

200-299 2/2

Number of copies OML has and if copies

are in.

Third Screen

Call Number: 221.44 W969T

Title: Text of the Old Testament an introduction to the Biblia Hebraica

Author: Wurthwein, Ernst

Publisher: Grand Rapids, MI Wm. B. Eerdmans

Publication Date: 1979

Physical Description: xviii, 244 p. , facsims.

LCCN: 79-15492

ISSN: 0-8028-1817-X

Notes:

Bibliography: p. 221-226. Includes index.

Summary:

This translation is based on the expanded and thoroughly revised fourth edition of *Der Text Alten Testaments* (Stuttgart, 1973).

Subjects:

Bible. O.T.—Criticism, Textual

Bible. O.T. English—Manuscripts, Hebrew

Fifth Screen—Card Catalog

221.44 Wurthwein, Ernst, 1909-

W969t Text of the Old Testament: an introduction to the Biblica Hebraica.—Grand Rapids, MI: Wm. B. Eerdmans, 1979.

xviii, 244 p., facsims.

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ISBN: 0-8028-1817-X

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79-15492

Checklist

Have you checked the general encyclopedias?

Have you checked the subject encyclopedias?

Have you checked general introduction books?

Have you checked journal articles?
Have you looked in ATLAS, RSI, CPI?
Have you looked for reliable Internet resources?
Have you looked at bibliographies in books or at the end of journal articles or encyclopedia articles?
Have you looked in the books around the area where you found one that you needed?

Definitions adapted from *Holt Handbook*, 6th ed. Kirszner & Mandell, Boston, MA: Heinle, 20

Revised 08/01/06 by the Library Staff

Anatomy of a Citation

The result of an ATLA Religion Database with ATLASerials or similar article index/database search is usually a list of citations. These citations serve as pointers to where the searcher may locate the actual article. Citations list the author(s), title, source/journal, year and other information useful to finding or identifying the full text of the article. Below is an example of a citation.

“No Son-of-God Christology in Matthew 1.18-25. By: Nolland, John Source:
Journal for the Study of the New Testament, no 62 Je 1996, p 3-12. Publication
Type: Article
Full Text from ATLA: Click here for electronic resource”

Parts of a Citation

Author or Authors

Nolland, John

Title of the Article

No Son-of-God Christology in Matthew 1.18-25

Type of Publication

Article

Journal Title

Journal for the Study of the New Testament

Volume and issue

62
Pages
3-12
Year 1996 Month Je [June]

Searching with Boolean Operators

George Boole, a mathematician, designed a system of logic to produce better searching results. The Boolean operators, AND, OR, and NOT help in conducting a better search for the computer to perform. Boolean operators connect two or more search terms in a way you specify. Searching with Boolean operators is required when using two or three search terms.

John Venn, a mathematician, created the circle diagrams that help illustrate the relationships between the sets used in Boolean logic.

AND

Finds materials containing both search terms.

Jesus Christ **AND** God **AND** Holy Spirit

This will retrieve citations that discuss all three concepts in each article. The more concepts your “AND” together, the fewer records you will retrieve.

Or

Finds materials that contain information on either search terms

Jesus Christ **OR** God **OR** Holy Spirit

This expands your search by retrieving citations in which either or both terms appear. The more concepts or keywords you OR together, the more records you will retrieve.

AND NOT

Finds materials that contain the first search term but not the second term

Jesus Christ **AND NOT** God

Be careful using this, because you would eliminate records discussing Jesus Christ.

The following material was obtained from www.plagiarism.org from the research resources. The materials are printable handouts for educators.

What is Plagiarism

Many people think of plagiarism as copying another's work, or borrowing someone else's original ideas. But terms like "copying" and "borrowing" can disguise the seriousness of the offense:

According to the *Merriam-Webster OnLine Dictionary*, to "plagiarize" means

- 1) to steal and pass off (the ideas or words of another) as one's own
- 2) to use (another's production) without crediting the source
- 3) to commit literary theft
- 4) to present as new and original an idea or product derived from an existing source.

In other words, plagiarism is an act of *fraud*. It involves both **stealing** someone else's work and **lying** about it afterward.

But can words and ideas really be stolen?

According to U.S. law, the answer is yes. In the United States and many other countries, the expression of original ideas is considered intellectual property, and is protected by copyright laws, just like original inventions. Almost all forms of expression fall under copyright protection as long as they are recorded in some media (such as a book or a computer file).

All of the following are considered plagiarism:

- turning in someone else's work as your own
- copying words or ideas from someone else without giving credit
- failing to put a quotation in quotation marks
- giving incorrect information about the source of a quotation
- changing words but copying the sentence structure of a source without giving credit

- copying so many words or ideas from a source that it makes up the majority of your work, whether you give credit or not (see our section on “fair use” rules)

Attention! **Changing the words of an original source is *not* sufficient to prevent plagiarism.** If you have retained the essential idea of an original source, and have not cited it, then no matter how drastically you may have altered its context or presentation, *you have still plagiarized*

Most cases of plagiarism can be avoided, however, by citing sources. Simply acknowledging that certain material has been borrowed, and providing your audience with the information necessary to find that source, is usually enough to prevent plagiarism.

Types of Plagiarism

Anyone who has written or graded a paper knows that plagiarism is not always a black-and-white issue. The boundary between plagiarism and research is often unclear. Learning to recognize the various forms of plagiarism, especially the more ambiguous ones, is an important step in the fight to prevent it.

I. SOURCES NOT CITED

1) “The Ghost Writer”

The writer turns in another’s work, word-for-word, as his or her own.

2) “The Photocopy”

The writer copies significant portions of text straight from a single source, without alteration.

3) “The Potluck Paper”

The writer tries to disguise plagiarism by copying from several different sources, tweaking the sentences to make them fit together while retaining most of the original phrasing.

4) “The Poor Disguise”

Although the writer has retained the essential content of the source, he or she has altered the paper's appearance slightly by changing key words and phrases.

5) "The Labor of Laziness"

The writer takes the time to paraphrase most of the paper from other sources and make it all fit together, instead of spending the same effort on original work.

6) "The Self-Stealer"

The writer "borrows" generously from his or her previous work, violating policies concerning the expectation of originality adopted by most academic institutions.

II. SOURCES CITED (but still plagiarized!)

1) "The Forgotten Footnote"

The writer mentions an author's name for a source, but neglects to include specific information on the location of the material referenced. This often masks other forms of plagiarism by obscuring source locations.

2) "The Misinformer"

The writer provides inaccurate information regarding the sources, making it impossible to find them.

3) "The Too-Perfect Paraphrase"

The writer properly cites a source, but neglects to put in quotation marks text that has been copied word-for-word, or close to it. Although attributing the basic ideas to the source, the writer is falsely claiming original presentation and interpretation of the information.

4) "The Resourceful Citer"

The writer properly cites all sources, paraphrasing and using quotations appropriately. The catch? The paper contains almost no original work! It

is sometimes difficult to spot this form of plagiarism because it looks like any other well-researched document.

5) “The Perfect Crime”

Well, we all know it doesn’t exist. In this case, the writer properly quotes and cites sources in some places, but goes on to paraphrase other arguments from those sources without citation. This way, the writer tries to pass off the paraphrased material as his or her own analysis of the cited material.

FAQ

What is plagiarism?

Simply put, plagiarism is the use of another's original words or ideas as though they were your own. Any time you borrow from an original source and do not give proper credit, you have committed plagiarism and violated U.S. copyright laws. (See our [What is Plagiarism?](#) page for more detailed information on plagiarism.)

What are copyright laws?

Copyright laws exist to protect our intellectual property. They make it illegal to reproduce someone else’s expression of ideas or information without permission. This can include music, images, written words, video, and a variety of other media.

At one time, a work was only protected by copyright if it included a copyright trademark (the © symbol). According to laws established in 1989, however, works are now copyright protected with or without the inclusion of this symbol.

Anyone who reproduces copyrighted material improperly can be prosecuted in a court of law. It does not matter if the form or content of the original has been altered – as long as any material can be shown to be substantially similar to the original, it may be considered a violation of the **Copyright Act**.

For information on how long a copyright lasts, see the section below on the [public domain](#).

Are all published works copyrighted?

Actually, no. The Copyright Act only protects works that express original ideas or information. For example, you could borrow liberally from the following without fear of plagiarism:

- Compilations of readily available information, such as the phone book
- Works published by the U.S. government
- Facts that are not the result of original research (such as the fact that there are fifty U.S. states, or that carrots contain Vitamin A)
- Works in the public domain (provided you cite properly)

Can facts be copyrighted?

Yes, in some situations. Any “facts” that have been published as the result of individual research are considered the intellectual property of the author.

Do I have to cite sources for every fact I use?

No. You do not have to cite sources for facts that are not the result of unique individual research. Facts that are readily available from numerous sources and generally known to the public are considered “common knowledge,” and are not protected by copyright laws. You can use these facts liberally in your paper without citing authors. If you are unsure whether or not a fact is common knowledge, you should probably cite your source just to be safe.

Does it matter how much was copied?

Not in determining whether or not plagiarism is a crime. If even the smallest part of a work is found to have been plagiarized, it is still considered a copyright violation, and its producer can be brought to trial. However, the amount that was copied probably will have a bearing on the severity of the sentence. A work that is almost entirely plagiarized will almost certainly incur greater penalties than a work that only includes a small amount of plagiarized material.

But can't I use material if I cite the source?

You are allowed to borrow ideas or phrases from other sources provided you **cite them properly** and your usage is consistent with the guidelines set by fair use laws. As a rule, however, you should be careful about borrowing too liberally – if the case can be made

that your work consists predominantly of someone else's words or ideas, you may still be susceptible to charges of plagiarism.

What are the punishments for plagiarism?

As with any wrongdoing, the degree of intent (see below) and the nature of the offense determine its status. When plagiarism takes place in an academic setting, it is most often handled by the individual instructors and the academic institution involved. If, however, the plagiarism involves money, prizes, or job placement, it constitutes a crime punishable in court.

Academic Punishments

Most colleges and universities have zero tolerance for plagiarists. In fact, academic standards of intellectual honesty are often more demanding than governmental copyright laws. If you have plagiarized a paper whose copyright has run out, for example, you are less likely to be treated with any more leniency than if you had plagiarized copyrighted material.

A plagiarized paper almost always results in failure for the assignment, frequently in failure for the course, and sometimes in expulsion.

Legal Punishments

Most cases of plagiarism are considered misdemeanors, punishable by fines of anywhere between \$100 and \$50,000 – and up to one year in jail.

Plagiarism can also be considered a felony under certain state and federal laws. For example, if a plagiarist copies and earns more than \$2,500 from copyrighted material, he or she may face up to \$250,000 in fines and up to ten years in jail.

Institutional Punishments

Most corporations and institutions will not tolerate any form of plagiarism. There have been a significant number of cases around the world where people have lost their jobs or been denied positions as a result of plagiarism.

Does intention matter?

Ignorance of the law is never an excuse. So even if you did not realize you were plagiarizing, you may still be found guilty. However, there are different punishments for *willful infringement*, or deliberate plagiarism, and *innocent infringement*, or accidental plagiarism. To distinguish between these, courts recognize what is called the *good faith* defense. If you can demonstrate, based on the amount you borrowed and the way you have incorporated it in your own work, that *reasonably* believed what you did was fair use, chances are that your sentence will be lessened substantially.

What is “fair use,” anyway?

The United States government has established rough guidelines for determining the nature and amount of work that may be “borrowed” without explicit written consent. These are called “fair use” laws, because they try to establish whether certain uses of original material are reasonable. The laws themselves are vague and complicated. Below we have condensed them into some rubrics you can apply to help determine the fairness of any given usage.

- **The nature of your use.**
 - If you have merely copied something, it is unlikely to be considered fair use. But if the material has been transformed in an original way through interpretation, analysis, etc., it is more likely to be considered “fair use.”
- **The amount you’ve used.**
 - The more you’ve “borrowed,” the less likely it is to be considered fair use. What percentage of your work is “borrowed” material? What percentage of the original did you use? The lower the better.
- **The effect of your use on the original**
 - If you are creating a work that competes with the original in its own market, and may do the original author economic harm, any substantial borrowing is unlikely to be considered fair use. The more the content of your work or its target audience differs from that of the original, the better.

We recommend the following sites for more information on “Fair Use” and Copyright laws.

<http://www.umuc.edu/library/copy.html>

http://www.sp.edu.sg/departments/asd/hk_1261.htm

What is the “public domain?”

Works that are no longer protected by copyright, or never have been, are considered “public domain.” This means that you may freely borrow material from these works without fear of plagiarism, provided you make proper attributions.

How do I know if something is public domain or not?

The terms and conditions under which works enter the public domain are a bit complicated. In general, anything published more than 75 years ago is now in the public domain. Works published after 1978 are protected for the lifetime of the author plus 70 years. The laws governing works published fewer than 75 years ago but before 1978 are more complicated, although generally copyright protection extended 28 years after publication plus 47 more years if the copyright was renewed, totaling 75 years from the publication date. If you are uncertain about whether or not a work is in the public domain, it is probably best to contact a lawyer or act under the assumption that it is still protected by copyright laws.

What is Citation?

A “citation” is the way you tell your readers that certain material in your work came from another source. It also gives your readers the information necessary to find that source again, including:

- **information about the author**
- **the title of the work**
- **the name and location of the company that published your copy of the source**
- **the date your copy was published**
- **the page numbers of the material you are borrowing**

Why should I cite sources?

Giving credit to the original author by citing sources is the only way to use other people’s work without plagiarizing. But there are a number of other reasons to cite sources:

- Citations are extremely helpful to anyone who wants to find out more about your ideas and where they came from.

- Not all sources are good or right – your own ideas may often be more accurate or interesting than those of your sources. Proper citation will keep you from taking the rap for someone else’s bad ideas.
- Citing sources shows the amount of research you’ve done.
- Citing sources strengthens your work by lending outside support to your ideas.

Doesn't citing sources make my work seem less original?

Not at all. On the contrary, citing sources actually helps your reader distinguish your ideas from those of your sources. This will actually emphasize the originality of your own work.

When do I need to cite?

Whenever you borrow words or ideas, you need to acknowledge their source. The following situations almost always require citation:

- Whenever you use quotes
- Whenever you paraphrase
- Whenever you use an idea that someone else has already expressed
- Whenever you make specific reference to the work of another
- Whenever someone else’s work has been critical in developing your own ideas.

How do I cite sources?

This depends on what type of work you are writing, how you are using the borrowed material, and the expectations of your instructor.

First, you have to think about how you want to identify your sources. If your sources are very important to your ideas, you should mention the author and work in a sentence that introduces your citation. If, however, you are only citing the source to make a minor point, you may consider using parenthetical references, footnotes, or endnotes.

There are also different forms of citation for different disciplines. For example, when you cite sources in a psychology paper you would probably use a different form of citation than you might in a paper for an English class.

Finally, you should always consult your instructor to determine the form of citation appropriate for your paper. You can save a lot of time and energy simply by

asking “How should I cite my sources,” or “What style of citation should I use?” before you begin writing.

In the following sections, we will take you step-by-step through some general guidelines for citing sources.

Identifying Sources in the Body of Your Paper

The first time you cite a source, it is almost always a good idea to mention its author(s), title, and genre (book, article, or web page, etc.). If the source is central to your work, you may want to introduce it in a separate sentence or two, summarizing its importance and main ideas. But often you can just tag this information onto the beginning or end of a sentence. For example, the following sentence puts information about the author and work before the quotation:

Milan Kundera, in his book The Art of the Novel, suggests that “if the novel should really disappear, it will do so not because it has exhausted its powers but because it exists in a world grown alien to it.”

You may also want to describe the authors if they are not famous, or if you have reason to believe your reader does not know them. You should say whether they are economic analysts, artists, physicists, etc. If you do not know anything about the authors, and cannot find any information, it is best to say where you found the source and why you believe it is credible and worth citing. For example,

In an essay presented at an Asian Studies conference held at Duke University, Sheldon Garon analyzes the relation of state, labor-unions, and small businesses in Japan between the 1950s and 1980s.

If you have already introduced the author and work from which you are citing, and you are obviously referring to the same work, you probably don’t need to mention them again. However, if you have cited other sources and then go back to one you had cited earlier, it is a good idea to mention at least the author’s name again (and the work if you have referred to more than one by this author) to avoid confusion.

Quoting Material

What is quoting?

*Taking the exact words from an original source is called **quoting**. You should quote material when you believe the way the original author expresses an idea is the most effective means of communicating the point you want to make. If you want to borrow an idea from an author, but do not need his or her exact words, you should try paraphrasing instead of quoting.*

How often should I quote?

Quote as infrequently as possible. You never want your essay to become a series of connected quotations, because that leaves little room for your own ideas. Most of the time, paraphrasing and summarizing your sources is sufficient (but remember that you still have to cite them!). If you think it's important to quote something, an excellent rule of thumb is that for every line you quote, you should have at least two lines analyzing it.

How do I incorporate quotations in my paper?

Most of the time, you can just identify a source and quote from it, as in the first example above. Sometimes, however, you will need to modify the words or format of the quotation in order to fit in your paper. Whenever you change the original words of your source, you must indicate that you have done so. Otherwise, you would be claiming the original author used words that he or she did not use. But be careful not to change too many words! You could accidentally change the meaning of the quotation, and falsely claim the author said something they did not.

For example, let's say you want to quote from the following passage in an essay called "United Shareholders of America," by Jacob Weisberg:

"The citizen-investor serves his fellow citizens badly by his inclination to withdraw from the community. He tends to serve himself badly as well. He does so by focusing his pursuit of happiness on something that very seldom makes people happy in the way they expect it to."

When you quote, you generally want to be as concise as possible. Keep only the material that is strictly relevant to your own ideas. So here you would not want to quote the middle sentence, since it is repeated again in the more informative last sentence. However, just skipping it would not work – the final sentence would not make sense without it. So, you have to change the wording a little bit. In order to do so, you will need to use some **editing symbols**. Your quotation might end up looking like this:

In his essay, “United Shareholders of America,” Jacob Weisberg insists that “The citizen-investor serves his fellow citizens badly by his inclination to withdraw from the community. He tends to serve himself badly. . . by focusing his pursuit of happiness on something that very seldom makes people happy in the way they expect it to.”

The ellipses (. . .) indicate that you have skipped over some words in order to condense the passage. But even this version is still a bit lengthy – there is something else you can do to make it even more concise. Try changing the last sentence from

“He tends to serve himself badly. . . by focusing his pursuit of happiness on something that very seldom makes people happy in the way they expect it to.”

to

“He tends to serve himself badly. . . by focusing his pursuit of happiness on [money].”

The brackets around the word [money] indicate that you have substituted that word for other words the author used. To make a substitution this important, however, you had better be sure that “money” is what the final phrase meant – if the author intentionally left it ambiguous, you would be significantly altering his meaning. That would make you guilty of fraudulent attribution. In this case, however, the paragraph following the one quoted explains that the author is referring to money, so it is okay.

As a general rule, it is okay to make minor grammatical and stylistic changes to make the quoted material fit in your paper, but it is not okay to significantly alter the structure of the material or its content.

Quoting within Quotes

When you have “embedded quotes,” or quotations within quotations, you should switch from the normal quotation marks (“”) to *single* quotation marks (‘’) to show the difference. For example, if an original passage by John Archer reads:

The Mountain Coyote has been described as a “wily” and “single-minded” predator by zoologist Ima Warner.

your quotation might look like this:

As John Archer explains, “The Mountain Coyote has been described as a ‘wily’ and ‘single-minded’ predator by zoologist Ima Warner.”

Note the double quotes surrounding the entire quotation, and the single quotes around the words quoted in the original.

How do I include long quotes in my paper?

The exact formatting requirements for long quotations differ depending on the citation style. In general, however, if you are quoting more than 3 lines of material, you should do the following:

- Change the font to one noticeably smaller (in a document that is mostly 12 point font, you should use a 10 point font, for example)
- Double indent the quotation – that means adjusting the left and right margins so that they are about one inch smaller than the main body of your paper.
- If you have this option in your word-processor, “left-justify” the text. That means make it so that each line begins in the same place, creating a straight line on the left side of the quotation, while the right side is jagged.
- Do NOT use quotation marks for the entire quotation – the graphic changes you have made already (changing the font, double indenting, etc.) are enough to indicate that the material is quoted. For quotations within that quotation, use normal quotation marks, not single ones.
- You might want to skip 1.5 times the line-spacing you are using in the document before you begin the quotation and after it. This is optional and depends on the style preferred by your instructor.

Listing References

What's a Bibliography?

A bibliography is a list of all of the sources you have used in the process of researching your work. In general, a bibliography should include:

- **the authors' names**
- **the titles of the works**
- **the names and locations of the companies that published your copies of the sources**
- **the dates your copies were published**
- **relevant page numbers (optional)**

Different kinds of sources, such as magazine articles and chapters in multi-author volumes, may require more specific information to help your reader locate the material.

Ok, so what's an Annotated Bibliography?

An annotated bibliography is the same as a bibliography with one important difference: in an annotated bibliography, the bibliographic information is followed by a brief description of the content, quality, and usefulness of the source.

What are Footnotes?

Footnotes are notes placed at the bottom of a page. They cite references or comment on a designated part of the text above it. For example, say you want to add an interesting comment to a sentence you have written, but the comment is not directly related to the argument of your paragraph. In this case, you could add the symbol for a footnote. Then, at the bottom of the page you could reprint the symbol and insert your comment. Here is an example:

This is an illustration of a footnote.¹ The number “1” at the end of the sentence corresponds to the note below. See how it fits in the body of the text?

¹ At the bottom of the page you can insert your comments about the sentence preceding the footnote.

When your reader comes across the footnote in the main text of your paper, he or she could look down at your comments right away, or else continue reading the paragraph and read your comments at the end. Because this makes it convenient for your reader, most citation styles require that you use either footnotes or endnotes in your paper. Some, however, allow you to make parenthetical references (author, date) in the body of your work.

Footnotes are not just for interesting comments, however. Sometimes, they simply refer to relevant sources. In other words, they let your reader know where certain material came from, or where they can look for other sources on the subject.

To decide whether you should cite your sources in footnotes or in the body of your paper, you should ask your instructor.

Where does the little footnote mark go?

Whenever possible, put the footnote at the end of a sentence, immediately following the period or whatever punctuation mark completes that sentence. Skip two spaces after the footnote before you begin the next sentence. If you must include the footnote in the middle of a sentence for the sake of clarity, or because the sentence has more than one footnote (try to avoid this!), try to put it at the end of the most relevant phrase, after a comma or other punctuation mark. Otherwise, put it right at the end of the most relevant word. If the footnote is not at the end of a sentence, skip only one space after it.

What's the difference between Footnotes and Endnotes?

The only real difference is placement – footnotes appear at the bottom of the relevant page, while endnotes all appear at the very end of your document. If your notes are very important, footnotes are more likely to get your reader's attention. Endnotes, on the other hand, are less intrusive and will not interrupt the flow of your paper.

If I cite sources in the footnotes (or endnotes), how's that different from a bibliography?

In footnotes or endnotes, you are citing sources that are directly relevant to specific passages in your paper. In a bibliography, you are citing all of the sources that you researched, whether they relate to any specific part of your paper or not. So your bibliography might contain “extra” sources which you read, but did not specifically cite in your paper. Also, citations in footnotes or endnotes will always have page numbers,

referring to the specific passages relevant to that part of your paper, while citations in bibliographies may have none (if you read an entire book, for example, you would not have to list specific page numbers in your bibliography. If you quoted the book, however, you would have to mention the page numbers in your notes).

What are “works cited” and “works consulted” pages?

Sometimes you may be asked to include these – especially if you have used a parenthetical style of citation. A “works cited” page is a list of all the works from which you have borrowed material. Your reader may find this more convenient than footnotes or endnotes because he or she will not have to wade through all of the comments and other information in order to see the sources from which you drew your material. A “works consulted” page is a complement to a “works cited” page, listing *all* of the works you used, whether they were useful or not.

Isn't a “works consulted” page the same as a “bibliography,” then?

Well, yes. The title is different because “works consulted” pages are meant to complement “works cited” pages, and bibliographies may list other relevant sources in addition to those mentioned in footnotes or endnotes. Choosing to title your bibliography “Works Consulted” or “Selected Bibliography” may help specify the relevance of the sources listed.

For more information on documenting sources, see Purdue University’s Online Writing Lab: <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/research/index.html>

Citing Sources

Citation styles differ mostly in the location, order, and syntax of information about references. The number and diversity of citation styles reflect different priorities with respect to concision, readability, dates, authors, publications, and, of course, style.

There are also two major divisions *within* most citation styles: documentary-note style and parenthetical style. *Documentary-note style* is the standard form of documenting sources. It involves using either **footnotes or **endnotes** so that information about your sources is readily available to your readers but does not interfere with their reading of your work.**

In the *parenthetical style*, sometimes called the “author-date” style or “in-text” style, references to sources are made in the body of the work itself, through parentheses.

An example of this would be the following sentence, taken from page 23 of a book written by Professor Scott in 1999:

Professor Scott asserts that “environmental reform in Alaska in the 1970s accelerated rapidly as the result of pipeline expansion.” (Scott 1999, 23)

This is generally considered an abbreviated form of citation, and it does not require footnotes or endnotes, although it does require the equivalent of a “Works Cited” page at the end of the paper. It is easier to write, but might interfere with how smoothly your work reads. See your instructor for information on which form, documentary-note style or parenthetical style, is appropriate for your paper.

With so many different citation styles, how do you know which one is right for your paper? First, we strongly recommend asking your instructor. There are several factors which go into determining the appropriate citation style, including discipline (priorities in an English class might differ from those of a Psychology class, for example), academic expectations (papers intended for publication might be subject to different standards than mid-term papers), the research aims of an assignment, and the individual preference of your instructor.

If you want to learn more about using a particular citation style, we have provided links to more specific resources below. Just choose the appropriate discipline from the menu on the left, or scroll down until you find the style that interests you.

Humanities

Chicago

- Writer’s Handbook: Chicago Style Documentation
<http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/DocChicago.html>
- Quick Reference Guide to the Chicago Style
<http://www.library.wvu.edu/ref/Refhome/chicago.html>
- Excellent FAQ on Usage in the Chicago Style
<http://www.press.uchicago.edu/Misc/Chicago/cmosfaq/>
- Online! Guide to Chicago Style
<http://www.bedfordstmartins.com/online/cite7.html>

MLA (Modern Language Association)

- Writer's Handbook: MLA Style Documentation
<http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/DocMLA.html>
- The Documentation Style of the Modern Language Association
<http://www.newark.ohio-state.edu/~osuwrite/mla.htm>
- MLA Citation Style
http://campusgw.library.cornell.edu/newhelp/res_strategy/citing/mla.html
- Online! Guide to MLA Style
<http://www.bedfordstmartins.com/online/cite5.html>
- Useful Guide to Parenthetical Documentation
<http://www.geocities.com/Athens/Acropolis/1623/document.html>

Turabian (an academic style that works in other disciplines as well)

- [Turabian bibliography samples](#) (Ithaca College Library). Based on the 6th edition of Turabian's *Manual*.
- [Turabian Style: Sample Footnotes and Bibliographic Entries \(6th edition\)](#) (Bridgewater State College)
- [Turabian style guide](#): (University of Southern Mississippi Libraries)
- [Turabian Citation Style Examples](#) (Northwest Missouri State University)

Sciences

ACS (American Chemical Society)

- ACS Style Sheet
<http://www.lehigh.edu/~inhelp/footnote/acs.html>
- ACS Books Reference Style Guidelines
<http://pubs.acs.org/books/references.shtml>

AMA (American Medical Society)

- AMA Style Guide
<http://healthlinks.washington.edu/hsl/styleguides/ama.html>
- AMA Documentation Style
<http://rx.stlcop.edu/wcenter/AMA.htm>
- AMA Citation Style
<http://www.liu.edu/cwis/cwp/library/workshop/citama.htm>

CBE (Council of Biology Editors)

- Writer's Handbook: CBE Style Documentation
<http://www.wisc.edu/writetest/Handbook/DocCBE6.html>
- Online! Guide to CBE Style
<http://www.bedfordstmartins.com/online/cite8.html>
- CBE Style Form Guide
<http://www.lib.ohio-state.edu/guides/cbegd.html>

IEEE (Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers)

- Handbook: Documentation IEEE Style
<http://www.ecf.utoronto.ca/~writing/handbook-docum1b.html>
- Sample IEEE Documentation Style for References
http://www.carleton.ca/~nartemev/IEEE_style.html
- Electrical Engineering Citation Style
<http://www.lehigh.edu/~inhhelp/footnote/footee.html>

NLM (National Library of Medicine)

- NLM Style Guide
<http://healthlinks.washington.edu/hsl/styleguides/nlm.html>
- Citing the Internet: A Brief Guide
<http://nmlm.gov/pnr/news/200107/netcite.html>
- National Library of Medicine Recommended Formats for Bibliographic Citation (PDF format)
<http://www.nlm.nih.gov/pubs/formats/internet.pdf>

Vancouver (Biological Sciences)

- Introduction to the Vancouver Style
<http://www.lib.monash.edu.au/vl/cite/citeprvr.htm>
- Vancouver Style References
<http://www.library.uq.edu.au/training/citation/vancouv.html>
- Detailed Explanation of the Vancouver style
<http://www.acponline.org/journals/annals/01jan97/unifreqr.htm>

Social Sciences

AAA (American Anthropological Association)

- Citations and Bibliographic Style for Anthropology Papers
<http://www.usd.edu/anth/handbook/bib.htm>
- AAA Style Handbook (PDF format)
http://www.aaanet.org/pubs/style_guide.pdf

APA (American Psychological Association)

- Writer's Handbook: APA Style Documentation
<http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/DocAPA.html>
- APA Style Guide
<http://www.lib.usm.edu/~instruct/guides/apa.html>
- Bibliography Style Handbook (APA)
http://www.english.uiuc.edu/cws/wworkshop/bibliography_style_handbookapa.htm
- APA Style Electronic Format
<http://www.westwords.com/guffey/apa.html>
- Online! Guide to APA Style
<http://www.bedfordstmartins.com/online/cite6.html>
- APA Style.org
<http://www.apastyle.org/eleceref.html>

APSA (American Political Science Association)

- Writer's Handbook: APSA Documentation
<http://www.wisc.edu/writing/Handbook/DocAPSA.html>

Legal Style

- **Cornell University's** Introduction to Basic Legal Citation
<http://www.law.cornell.edu/citation/citation.table.html>
- **Legal Citation:** Using and Understanding Legal Abbreviations
<http://qsilver.queensu.ca/law/legalcit.htm>
- Legal Research and Citation Style in the USA
<http://www.rbs0.com/lawcite.htm>

Other: General info on citing web documents

<http://www.lib.berkeley.edu/TeachingLib/Guides/Internet/Style.html>

Recommended Multi-Style Links

<http://www.aresearchguide.com/styleguides.html>

<http://www.dianahacker.com/resdoc/>

Preventing Plagiarism: Student Resources

In a research paper, you have to come up with your own original ideas while at the same time making reference to work that's already been done by others. But how can you tell where their ideas end and your own begin? What's the proper way to integrate sources in your paper? If you change some of what an author said, do you still have to cite that person?

Confusion about the answers to these questions often leads to **plagiarism**. If you have similar questions, or are concerned about preventing plagiarism, we recommend using the checklist below.

A. Consult with your instructor

Have questions about plagiarism? If you can't find the answers on our site, or are unsure about something, you should ask your instructor. He or she will most likely be very happy to answer your questions. You can also check out the guidelines for citing sources properly. If you follow them, and the rest of the advice on this page, you should have no problems with plagiarism.

B. Plan your paper

Planning your paper well is the first and most important step you can take toward preventing plagiarism. If you know you are going to use other sources of information, you need to plan **how** you are going to include them in your paper. This means working out a balance between the ideas you have taken from other sources and your own, original ideas. Writing an outline, or coming up with a thesis statement in which you clearly formulate an argument *about* the information you find, will help establish the boundaries between your ideas and those of your sources.

C. Take Effective Notes

One of the best ways to prepare for a research paper is by taking thorough notes from all of your sources, so that you have much of the information

organized before you begin writing. On the other hand, poor note-taking can lead to many problems – including improper citations and misquotations, both of which are forms of plagiarism! To avoid confusion about your sources, try using different colored fonts, pens, or pencils for each one, and make sure you clearly distinguish your own ideas from those you found elsewhere. Also, get in the habit of marking page numbers, and make sure that you record bibliographic information or web addresses for every source right away – finding them again later when you are trying to finish your paper can be a nightmare!

D. When in doubt, cite sources

Of course you want to get credit for your own ideas. And you don't want your instructor to think that you got all of your information from somewhere else. But if it is unclear whether an idea in your paper really came from you, or whether you got it from somewhere else and just changed it a little, **you should always cite your source**. Instead of weakening your paper and making it seem like you have fewer original ideas, this will actually strengthen your paper by: 1) showing that you are not just copying other ideas but are processing and adding to them, 2) lending outside support to the ideas that are completely yours, and 3) highlighting the originality of your ideas by making clear distinctions between them and ideas you have gotten elsewhere.

E. Make it clear **who** said **what**

Even if you cite sources, ambiguity in your phrasing can often disguise the real source of any given idea, causing inadvertent plagiarism. Make sure when you mix your own ideas with those of your sources that you always clearly distinguish them. If you are discussing the ideas of more than one person, watch out for confusing pronouns. For example, imagine you are talking about Harold Bloom's discussion of James Joyce's opinion of Shakespeare, and you write: "He brilliantly portrayed the situation of a writer in society at that time." Who is the "He" in this sentence? Bloom, Joyce, or Shakespeare? Who is the "writer": Joyce, Shakespeare, or one of their characters? Always make sure to distinguish **who** said **what**, and give credit to the right person.

F. Know how to Paraphrase:

A paraphrase is a restatement **in your own words** of someone else's ideas. Changing a few words of the original sentences does NOT

make your writing a legitimate paraphrase. You must change **both** the **words** and the **sentence structure** of the original, **without** changing the content. Also, you should keep in mind that paraphrased passages **still require citation** because the ideas came from another source, even though you are putting them in your own words.

The purpose of paraphrasing is not to make it seem like you are drawing less directly from other sources or to reduce the number of quotations in your paper. It is a common misconception among students that you need to hide the fact that you rely on other sources. Actually it is advantageous to highlight the fact that other sources support your own ideas. Using quality sources to support your ideas makes them seem stronger and more valid. Good paraphrasing makes the ideas of the original source fit smoothly into your paper, emphasizing the most relevant points and leaving out unrelated information.

G. Evaluate Your Sources

Not all sources on the web are worth citing – in fact, many of them are just plain wrong. So how do you tell the good ones apart? For starters, make sure you know the **author(s)** of the page, where they got their information, and when they wrote it (getting this information is also an important step in avoiding plagiarism!). Then you should determine how credible you feel the source is: how well they support their ideas, the quality of the writing, the accuracy of the information provided, etc. We recommend using Portland Community College’s “[rubrics for evaluating web pages](#)” as an easy method of testing the credibility of your sources.

Preventing Plagiarism: Resources for Educators

The most important steps in preventing plagiarism are those taken to address its causes. The strategies in this section are intended as guidelines to help you:

- 1) become aware of the reasons plagiarism occurs
- 2) identify the different forms of plagiarism
- 3) integrate plagiarism education and prevention techniques into your courses

Why Students Plagiarize

There are many reasons students plagiarize. Sometimes deadlines come around more quickly than expected, sometimes assignments feel overwhelming, and sometimes

the boundaries of plagiarism and research just get confused. But what situations are most likely to result in plagiarism? More importantly, how can they be avoided? Learning to identify the factors that make plagiarism an attractive alternative is the best way to stop it before it starts.

Intentional Plagiarism

Just like hacking into websites, plagiarizing papers can be something of a thrill in itself. For many students it becomes a question of ingenuity: “can I sneak a plagiarized paper past my professor?” But there is usually more behind intentional plagiarism than just the thrill of deception.

- Searching vs. Researching

Today’s students learn quickly that finding and manipulating data on the Internet is a valuable skill. With the wealth of information available online, the production of original analysis and interpretation may seem like “busy work” compared to finding the best or most obscure sources.

Teach your students that the real skills they need to learn are interpretation and analysis – how to *process* the information they find. Tell them that anyone with some basic knowledge can *find* information on the Internet – it’s what they *do* with that information that is important.

- “But their words are better”

Some students might think, “Why sweat over producing an analysis that has already been done better, by someone who knows more?” Students may also be intimidated by the quality of work found online, thinking their own work cannot compare.

Tell your students that what interests you most is seeing how *they* understand the assigned topic, and how they develop their own style and voice. This might go a long way toward making them feel more comfortable with writing. Explain to them that you know writing is a learning process, and that you do not expect them to be as brilliant as experts who have devoted years to the subject. You may also want to let them know that their experiences and the context of your class give them a unique perspective that may give them a far more interesting angle on the issues than those of the “experts.”

- Making the Grade

Students are under enormous pressure from family, peers, and instructors to compete for scholarships, admissions, and, of course, places in the job market. They often see education as a rung in the ladder to success, and not an active process valuable in itself. Because of this, students tend to focus on the end results of their research, rather than the skills they learn in doing it.

Explain to your students that while they may be able to hide ignorance of particular facts or theories, research and writing skills make themselves very apparent to anyone evaluating them. In other words, your students' grades won't matter if they don't have the skills to show for them.

Also, you may wish to emphasize improvement as a factor in grading, as this can encourage students to try developing their own abilities. This depends entirely upon your own pedagogical style, of course.

- “Everyone else is doing it”

Students often justify plagiarism by pointing out that since their peers plagiarize, they must do the same to keep up. They feel faced with a choice: put in several hours of work and risk a mediocre grade with less time for other subjects, or do what their peers do and copy something good from the internet for an easy A with time to spare.

One of the only ways to deal with this is by catching those students who do plagiarize. It takes a great deal of the pressure off of those who want to work honestly but are afraid of falling behind their peers.

- Poor Planning

Students are not always the best judges of how much time their assignments will take. They may not be aware of the extent of work involved in a research paper, or may simply be overwhelmed by the task and put it off until the last minute, leaving them with no time for original work of their own.

Scheduling stages of progress on their papers is a very effective way to deal with this. Having them submit bibliographies, outlines, thesis statements, or drafts on specified dates before the final draft is due will give them a good idea of the amount of work involved. It will also help them organize their time and make the task seem less overwhelming.

Unintentional Plagiarism

No honest student would walk out of a neighbors' house accidentally carrying their television. But even the most well-intentioned writers sometimes "appropriate" the work of others without proper authority. How does this happen?

- Citation Confusion

Perhaps the most common reason for inadvertent plagiarism is simply an ignorance of the proper forms of citation.

See our printable handout on [how to cite sources properly](#).

- Plagiarism vs. Paraphrasing

Many students have trouble knowing when they are paraphrasing and when they are plagiarizing. In an effort to make their work seem "more original" by "putting things in their own words," students may often inadvertently plagiarize by changing the original too much or, sometimes, not enough.

Doing exercises in class where you hand out paraphrased and plagiarized passages in order to discuss the differences might be very helpful. Explain that your students must retain the essential ideas of the original, but significantly change the style and grammatical structure to fit in the context of their argument.

- "I was just copying my notes"

Students often mix their own ideas and those of their sources when they take sloppy notes, creating confusion when they begin writing their papers.

It may be worthwhile to go over some note-taking methods with your students. Teaching them to document their sources using different colored pens and "post-it" tabs to mark pages, for example, will save time and keep references clear.

- "I couldn't find the source"

Students are often sloppy about writing down the bibliographic information of their sources, leaving them unable to properly attribute information when it comes to writing the paper.

Explain how important it is to keep careful track of references during the note-taking stage. Students may be eager to focus entirely on the content of their research, and need to be told that how they handle their reference material is a significant part of the assignment. Having them turn in bibliographies before they turn in the paper itself will also encourage them to pay more attention to their sources.

- “I thought we didn’t have to quote facts”

Because the Internet makes information so readily available, students may find it difficult to tell the difference between “common knowledge” they are free to use, and original ideas which are the intellectual property of others.

The easiest thing to do is teach your students the maxim, “When in doubt, cite sources.” You can also refer them to our student guide, or go over the difference between material that must be cited and material they are free to use in your class.

- Confusion about expectations

Students may not be aware of what proper research requires. They may think they are being asked simply to report critical commentary, or to “borrow” from a number of sources to show that they have “done their homework.” In either case, it becomes a problem if what they turn in tends to be predominantly the work of others.

One of the most common sources of confusion is the ambiguity of terms such as “analyze” and “discuss.” You should explain to your students that these words have specific meanings in academic discourse, and that they imply a degree of original thought that goes beyond mere “reporting.” Emphasizing your interest in their own ideas will also help them understand what you expect from them.

Cultural Perspectives on Plagiarism

Not all cultures take the same view of plagiarism. The Western notion that “ideas” can be the property of individuals may actually seem absurd to those with different views on what constitutes shared information or public discourse. Students from cultures which have a more collective sense of identity, for example, may have a difficult time understanding the distinctions some cultures draw between individual and public property. You might spend some very productive class time discussing your students’ perspectives on this issue.

Guidelines for Plagiarism Prevention

I. Explain what “plagiarism” means

Of course, most students will tell you they already know what plagiarism means. But do they really understand the difference between a legitimate paraphrase and a plagiarized one? Or between a proper citation and an improper one? Spending some time during the beginning of the course to explain plagiarism may go a long way toward preventing future problems.

You may also wish to distribute examples of plagiarism and legitimate citation, and then go over the differences together. This will clarify some of the common misconceptions about plagiarism and reduce the likelihood of “honest mistakes,” while at the same time showing how serious you are about the issue. Finally, you can direct your students to our website, where they can take a quiz on the difference between plagiarism and legitimate citation.

II. Explain what’s Wrong about Plagiarism

Without instruction, it may be hard for your students to understand the seriousness of plagiarism. Their response is often: “How can copying some words actually hurt anyone?” But the reality is that plagiarism is an act of fraud that involves both stealing (another’s intellectual property) and lying (implying that the work is one’s own). This undermines the principles of trust and respect that make education possible. But when they plagiarize, students hurt more than just their instructors and the person from whom they steal. They also hurt themselves, because they fail to acquire the research, analytic, and writing skills that they would have learned by doing the assignment honestly. Finally, plagiarism also victimizes those classmates who have legitimately earned their grades and degrees, and who will be competing with the plagiarizer for school admissions and jobs.

III. Make the Consequences Clear

Students often do not know just what they risk when they plagiarize. Begin your course by establishing a clear policy on plagiarism. Give very specific information about the penalties involved. You may want to create a specific policy for your courses in addition to your institution’s general policy. Try telling your students, for example, that any case of plagiarism will result in immediate failure of the paper, and that a second instance will result in failure

of the course and possibly expulsion, will doubtless make them think twice about it. Be sure to cite your policy on any research assignments as a reminder

IV. Start off with Clear Expectations

First, let your students know you expect them to produce thoughtful, original work. Students are often under the illusion that the goal of their assignments is to collect the best information possible. Explain to them that while good research is critical, you are even more interested in their ability to transform the information they find into an original and persuasive argument than in their ability to come up with the most or best sources. The skills they learn in working to further the ideas and arguments of others are a valuable part of what they will take away from their assignments. Knowing this may help them understand the value of original work.

You may also want to establish some rules in advance: Should your students collaborate? Will you require separate “works cited” pages and bibliographies? How many sources will they be required to consult? How many sources will they have to include in their paper? Will online sources be sufficient, or would you like your students to find printed material as well? Starting off with clear guidelines will prevent most of the confusion that leads to unintentional plagiarism, and allow no excuses for the intentional kind.

V. Assign Specific Questions or Topics

Provide a list of topics or questions that you would like your students to address in their papers. The more particular the questions, the less likely that your students will find papers already written on them. If you worry that lists like this restrict your students’ creative freedom, you might want to add an option that allows your students to develop their own topics in consultation with you or a teaching assistant.

VI. Require Students to Submit Thesis Statements, Introductions, Outlines, or Drafts

One of the best ways to ensure that your students’ work is original is to check it during the process of composition. Since rough drafts, etc., are not as readily available for copying as finished papers, the simple fact that they have to submit one will encourage most of your students to produce original work. It often takes more work to forge these materials than it does to produce them

originally. Also, if you have time to comment on what they submit, you can monitor how they respond to your feedback and whether their papers show the flexibility of works-in-progress.

VII. Have your students Annotate their Bibliographies

Ask your students to summarize the content and usefulness of their sources in a few sentences. Be sure to tell them that copying library abstracts or blurbs from the backs of books is not permissible. Emphasize that the annotation has to be in their own voice and words, and should specifically discuss the relevance of the source to their research. This exercise should take no time at all for students who have done their work honestly. Plagiarizers, however, will find it considerably more difficult.

VIII. Assign Oral Presentations

Have your students answer questions about the process of researching and developing their ideas. This is also an excellent opportunity to ask them specific questions about their papers, and to bring up passages that seem suspicious. Questions like “This quotation here is a little unclear. Could you tell me a little more about the article from which you got it?” can be very effective in determining how much work the student did without offending or seeming suspicious.

Require Recent and Printed Sources

Most papers from online paper mills and other cheating databases are already several years old at best. Having your students integrate at least one contemporary source in their paper will keep your students up to date on the issues and help ensure legitimate research and work.

IX. Assign a Paragraph on the Composition Process

If you do not have your students give oral presentations or turn in drafts during the composition process, you may want to have them submit a paragraph explaining how they arrived at their topic, how they began researching it, what criteria they used for evaluating their sources, and what they learned from the research project. This will give you an idea of how well they have comprehended the material and the degree of fluency they have in speaking about it.

X. Encourage Concision

Students often try to “fill space” by “borrowing” material once they have finished with their own ideas. Tell your students that it is very obvious when they “pad” their papers to fill up page requirements. Encourage them to be as concise as possible, focusing on the substance of their claims rather than the length of their writing. Make sure they know the trick to writing a long research paper lies in coming up with a thesis or argument which requires the assigned number of pages to develop, and not in drawing out the points they make or citing multiple sources to prove a single idea.

Important Terms

Attribution	<p>The acknowledgement that something came from another source.</p> <p>The following sentence properly <i>attributes</i> an idea to its original author: Jack Bauer, in his article “Twenty-Four Reasons not to Plagiarize,” maintains that cases of plagiarists being expelled by academic institutions have risen dramatically in recent years due to an increasing awareness on the part of educators.</p>
<i>Bibliography</i>	<i>A list of sources used in preparing a work</i>
Citation	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1) A short, formal indication of the source of information or quoted material.2) The act of quoting material or the material quoted.
Cite	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1) to indicate a source of information or quoted material in a short, formal note.2) to quote3) to ascribe something to a source
Common Knowledge	<p><i>Information that is readily available from a number of sources, or so well-known that its sources do not have to be cited.</i></p> <p>The fact that carrots are a source of Vitamin A is common knowledge, and you could include this information in your work without attributing it to a source. However, any information regarding the effects of Vitamin A on the human body are likely to be the products of original research and would have to be cited.</p>
Copyright	A law protecting the intellectual property of individuals,

giving them exclusive rights over the distribution and reproduction of that material.

Endnotes Notes at the end of a paper acknowledging sources and providing additional references or information.

Facts Knowledge or information based on real, observable occurrences.

Just because something is a fact does not mean it is not the result of original thought, analysis, or research. Facts can be considered intellectual property as well. If you discover a fact that is not widely known nor readily found in several other places, you should cite the source.

Footnotes Notes at the bottom of a paper acknowledging sources or providing additional references or information.

Fair Use The guidelines for deciding whether the use of a source is permissible or constitutes a copyright infringement.

Intellectual Property A product of the intellect, such as an expressed idea or concept that has commercial value

Notation The form of a citation; the system by which one refers to cited sources.

Original

- 1) Not derived from anything else, new and unique
- 2) Markedly departing from previous practice
- 3) The first, preceding all others in time
- 4) The source from which copies are made

Paraphrase A restatement of a text or passage in other words

It is extremely important to note that changing a few words from an original source does NOT qualify as paraphrasing. A paraphrase must make **significant** changes in the style and voice of the original *while retaining the essential ideas*. If you change the ideas, then you are not paraphrasing – you are misrepresenting the ideas of the original, which could lead to serious trouble. (see examples in the students preventing page....)

Peer Review	Turnitin.com's teaching tool that allows students to anonymously review the work of their peers. This gives students a chance to build critical skills while helping them to see the strengths and weaknesses of their own writing.
Plagiarism	The reproduction or appropriation of someone else's work without proper attribution; passing off as one's own the work of someone else
Public Domain	The absence of copyright protection; belonging to the public so that anyone may copy or borrow from it. See our section on <u>What is public domain?</u>
Quotation	Using words from another source
Self-plagiarism	Copying material you have previously produced and passing it off as a new production. This can potentially violate copyright protection, if the work has been published, and is banned by most academic policies.

INFORMATION LITERACY

"Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education." American Library Association. 2006.
<http://www.ala.org/acrl/ilcomstan.html> (Accessed 03 Feb, 2007)

Introduction

Information Literacy Defined
 Information Literacy and Information Technology
 Information Literacy and Higher Education
 Information Literacy and Pedagogy
 Use of the Standards
 Information Literacy and Assessment
 Standards, Performance Indicators, and Outcomes

Information Literacy Defined

Information literacy is a set of abilities requiring individuals to "recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information."¹ Information literacy also is increasingly important in the contemporary environment of rapid technological change and proliferating information resources. Because of the escalating complexity of this environment, individuals are

faced with diverse, abundant information choices--in their academic studies, in the workplace, and in their personal lives. Information is available through libraries, community resources, special interest organizations, media, and the Internet--and increasingly, information comes to individuals in unfiltered formats, raising questions about its authenticity, validity, and reliability. In addition, information is available through multiple media, including graphical, aural, and textual, and these pose new challenges for individuals in evaluating and understanding it. The uncertain quality and expanding quantity of information pose large challenges for society. The sheer abundance of information will not in itself create a more informed citizenry without a complementary cluster of abilities necessary to use information effectively.

Information literacy forms the basis for lifelong learning. It is common to all disciplines, to all learning environments, and to all levels of education. It enables learners to master content and extend their investigations, become more self-directed, and assume greater control over their own learning. An information literate individual is able to:

- Determine the extent of information needed
- Access the needed information effectively and efficiently
- Evaluate information and its sources critically
- Incorporate selected information into one's knowledge base
- Use information effectively to accomplish a specific purpose
- Understand the economic, legal, and social issues surrounding the use of information, and access and use information ethically and legally

Information Literacy and Information Technology

Information literacy is related to information technology skills, but has broader implications for the individual, the educational system, and for society. Information technology skills enable an individual to use computers, software applications, databases, and other technologies to achieve a wide variety of academic, work-related, and personal goals. Information literate individuals necessarily develop some technology skills. Information literacy, while showing significant overlap with information technology skills, is a distinct and broader area of competence. Increasingly, information technology skills are interwoven with, and support, information literacy. A 1999 report from the National Research Council promotes the concept of "fluency" with information technology and delineates several distinctions useful in understanding relationships among information literacy, computer literacy, and broader technological competence. The report notes that "computer literacy" is concerned with rote learning of specific hardware and software applications, while "fluency with technology" focuses on understanding the underlying concepts of technology and applying problem-solving and critical thinking to using technology. The report also discusses differences between information technology fluency and information literacy as it is understood in K-12 and higher education. Among these are information literacy's focus on content,

communication, analysis, information searching, and evaluation; whereas information technology "fluency" focuses on a deep understanding of technology and graduated increasingly skilled use of it. 2

"Fluency" with information technology may require more intellectual abilities than the rote learning of software and hardware associated with "computer literacy", but the focus is still on the technology itself. Information literacy, on the other hand, is an intellectual framework for understanding, finding, evaluating, and using information--activities which may be accomplished in part by fluency with information technology, in part by sound investigative methods, but most important, through critical discernment and reasoning. Information literacy initiates, sustains, and extends lifelong learning through abilities which may use technologies but are ultimately independent of them.

Information Literacy and Higher Education

Developing lifelong learners is central to the mission of higher education institutions. By ensuring that individuals have the intellectual abilities of reasoning and critical thinking, and by helping them construct a framework for learning how to learn, colleges and universities provide the foundation for continued growth throughout their careers, as well as in their roles as informed citizens and members of communities. Information literacy is a key component of, and contributor to, lifelong learning. Information literacy competency extends learning beyond formal classroom settings and provides practice with self-directed investigations as individuals move into internships, first professional positions, and increasing responsibilities in all arenas of life. Because information literacy augments students' competency with evaluating, managing, and using information, it is now considered by several regional and discipline-based accreditation associations as a key outcome for college students. 3

For students not on traditional campuses, information resources are often available through networks and other channels, and distributed learning technologies permit teaching and learning to occur when the teacher and the student are not in the same place at the same time. The challenge for those promoting information literacy in distance education courses is to develop a comparable range of experiences in learning about information resources as are offered on traditional campuses. Information literacy competencies for distance learning students should be comparable to those for "on campus" students. Incorporating information literacy across curricula, in all programs and services, and throughout the administrative life of the university, requires the collaborative efforts of faculty, librarians, and administrators. Through lectures and by leading discussions, faculty establish the context for learning. Faculty also inspire students to explore the unknown, offer guidance on how best to fulfill information needs, and monitor students' progress. Academic librarians coordinate the evaluation and selection of intellectual resources for programs and services; organize, and maintain collections and many points of access to information; and provide instruction to students and faculty who seek information. Administrators create opportunities for collaboration

and staff development among faculty, librarians, and other professionals who initiate information literacy programs, lead in planning and budgeting for those programs, and provide ongoing resources to sustain them.

Information Literacy and Pedagogy

The Boyer Commission Report, *Reinventing Undergraduate Education*, recommends strategies that require the student to engage actively in "framing of a significant question or set of questions, the research or creative exploration to find answers, and the communications skills to convey the results..." 4 Courses structured in such a way create student-centered learning environments where inquiry is the norm, problem solving becomes the focus, and thinking critically is part of the process. Such learning environments require information literacy competencies.

Gaining skills in information literacy multiplies the opportunities for students' self-directed learning, as they become engaged in using a wide variety of information sources to expand their knowledge, ask informed questions, and sharpen their critical thinking for still further self-directed learning. Achieving competency in information literacy requires an understanding that this cluster of abilities is not extraneous to the curriculum but is woven into the curriculum's content, structure, and sequence. This curricular integration also affords many possibilities for furthering the influence and impact of such student-centered teaching methods as problem-based learning, evidence-based learning, and inquiry learning. Guided by faculty and others in problem-based approaches, students reason about course content at a deeper level than is possible through the exclusive use of lectures and textbooks. To take fullest advantage of problem-based learning, students must often use thinking skills requiring them to become skilled users of information sources in many locations and formats, thereby increasing their responsibility for their own learning. To obtain the information they seek for their investigations, individuals have many options. One is to utilize an information retrieval system, such as may be found in a library or in databases accessible by computer from any location. Another option is to select an appropriate investigative method for observing phenomena directly. For example, physicians, archaeologists, and astronomers frequently depend upon physical examination to detect the presence of particular phenomena. In addition, mathematicians, chemists, and physicists often utilize technologies such as statistical software or simulators to create artificial conditions in which to observe and analyze the interaction of phenomena. As students progress through their undergraduate years and graduate programs, they need to have repeated opportunities for seeking, evaluating, and managing information gathered from multiple sources and discipline-specific research methods.

Use of the Standards

Information Literacy Competency Standards for Higher Education provides a framework for assessing the information literate individual. It also extends the work of

the American Association of School Librarians Task Force on Information Literacy Standards, thereby providing higher education an opportunity to articulate its information literacy competencies with those of K-12 so that a continuum of expectations develops for students at all levels. The competencies presented here outline the process by which faculty, librarians and others pinpoint specific indicators that identify a student as information literate. Students also will find the competencies useful, because they provide students with a framework for gaining control over how they interact with information in their environment. It will help to sensitize them to the need to develop a metacognitive approach to learning, making them conscious of the explicit actions required for gathering, analyzing, and using information. All students are expected to demonstrate all of the competencies described in this document, but not everyone will demonstrate them to the same level of proficiency or at the same speed.

Furthermore, some disciplines may place greater emphasis on the mastery of competencies at certain points in the process, and therefore certain competencies would receive greater weight than others in any rubric for measurement. Many of the competencies are likely to be performed recursively, in that the reflective and evaluative aspects included within each standard will require the student to return to an earlier point in the process, revise the information-seeking approach, and repeat the same steps.

To implement the standards fully, an institution should first review its mission and educational goals to determine how information literacy would improve learning and enhance the institution's effectiveness. To facilitate acceptance of the concept, faculty and staff development is also crucial.

Information Literacy and Assessment

In the following competencies, there are five standards and twenty-two performance indicators. The standards focus upon the needs of students in higher education at all levels. The standards also list a range of outcomes for assessing student progress toward information literacy. These outcomes serve as guidelines for faculty, librarians, and others in developing local methods for measuring student learning in the context of an institution's unique mission. In addition to assessing all students' basic information literacy skills, faculty and librarians should also work together to develop assessment instruments and strategies in the context of particular disciplines, as information literacy manifests itself in the specific understanding of the knowledge creation, scholarly activity, and publication processes found in those disciplines. In implementing these standards, institutions need to recognize that different levels of thinking skills are associated with various learning outcomes--and therefore different instruments or methods are essential to assess those outcomes. For example, both "higher order" and "lower order" thinking skills, based on Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, are evident throughout the outcomes detailed in this document. It is strongly suggested that assessment methods appropriate to the thinking skills associated with each outcome be identified as an integral part of the institution's implementation plan. For

example, the following outcomes illustrate "higher order" and "lower order" thinking skills:

"Lower Order" thinking skill:

Outcome 2.2.2. Identifies keywords, synonyms, and related terms for the information needed.

"Higher Order" thinking skill:

Outcome 3.3.2. Extends initial synthesis, when possible, to a higher level of abstraction to construct new hypotheses that may require additional information.

Faculty, librarians, and others will find that discussing assessment methods collaboratively is a very productive exercise in planning a systematic, comprehensive information literacy program.

This assessment program should reach all students, pinpoint areas for further program development, and consolidate learning goals already achieved. It also should make explicit to the institution's constituencies how information literacy contributes to producing educated students and citizens.

Notes

1. American Library Association. Presidential Committee on Information Literacy. Final Report. (Chicago: American Library Association, 1989.)

2. National Research Council. Commission on Physical Sciences, Mathematics, and Applications. Committee on Information Technology Literacy, Computer Science and Telecommunications Board. Being Fluent with Information Technology. Publication. (Washington, D.C.: National Academy Press, 1999)
<http://www.nap.edu/catalog/6482.html>

3. Several key accrediting agencies concerned with information literacy are: The Middle States Commission on Higher Education (MSCHE), the Western Association of Schools and College (WASC), and the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS).

4. Boyer Commission on Educating Undergraduates in the Research University. Reinventing Undergraduate Education: A Blueprint for America's Research Universities. <http://notes.cc.sunysb.edu/Pres/boyer.nsf/>

Standards, Performance Indicators, and Outcomes

Standard One

The information literate student determines the nature and extent of the information needed.

Performance Indicators:

The information literate student defines and articulates the need for information.

Outcomes Include:

Confers with instructors and participates in class discussions, peer workgroups, and electronic discussions to identify a research topic, or other information need

Develops a thesis statement and formulates questions based on the information need

Explores general information sources to increase familiarity with the topic

Defines or modifies the information need to achieve a manageable focus

Identifies key concepts and terms that describe the information need

Recognizes that existing information can be combined with original thought, experimentation, and/or analysis to produce new information

The information literate student identifies a variety of types and formats of potential sources for information.

Outcomes Include:

Knows how information is formally and informally produced, organized, and disseminated

Recognizes that knowledge can be organized into disciplines that influence the way information is accessed

Identifies the value and differences of potential resources in a variety of formats (e.g., multimedia, database, website, data set, audio/visual, book)

Identifies the purpose and audience of potential resources (e.g., popular vs. scholarly, current vs. historical)

Differentiates between primary and secondary sources, recognizing how their use and importance vary with each discipline

Realizes that information may need to be constructed with raw data from primary sources

The information literate student considers the costs and benefits of acquiring the needed information.

Outcomes Include:

Determines the availability of needed information and makes decision on broadening the information seeking process beyond local resources (e.g., interlibrary loan; using resources at other locations; obtaining images, videos, text, or sound)

Considers the feasibility of acquiring a new language or skill (e.g., foreign or discipline-based) in order to gather needed information and to understand its context
Defines a realistic overall plan and timeline to acquire the needed information

The information literate student reevaluates the nature and extent of the information need.

Outcomes Include:

Reviews the initial information need to clarify, revise, or refine the question
Describes criteria used to make information decisions and choices

Standard Two

The information literate student accesses needed information effectively and efficiently.

Performance Indicators:

The information literate student selects the most appropriate investigative methods or information retrieval systems for accessing the needed information.

Outcomes Include:

Identifies appropriate investigative methods (e.g., laboratory experiment, simulation, fieldwork)
Investigates benefits and applicability of various investigative methods
Investigates the scope, content, and organization of information retrieval systems
Selects efficient and effective approaches for accessing the information needed from the investigative method or information retrieval system

The information literate student constructs and implements effectively-designed search strategies.

Outcomes Include:

Develops a research plan appropriate to the investigative method
Identifies keywords, synonyms and related terms for the information needed
Selects controlled vocabulary specific to the discipline or information retrieval source

Constructs a search strategy using appropriate commands for the information retrieval system selected (e.g., Boolean operators, truncation, and proximity for search engines; internal organizers such as indexes for books)

Implements the search strategy in various information retrieval systems using different user interfaces and search engines, with different command languages, protocols, and search parameters

Implements the search using investigative protocols appropriate to the discipline

The information literate student retrieves information online or in person using a variety of methods.

Outcomes Include:

Uses various search systems to retrieve information in a variety of formats

Uses various classification schemes and other systems (e.g., call number systems or indexes) to locate information resources within the library or to identify specific sites for physical exploration

Uses specialized online or in person services available at the institution to retrieve information needed (e.g., interlibrary loan/document delivery, professional associations, institutional research offices, community resources, experts and practitioners)

Uses surveys, letters, interviews, and other forms of inquiry to retrieve primary information

The information literate student refines the search strategy if necessary.

Outcomes Include:

Assesses the quantity, quality, and relevance of the search results to determine whether alternative information retrieval systems or investigative methods should be utilized

Identifies gaps in the information retrieved and determines if the search strategy should be revised

Repeats the search using the revised strategy as necessary

The information literate student extracts, records, and manages the information and its sources.

Outcomes Include:

Selects among various technologies the most appropriate one for the task of extracting the needed information (e.g., copy/paste software functions, photocopier, scanner, audio/visual equipment, or exploratory instruments)

Creates a system for organizing the information

Differentiates between the types of sources cited and understands the elements and correct syntax of a citation for a wide range of resources

Records all pertinent citation information for future reference

Uses various technologies to manage the information selected and organized

Standard Three

The information literate student evaluates information and its sources critically and incorporates selected information into his or her knowledge base and value system.

Performance Indicators:

The information literate student summarizes the main ideas to be extracted from the information gathered.

Outcomes Include:

Reads the text and selects main ideas

Restates textual concepts in his/her own words and selects data accurately

Identifies verbatim material that can be then appropriately quoted

The information literate student articulates and applies initial criteria for evaluating both the information and its sources.

Outcomes Include:

Examines and compares information from various sources in order to evaluate reliability, validity, accuracy, authority, timeliness, and point of view or bias

Analyzes the structure and logic of supporting arguments or methods

Recognizes prejudice, deception, or manipulation

Recognizes the cultural, physical, or other context within which the information was created and understands the impact of context on interpreting the information

The information literate student synthesizes main ideas to construct new concepts.

Outcomes Include:

Recognizes interrelationships among concepts and combines them into potentially useful primary statements with supporting evidence

Extends initial synthesis, when possible, at a higher level of abstraction to construct new hypotheses that may require additional information

Utilizes computer and other technologies (e.g. spreadsheets, databases, multimedia, and audio or visual equipment) for studying the interaction of ideas and other phenomena

The information literate student compares new knowledge with prior knowledge to determine the value added, contradictions, or other unique characteristics of the information.

Outcomes Include:

Determines whether information satisfies the research or other information need

Uses consciously selected criteria to determine whether the information contradicts or verifies information used from other sources

Draws conclusions based upon information gathered

Tests theories with discipline-appropriate techniques (e.g., simulators, experiments)

Determines probable accuracy by questioning the source of the data, the limitations of the information gathering tools or strategies, and the reasonableness of the conclusions

Integrates new information with previous information or knowledge

Selects information that provides evidence for the topic

The information literate student determines whether the new knowledge has an impact on the individual's value system and takes steps to reconcile differences.

Outcomes Include:

Investigates differing viewpoints encountered in the literature

Determines whether to incorporate or reject viewpoints encountered

The information literate student validates understanding and interpretation of the information through discourse with other individuals, subject-area experts, and/or practitioners.

Outcomes Include:

Participates in classroom and other discussions

Participates in class-sponsored electronic communication forums designed to encourage discourse on the topic (e.g., email, bulletin boards, chat rooms)

Seeks expert opinion through a variety of mechanisms (e.g., interviews, email, listservs)

The information literate student determines whether the initial query should be revised.

Outcomes Include:

Determines if original information need has been satisfied or if additional information is needed

Reviews search strategy and incorporates additional concepts as necessary

Reviews information retrieval sources used and expands to include others as needed

Standard Four

The information literate student, individually or as a member of a group, uses information effectively to accomplish a specific purpose.

Performance Indicators:

The information literate student applies new and prior information to the planning and creation of a particular product or performance.

Outcomes Include:

Organizes the content in a manner that supports the purposes and format of the product or performance (e.g. outlines, drafts, storyboards)

Articulates knowledge and skills transferred from prior experiences to planning and creating the product or performance

Integrates the new and prior information, including quotations and paraphrasings, in a manner that supports the purposes of the product or performance

Manipulates digital text, images, and data, as needed, transferring them from their original locations and formats to a new context

The information literate student revises the development process for the product or performance.

Outcomes Include:

Maintains a journal or log of activities related to the information seeking, evaluating, and communicating process

Reflects on past successes, failures, and alternative strategies

The information literate student communicates the product or performance effectively to others.

Outcomes Include:

Chooses a communication medium and format that best supports the purposes of the product or performance and the intended audience

Uses a range of information technology applications in creating the product or performance

Incorporates principles of design and communication

Communicates clearly and with a style that supports the purposes of the intended audience

Standard Five

The information literate student understands many of the economic, legal, and social issues surrounding the use of information and accesses and uses information ethically and legally.

Performance Indicators:

The information literate student understands many of the ethical, legal and socio-economic issues surrounding information and information technology.

Outcomes Include:

Identifies and discusses issues related to privacy and security in both the print and electronic environments

Identifies and discusses issues related to free vs. fee-based access to information

Identifies and discusses issues related to censorship and freedom of speech

Demonstrates an understanding of intellectual property, copyright, and fair use of copyrighted material

The information literate student follows laws, regulations, institutional policies, and etiquette related to the access and use of information resources.

Outcomes Include:

- Participates in electronic discussions following accepted practices (e.g. "Netiquette")
- Uses approved passwords and other forms of ID for access to information resources
- Complies with institutional policies on access to information resources
- Preserves the integrity of information resources, equipment, systems and facilities
- Legally obtains, stores, and disseminates text, data, images, or sounds
- Demonstrates an understanding of what constitutes plagiarism and does not represent work attributable to others as his/her own
- Demonstrates an understanding of institutional policies related to human subjects research

The information literate student acknowledges the use of information sources in communicating the product or performance.

Outcomes Include:

- Selects an appropriate documentation style and uses it consistently to cite sources
- Posts permission granted notices, as needed, for copyrighted material

Appendix I: Selected Information Literacy Initiatives

In 1989 the American Library Association (ALA) Presidential Committee on Information Literacy issued a Final Report which defined four components of information literacy: the ability to recognize when information is needed and to locate, evaluate and use effectively the needed information.

In 1990, the National Forum on Information Literacy (NFIL) was founded as a response to the recommendations of the ALA Presidential Committee Final Report. NFIL is a "coalition of over 75 education, business, and governmental organizations working to promote international and national awareness of the need for information literacy and encouraging activities leading to its acquisition." Forum members promote information literacy nationally, internationally, and within their own programs.

<http://www.infolit.org/index.html>

In March 1998 NFIL issued, A Progress Report on Information Literacy: An Update on the American Library Association Presidential Committee on Information Literacy: Final Report.

<http://www.infolit.org/documents/progress.html>

In 1998 the American Association of School Libraries (AASL) and the Association of Educational Communications and Technology (AECT) published

Information Literacy Standards for Student Learning. The AASL/AECT standards detail competencies for students in K-12.

Since 1989, in the absence of national standards, many states, school districts, state university systems, and local institutions have developed information literacy competency standards.

<http://www.fiu.edu/~library/ili/iliweb.html>

POLYGAMY AND DIGAMY IN THE EARLY CHURCH

A Term Paper

Presented to Instructor Richard Oster

Harding Graduate School of Religion

Memphis, Tennessee

As a Requirement in

Course 521

by

George E. Goldman

August 1982

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I. Introduction

The expression $\mu\iota\kappa\alpha\iota\ \gamma\upsilon\upsilon\alpha\iota\kappa\acute{\omicron}\nu\delta\upsilon\alpha$ occurs three times in the New Testament (1 Tim. 3:2, 11; Tit. 5:9. Note: The Revised Standard Version is used unless otherwise indicated). It is a prominent qualification in both lists for elders. It stands immediately after the demand for blamelessness and irreproachability. It stands first when Paul resumes his discussion of deacons (1 Tim. 3:11). In regard to widows in equivalent expression stands immediately after the age qualification (1 Tim. 5:9). Such prominence implies that the first thing which detracts from the blamelessness and irreproachability of an elder, deacon, or widow is their marital status. Since the literal phrase “of a one woman man” is ambiguous, it is necessary to seek its meaning with the help of general biblical teaching and cultural backgrounds.

The purpose of this paper is to discuss the feasibility that the “husband of one wife: is a prohibition of: (1) Polygamy – Did it exist in the Roman Empire? (2) Digamy – Was this the view of the early church? By investigating the historical backgrounds of these items the writer hopes to determine the interpretation of the text.

II. Did Polygamy Exist in the Roman Empire?

Polygamy denotes a marriage where there are more than two partners. Polygamy should be divided into polygyny, where a man marries more than one wife, and polyandry, where several men are married to one woman. The latter is not considered in the cultural backgrounds of the Bible.

It is erroneous to assume that polygyny was the rule and monogamy the exception even in the Old Testament. However, it does no good to count noses. Many Old Testament worthies chose monogamy and many chose polygyny. Some monogamists loved their wife (Gen. 24:67); some polygamists loved their wives (1 Sam. 1:2-8). Yet, polygyny is problematical even in the Old Testament. The first recorded plural marriage occurred among the reprobate descendents of Cain (Gen. 4:19, 23). Thus it is somehow tainted from its very beginning.

The Old Testament's emphasis on fertility seems to have been the greatest factor in the occurrences of polygyny. The husband and wife were to bear children so that the family name would not be blotted out in Israel. Only when this proved impossible did polygyny or concubinage become an alternative. Polygyny and concubinage went hand in hand.

A “concubine” denotes a woman with whom sex relations are permitted making adopted fatherhood possible should offspring occur.¹ With the Old Testament emphasis on fatherhood and heirs a man might take a concubine if his wife proved infertile. There were three types of concubines in the Old Testament: (1) daughters of poor Hebrews, (2) women captured in war, and (3) slaves.

In the Mosaic Law polygyny is clearly a normal and licit practice (Ex. 21:10f; Deut. 21:15-17). Nowhere is this form of marriage called into question. The one and only admonition is against too many wives (Deut. 17:17) which constitutes the abuse of the privilege. The Mishnah limits the number to eighteen.

Herod bestowed upon Archelaus, “seventy talents, a throne of gold set with precious stones, some eunuchs, and a concubine named Pannychis.”² Herod’s practice was less admirable than the one mentioned above.

The Mishnah states:

No man may abstain from keeping the law “Be fruitful and multiply” unless he already has children. If he married a woman and lived with her ten years and she bare no child, it is

¹ E. G. Parrinder, The Bible and Polygamy, A Study of Hebrew and Christian Teaching, (London: S.P.C.K., 1950), p. 18.

² Joseph. BJ 1:511: all references to this work are cited according to the edition of Josephus, The Jewish War, Loeb Classical Library (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1927).

not permitted him to abstain (from bearing children, G.E.G.). If he divorced her she may be married to another and the second husband may live with her for ten years. If she had a miscarriage the space (of ten years) is reckoned from the time of the miscarriage. The duty to be fruitful and multiply falls on the man but not the woman.³

So after ten years of childlessness, the husband had to take a second wife.

The wife therefore had to tolerate concubines living with her.

Herod's court may appear to have been Hellenistic, it was nevertheless basically oriental. Josephus had to tell the Roman world that, "For it is ancestral custom of ours to have several wives at the same time."⁴ One female courtier named Glaphyra provokes the ladies of Herod's court by boasting of her ancestry, "On the other hand they had been chosen for their beauty and not their family."⁵ Josephus continues, "His wives were numerous, since polygamy was permitted by Jewish custom and the king availed himself of the privilege."⁶ "The king in fact, had nine wives and

³M. Yeb. 6.6.

⁴Joseph. AJ 17:14; all references to this work are cited accord to the edition of Josephus, Jewish Antiquities, Loeb Classical Library (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1963).

⁵Joseph. BJ 1.477.

⁶Ibid.

issue by seven of them.”⁷ “And at the prompting of his amorous desire he married again, for he had no qualms about living solely for his own pleasure.”⁸ So according to Josephus, at least nine of Herod’s wives were living at the same time, 7 or 6 B.C. In all, Herod the Great married ten times.

The Old Testament admonition about multiplying wives (Deut. 17:17) was not heeded by Herod or those before his time (i.e. Solomon.) Polygyny became part of politics. Herod married a Hasmonaean princess, Mariamme. This was a contemptuous move towards Antigonus, her uncle, and also ingratiated Herod to the Jews.⁹

The major domo (ἡμάρτυρος . . . τροποῦ) of Agrippa asked Rabbi Elezer, “A man such as I who have two wives, one in Tiberias and one in Sephoris, and two Sukkoths, one in Tiberias and one in Sepphoris, may I go from one Sukkoth to the other and thus be free from my obligation?”¹⁰

Justin alludes to the fact that the Jews of his day still practiced polygyny.

⁷Joseph. BJ 1.562.

⁸Joseph. AJ 14.319.

⁹Harold W. Hoehner, Herod Antipas (Grand Rapids: Zondervan, 1972), p. 9.

¹⁰T. B. Sukkah 27a.

Since, if it were allowable to take one wife, or as many wives as one chooses, and how he chooses, which the men of your nation do over all the earth, wherever they sojourn, or wherever they have been sent, taking women under the name of marriage, much more would David have been permitted to do this.¹¹

The Qumran community rejected this Jewish practice. Those who lived in polygyny fail to understand the true teaching of Moses. In their view, one takes a second wife while the first is alive has committed fornication. This principle is as old as creation (Gen. 1:27). It was the principle of those saved during the flood (Gen. 7:9). Noah and his sons had only one wife each and entered the ark “two by two.”

These are the three nets of Satan with which Levi son of Jacob said that he catches Israel by setting them up as three kinds of righteousness. The first is fornication, the second is riches, and third is profanation of the Temple. Whoever escapes the first is caught in the second, and whoever saves himself from the second is caught in the third (Isa.xxiv:18) . . . shall be caught in fornication twice by taking a second wife while the first is alive, whereas the principle of creation is, “Male and female created He them” (Gen., i.27). Also, those who entered the Ark went in two by two.¹²

Chrysostom interprets “the husband of one wife” as prohibiting polygyny.

This he does not lay down as a rule, as if he must not be without one, but as prohibiting his having more than one

¹¹Just. dial. 141.4, The Ante-Nicene Fathers, vol. 1 (N.p., n.d.; reprinted., Grand Rapids, Mich.: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co., 1975).

¹²CD 4-5.

(*çmetr...an* = excess, G.E.G.). For even the Jews were allowed to contract second marriages, and even to have two wives at the same time. For “marriage is honorable” (Heb. xiii: 4). Some however say, that this is said that he should be the husband on one wife.¹³

Augustine exempts Old Testament patriarchs from sin although in his world it would be a crime.

Again, Jacob the son of Isaac is charged with having committed a great crime because he had four wives. But here there is no ground for a criminal accusation: for a plurality of wives was no crime when it was the custom; and it is a crime now, because it is no longer the custom. There are sins against nature, and sins against customs, and sins against laws. In which, then, of these senses did Jacob sin in having a plurality of wives? As regards nature, he used the women not for sensual gratification, but for procreation of children. For custom, this was the common practice at the time in those countries. And for the laws, no prohibition existed. The only reason of its being a crime now to do this, is because custom and laws forbid it. Whoever despises these restraints, even though he uses his wives only to get children, still commits sin, and does an injury to human society itself, for the sake of which it is that the procreation of children is required. In the present altered state of customs and laws, men can have no pleasure in the plurality of wives, except from an excess of lust, and so the mistake arises of supposing that no one could ever have had many wives but from sensuality and the vehemence of sinful desires. Unable to form an idea of men whose force is mind is beyond their conception, they compare themselves with themselves, as the apostle says, and so make mistakes. Conscious that, in their intercourse though with one wife only, they are often influenced by mere animal passion instead of an intelligent motive, they think it an obvious inference that, if the

¹³Chrys. hom. In 1 Tim. 3:1-4, A Select Library of Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers of the Christian Church, 1st ser., vol. 13 (N.p., n.d.; reprint ed., Grand Rapids: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co., 1956).

limits of moderation are not observed where there is only one wife, the infirmity must be aggravated where there are more than one.¹⁴

The view of Augustine is that although God permitted polygyny in former times, the evolution of successive revelation was towards monogamy. The Genesis account depicts monogamy as something God intended in the beginning. So by implication polygyny is now prohibited.

Polygyny was not wrong according to Augustine when it was a means of multiplying offspring and populating the world. In his time the world had become sufficiently populated and hence, the practice of polygyny was now morally wrong because it arose from lust and not from natural or social need. Thus Augustine argues that the New Testament no longer permits polygyny because the historical – cultural situation has changed.

The Old Testament doctrine of levirate marriage helped to prolong polygyny among the Jews of Jesus' day. A levirate marriage could convert a monogamist into a bigamist. The oldest example of levirate marriage in the Bible is the story of Judah and Tamar (Gen. 38:12ff). Even in New Testament times relics of it remained. Thus, the Sadducees brought their famous problem to the Lord (Mt. 22:23-33). Later rabbis, and the

¹⁴August. Reply to Faustus the Manichaeon 22.47, A Select Library of Nicene and Post-Nicene Fathers of the Christian Church, 1st ser., vol. 4 (N.p., n.d.; reprint ed., Grand Rapids: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co., 1956).

Samaritans, modified levirate marriage to apply only to a betrothed wife.

Many dispensations were allowed which released both the widow and her brother-in-law. Some rabbis forbade it even when both parties desired it.¹⁵

That levirate marriage occurred in New Testament Jerusalem is evidenced from an argument in the Mishnah.¹⁶

In the Qumran community the “sons of Zadok” were stricter than the Torah.

And each man married the daughter of his brother or sister, whereas Moses said, you shall not approach your mother’s sister; she is your mother’s near kin (Lev. xviii, 13). But although the laws against incest are written for men, they also apply to women, when, therefore, a brother’s daughter uncovers the nakedness of her father’s brother, she is (also his) near kin.¹⁷

The school of Shammai permitted levirate marriages between co-wives and the surviving brothers, but the school of Hillel forbade it.¹⁸ The Roman world would not allow uncles and nieces to marry until A.D. 44.

¹⁵Parrinder, Bible and Polygamy, p. 27.

¹⁶M. Yeb. 15.

¹⁷CD 5.

¹⁸ M. Yeb. 1.4.

“Still marriage with a brother’s child, it might be said, was novelty in Rome. But it was normal in other countries, and prohibited by no law.”¹⁹

The New Testament explicitly repudiates any number of practices including fornication, prostitution, homosexuality, but there is no explicit prohibition against simultaneous polygamy. The New Testament writers surely knew that Jews still practiced polygyny by their levirate marriages and fertility laws. They deal with adultery, divorce, consecutive polygyny (serial monogamy), why not simultaneous polygamy?

While this is an argument from silence which is inherently weak, it also fails to appreciate that the culture of the first Christian century accepted monogamy as normal. While the Roman world insisted on monogamy, it often supplemented it with fornication, prostitution, homosexuality, and divorce. The marriage rate had so declined that legislation was enacted to penalize the unmarried. Single adults could not receive inheritances unless they were married within a prescribed period.²⁰

In A.D. 212 the lex antoniana de civitate reaffirmed the law of monogamy for Roman marriage but tolerated polygyny among the citizens

¹⁹ Tac. Ann. 12.6, Loeb Classical Library (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1931).

²⁰ Eugene Hillman, Polygamy Reconsidered (Maryknoll, N.Y.: Orbis Books, 1975), p. 21.

who were Jews. This toleration was rescinded in 285 by Diocletian and Maximian but the continuation of polygyny among the Jews later gave rise to a special law issued in 393 by Theodosius against the custom. Still the practice survived until the eleventh century among Jews of northern Europe where it was specifically condemned.²¹ Suetonius refers to the Romans' intolerant attitude toward polygamy,

Then he married Veleria Messalina . . . But it turned out that she was not only guilty of other disgraceful crimes, but had gone so far as to commit bigamy with Gaius Silius, and even sign a formal marriage contract before witnesses.²²

Greco-Roman attitudes, practices, and conceptions shaped the understanding and structure of Christian marriage, and Christianity in turn influenced Greco-Roman attitudes toward marriage. But the “husband of one wife at a time” rule did not come about from the church’s need to accommodate itself to Greco-Roman culture. Polygamy was an objectionable foreign custom, prohibited to Roman citizens, but allowed to Jews, and likewise it was also unacceptable to the early church in the Roman world.

In the first century world the problem was not really simultaneous polygyny but the so called “successive” polygamy.

²¹Ibid., p. 20-21.

²²Suet. De vita Caes. 26.

The question of the meaning of the qualification laid down by the apostle Paul regarding the elder's marriage relationship is impossible to answer simply from the words involved. But any deviation from the morality of the time in respect to marriage is involved whether polygyny, concubinage, or improper remarriages. Perhaps Paul was ambiguous on purpose. It is to these improper remarriages that attention is now directed.

III. Digamy

If "husband of one wife" forbids polygyny then "wife of one husband" (1 Tim. 5:9) prohibits polyandry. In the context of 1 Tim. 5:3-16 it is clear that Paul knew of the existence of widows young and old (verse 11); they had pledge themselves not to commit digamy (verse 12), they were supported by the church (verses 3, 8, 16), and they continued in prayer and visitation (verses 5, 13). Paul wants to refuse to enroll any widow who is under sixty years of age, of questionable character, and who can find support from friends or relatives (verses 4, 8, 9, 10 and 16). Paul gives his reasons: (1) The church is burdened with their support; (2) the younger ones have violated their pledge and have desired digamy; (3) they were gadding about from house to house. Paul explicitly advises the younger widow to remarry (verse 14), yet digamy seems prohibited to an enrolled widow over sixty. If the younger widows heed Paul's advice and marry then this would

automatically exclude them from aid if they were widowed again after age sixty. Some would avoid this difficulty by suggesting the younger ones are virgins and not widows. But in 1 Cor. 7:8f., Paul refers to such virgins and widows by stating if they cannot exercise self-control they should marry.

According to funerary inscriptions, special esteem was accorded the person who was married only once.²³

'Agent... [[a 'Iouli?] çn¾ mÒandr [oj ı æzhs]

TMn met! parqe[nikoà aÙt] æth q: (no. 81)

'Enq£de k[e<]tai `Rebškkka mÒn[a]ndro[j]

æzhsa æth md:(no. 392)

`Rouf...nV mon£ndrJ tí filotšknJ (no. 541).

This seems to be the equivalent of “faithful to her husband’s memory” (cf. Lk. 2:36f). In about a dozen pagan epitaphs in which the word univira occurs nine are put there by surviving husbands, so that the word normally meant not divorced.²⁴ Among the Greeks and the Romans there seems to be little

²³Jean-Baptiste P. Frey, Corpus of Jewish Inscriptions: Jewish Inscriptions from the Third Century B.C. to the Seventh Century A.D., vol. 1 (New York: KTAV Publishing House, 1975), pp. 56, 304, 41.

²⁴Robert L. Saucy, “The Husband of One Wife,” Bibliothecasacra 31 (July-September, 1974): 239.

stigma attached to remarriage after the death of the first spouse. But it became a different story among the third century Fathers, especially Tertullian.

In the words of one writer, Tertullian is to be remembered as both a Montanist and a notorious misogynist²⁵ (Tertullian regarded the principle of digamy as universally accepted). However even the Qumran community allowed a monarch to remarry if his wife died. “He shall not take another wife in addition to her (the first wife), for she alone shall be with him all the days of her life. But if she dies, he shall marry another.”²⁶ On the other hand Tertullian by the third century regarded non-digamy as a universally accepted principle. He quotes a non-existent passage from Leviticus interpreting it against digamy:

There is a caution in Leviticus: “My priests shall not pluralize marriages” (Lev. 21:14? G.E.G.). I may affirm even that that is plural which is not once for all. That which is not unity is number. In short, after unity begins number . . . Thence, therefore among us the prescript is more fully and more laid down that they who are chosen into the sacerdotal order must be men of one marriage; which rule is so rigidly observed, that I remember some removed from their office for digamy. But you will say, “Then all others may (many more than once), whom

²⁵Frederick C. Klawiter, “The Role of Martyrdom and Persecution in Developing the Priestly Authority of Women in Early Christianity: A Case Study of Montais,” *Church History* 49 (September, 1980): 252.

²⁶11 Q 57: 17-19.

he excepts.” Vain shall we be if we think that what is unlawful for priests is lawful for laics.²⁷

After he became a Montanist he wrote De Monogamia in which he declared that digamy was forbidden by divine law. Later still Jerome wrote to Oceanus, a Roman nobleman zealous for the faith, who wanted backing to dismiss a bishop who, contrary to apostolic rule, had married the second time. Jerome refused.

To cast suspicion upon the holiness of a second marriage after the death of the first spouse is to speak where the Bible does not. If a second marriage is a sign of weakness, what about the first? So it appears that the “husband of one wife” and the “wife of one husband” do not disqualify an elder or a widow for digamy. The tendency of the early church to oppose digamy led them to also oppose lawful marital intercourse. Such a tendency ended up as celibacy.

²⁷Tert. Exhort. Cast. 7, *The Ante-Nicene Fathers*, vol. 14 (N.p., n.d.; reprint ed., Grand Rapids, Mich.: Wm. B. Eerdmans Publishing Co., 1975).

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