Fieldwork Appendices

to the thesis on

The Dynamics of Derivative Writing: Explanatory Variables for Plagiarism and Derivative Language in ESL Texts

by

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1 Appendix A: Data Sources

1.1 ESL Student Questionnaire Data Sources

Overseas students enrolled in the pre-sessional EAP courses at the following institutions comprised the data source population for the ESL Student Questionnaire:

- Institute for Applied Language Studies, University of Edinburgh
- English Language Teaching Division, University of Strathclyde
- EFL Unit, University of Glasgow
- English Language Teaching Unit, University of St. Andrews
- Center for Applied Language Studies, University of Dundee

1.2 MSc Course Co-ordinator Questionnaire Data Sources

For the MSc Course Co-ordinator Questionnaire (MScCCQ), the participants comprised course co-ordinators of taught master's level courses at the following institutions:

- University of St. Andrews
- Napier University
- University of Glasgow
- University of Dundee
- Paisley University
- Herriot-Watt University
- University of Aberdeen
- University of Strathclyde
- University of Stirling
- University of Edinburgh

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1 For a complete listing of students (who came from 41 different countries and who represented 34 different language backgrounds) with their country of origin refer to Table 10, Study Participants, in Appendix B (p 63).

2 For a list of how many course co-ordinators were surveyed from each institution, refer to Appendix B, Table 19: MSc Course Co-ordinator Questionnaire Participants (p 133).
1.3 EAP Specialist Questionnaire Data Sources

EAP specialists comprised the participant population for the questionnaire targeted at EAP professionals. Participants in this EAP professional-targeted questionnaire came from university language institutes and centres across Great Britain, including centres and institutes of the following schools:

- University of Aberdeen
- University of Dundee
- University of Sussex
- University of East Anglia
- University of Westminster
- University of Middlesex
- University of Glamorgan
- York University
- University of Swansea
- Buckingham University
- University of Wales (Lampeter)
- King's College (London)
- Glasgow University
- Queen Mary and Westfield College
- University of St. Andrews
- University of Leicester
- University of Bristol
- Hull University
1.4 Case Study Data Sources

Data pertaining to actual cases of apparent plagiarism was obtained by following up on information given by participants in the MScCCQ (MSc Course Coordinator Questionnaire). In order to protect the identity of students and institutional staff involved in these cases, the data regarding institutions, departments, and courses of study will remain confidential.³

1.5 Post-Fieldwork Data

The post-fieldwork data comprises texts obtained while working for the ECSSR (Emirates Center for Strategic Studies and Research), an independent research institution in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates. The derivative student texts were "written" by research trainees in a course taught by the current author. The texts relating to a case of plagiarism in the strategic studies discourse community were obtained while the current researcher was serving on the editorial staff of the ECSSR's department of publications and translation.

³ Much of the case study data was obtained on the condition that the sources of such data would remain confidential. Even despite such pledges of confidentiality, the current researcher encountered hesitancy on the part of some department staff to divulge details of apparent plagiarism cases.
2 Appendix B: Questionnaire Data

2.1 Introduction

In Appendix B, specific details will be given for each of the three questionnaires conducted. First, however, the background to the development of the study questionnaire will be given. Then the two pilot study questionnaires will presented, including the questionnaire results. Following this, the student questionnaire—as revised after the pilot studies—will be presented along with the questionnaire results. Next the course co-ordinator and BALEAP questionnaire data will be presented. Finally, concluding remarks on the questionnaire data will be given.

2.2 Specific Research Design and Questionnaire Results

2.2.1 Background to Development of the Questionnaire

Prior to the current postgraduate research project conducted while studying in the Department of Applied Linguistics at the University of Edinburgh, the current researcher had carried out a much smaller project investigating student conceptualisations of plagiarism. In this previous project done at Bowling Green State University (BGSU), the current author was influenced by an L1 study in which Kroll (1988) investigated perspectives of native-speaking college freshman at Indiana University.

Kroll, in his L1 study of how college freshman view plagiarism, found that there have been some surveys studying occurrences of, and attitudes toward academic dishonesty both among high school students (Dant 1986) and college students (Baird 1980; Nuss 1984), and that there have been many studies focusing on ways to prevent, discover, and deal with cases of academic dishonesty (Carroll 1982; Daniels 1960; Drum 1986; Martin 1971; Sauer 1983; Waltman 1980), but he found

4 The results of this previous project were reported in the unpublished manuscript, "How ESL students View Plagiarism" (Lesko 1993) and the report was submitted for a research methodology course while working toward the MA in TESOL degree in the English Department at Bowling Green State University.

5 Although this has been a summary of Kroll’s literature review, the current author has consulted all of the works cited here.
consideration of students' conceptualisations of plagiarism to be noticeably absent in most discussions of academic dishonesty:

What is conspicuously missing in most discussions, however, is any consideration of how students conceptualize the issue of plagiarism. We can probably assume that most college freshman have been told that plagiarism is wrong. But what reasons have they been given for why it is wrong? What do students understand about the nature and meaning of academic dishonesty? We know very little, I suspect, about why our students think plagiarism is wrong, despite the fact that it would seem logical to consider college students' own moral frames of reference when explaining the ethics of plagiarism (Kroll 1988: 203-204).

Similar questions had come up among staff in the English Department at BGSU after cases of apparent plagiarism involving ESL students. After such cases, staff were left pondering what students from non-Western cultures understand about the concept of plagiarism. This curiosity prompted the Bowling Green study, and the interest in this area of research was carried over to Edinburgh. It seemed that plagiarism-related issues involving ESL students held promise for being a fruitful area of inquiry, especially since not much had been written on such issues. The first survey was based on Kroll's work and was a replication of parts of his L1 questionnaire. An indebtedness must be expressed to Kroll for the influence his L1 work has had on the current L2 project. Kroll's questionnaire was modified significantly by the current researcher to have mainly an open-ended nature, but portions of his questionnaire have survived through to the current work.6

6 The modifications to Kroll's questionnaire were quite extensive. At Edinburgh, new questions were developed for the free response section, and nearly the entire revised questionnaire is of the current researcher's own construction except for the rating and ranking of explanations and statements on plagiarism, as well as question 2 which Kroll used to investigate why college freshman thought plagiarism was wrong. The rest of the questionnaire was the current researcher's own work.
In the BGSU study, only the 5 point scale response sections of Kroll's questionnaire were replicated, and this first investigation by the current researcher into student views and perspectives on plagiarism was a valuable research training experience. This earlier study revealed the type of problems to be expected which are inherent in surveys of views and attitudes held by respondents in any such type of project involving data collection by means of questionnaires.

2.2.1.1 Lesson from Previous Study: Reactivity Effect

One of the major problems inherent in an attitude questionnaire, notes J.D. Brown (1988), is that the survey instrument itself might cause a change in the thinking of study participants. This undesirable influence (at least for the current study) is called the reactivity effect:

One example of this effect might be an attitude questionnaire, in which the subjects actually form or solidify attitudes that they did not have before filling out the questionnaire. In this instance, the questionnaire becomes the catalyst for the very attitudes that are being studied. This effect would obviously influence, to an unpredictable degree, the results and the interpretation of the results. (Brown 1988: 35)

A question must be asked in any survey of participant attitudes with regard to plagiarism: "Did students have a definite prior conceptualisation of plagiarism before completing a questionnaire investigating their views on plagiarism?" Perhaps the questionnaire might raise ethical issues that some students had never before contemplated. If so, there is a problem with the instrument itself possibly shaping the students' responses. Such skewing of the study results renders them unreliable to an unpredictable degree.

For example, Kroll's questionnaire (and the BGSU and subsequent Edinburgh questionnaires) contained 5 ethical orientations one might have toward plagiarism, and participants were asked to rate these explanations on a scale. There is a problem in concluding that such ethical orientations are adequate representations of students' conceptualisations since the questionnaire itself may be shaping the student's

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7 Refer ahead to copies of the questionnaires in sections 2.2.1.2.6, 2.2.1.3.2, or 2.2.2.2.
responses, failing to capture conceptualisations which would result from a more open-ended questionnaire or from structured interviews on the topic of ethical orientations toward plagiarism.

In deciding on the methodology to use in data-gathering for the current study, and in the process of designing the student questionnaire, it was realised that careful consideration would be necessary to avoid as much as possible the introduction into the investigations of the reactivity effect. Brown gives several guidelines for controlling the reactivity effect:

The reactivity effect, that is, when the measures are causing a change in the subjects, can best be controlled by thoughtful study of the measures themselves. The measures can be studied by carefully questioning the subjects after the test to find out what thought processes they were using while they were taking the test or filling out the questionnaire, or by conducting a well-planned pilot test and review of the literature on the topic. In all cases, controlling for this effect will involve a thorough understanding of the measures involved in a study. (38)

In the Bowling Green study, students had been provided a definition of plagiarism (as Kroll had done with his L1 participants) rather than being asked to define plagiarism themselves. The definition given was as follows: "Plagiarism by definition, involves presenting someone else's ideas or words as if they were your own ideas or words, without giving proper credit or acknowledging the source." This statement seems vulnerable to a range of interpretations, and possibly the inclusion of this definition contributed to the reactivity effect in the earlier study. It therefore seemed to the current researcher that investigating how students themselves define plagiarism would be a better way of obtaining more reliable results in terms of student conceptualisations of plagiarism. Indeed, the definition a student ascribes to the concept of plagiarism may decide why he or she believes it is wrong to plagiarise, or contrarily it may help to reveal why a student might consider derivation to be acceptable under certain circumstances.

To avoid the reactivity effect in the current study, a questionnaire was formulated to include open-ended or free-response type of questions as the main data-gathering tool. These free-response questions were presented in the
questionnaire before any scale response or multiple choice type questions. This approach would give students freedom to express their true views and perspectives before they would be asked to complete a scale response section. Such free-response questions would also require a written response from the students which would give an indication of their proficiency in English (an established variable in L2 writing theory) and their ability to express themselves in writing. However, this could present a problem too, since less proficient students might not be able to give a well-written and understandable account of their views. 8

In this study, another variable seen to be important in investigating explanatory variables related to derivation/plagiarism was the variable of instructional background, i.e. what the study participants had previously been taught about plagiarism. For example, was their first experience with the concept in high school? In college? Students' previous writing experience, including previous instruction on plagiarism and breadth of experience are important variables in understanding conceptualisations of plagiarism. In other words, how have students developed their current views? An understanding of students' instructional backgrounds would also help to understand their current state of knowledge with regard to L2 writing conventions, another established variable which has been shown to be important in L2 writing theory. Finally, by asking students whether they had ever plagiarised before, or whether they had ever committed what could be interpreted as an act of plagiarism, a general idea could be formed as to how often derivation is used by ESL students as a writing strategy to complete an English academic writing task. And an explanation by students of their derivative writing would clarify whether or not derivation was in fact commonly used as a strategy, and responses might reveal other variables which are important in understanding why ESL students appropriate text. 9

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8 This was one reason that postgraduate participants were surveyed, since they could be expected to possess a higher level of proficiency in English. Proficiency did pose a problem later into the study when students at the Blackness Language Centre of Dundee College, and also in the English Language Teaching Division of Dundee University, found the questionnaire to be too difficult.
9 Hirose and Sasaki (1994) summarise five explanatory variables which have been found to be important in explaining L2 writing difficulties. The variables are writing strategies, L1 writing ability, knowledge of L2 writing conventions, instructional background, and L2 proficiency.
Critical evaluation of problems encountered in the Bowling Green study resulted in revision of the student questionnaire and the research design for the current study. However, the student questionnaire was to pass through several more stages of development after two pilot studies before it was administered to ESL students in the actual study.

2.2.1.2 Pilot Study 1

2.2.1.2.1 Participants and Procedure

Pilot study 1, hereafter referred to as P1, was conducted in April 1995. Participants in P1 were Edinburgh postgraduate students in the department of Applied Linguistics in either the MSc taught course or the research degree programme. 62 questionnaires were distributed (39 to MSc students and 23 to higher degree research students) to students' boxes with an accompanying letter (refer to section 2.2.1.2.2.6 for copies of questionnaire and letter). Participants indicated their willingness to take part in the study by voluntarily returning completed questionnaires to the current researcher. A total of 9 students responded,\(^{10}\) 4 NNSs and 5 NESs. Table 1 gives the breakdown of P1 respondents.

\(^{10}\) This was a disappointingly low response rate of 14%.
Table 1
Pilot Study 1 Participants

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All P1 respondents indicated that they had completed the questionnaire thoroughly and honestly, and that they had understood the questions asked.

2.2.1.2.2 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire was divided into 5 sections not including the introduction. In the introduction instructions were given for completing the questionnaire, and students were asked to give background information. In the instructions students were asked to complete the questionnaire one section at a time in order from section 1 to 5 without returning to a section once it had been completed. The reasoning was that in following these directions, students would complete the free response questions in section 1 before reading the explanations of plagiarism and statements on plagiarism which might have an effect on their response (i.e. the reactivity effect).

2.2.1.2.2.1 Section 1: Free Response

In Section 1 of the questionnaire students were asked to give their definitions of plagiarism in response to question 1. And in question 2 they were asked to give their views on why it is wrong to plagiarise (Question 2 adapted from Kroll 1988).

Students were asked to bracket separate reasons if they gave more than one reason why plagiarism is wrong, and they were asked to number these reasons in order of

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11 Refer to section 2.2.1.2.2.6 for a copy of the P1 questionnaire and accompanying letter.
importance. In question 3, students were asked for a brief history of their English academic writing experience. Following these questions students were reminded not to return to section 1 after beginning the next sections of the questionnaire.

2.2.1.2.2 Section 2: Rating and Ranking of Explanations

In Section 2 students were asked to rate, on a 5 point scale, 5 explanations of why students should not plagiarise (adapted from Kroll 1988). The students then ranked the explanations in order from the one that best expressed their views to the one that least expressed their views. These explanations were based on possible orientations one might have toward plagiarism: Self-Respect, the view that one should not plagiarise because of potential loss to self-esteem; Fairness, the view that one should not plagiarise in order to be fair to others; Consequences for the Academic Community, the view that one should not plagiarise because of the adverse effects on academia; Obedience to Rules, the idea that one should not plagiarise because it is against the rules; Teacher-Student Relationship, the view that one should not plagiarise because of the detrimental effects this would have on the relationship between teacher and student.

2.2.1.2.2.3 Section 3: Rating Statements on Plagiarism

In Section 3 the students rated 8 statements on plagiarism (adapted from Kroll 1988) investigating attitudes towards situations in which class members were plagiarising, attitudes regarding students' willingness to take personal action against plagiarists, and attitudes regarding whether or not plagiarism is situationally relative.

2.2.1.2.2.4 Section 4: Questions for NNSs

Section 4 was to be completed by NNSs only. This stipulation was given since a questionnaire had been sent to every student in the department, and not all of the students were NNSs. Since this was only a pilot study, the current researcher had no objection to native-speakers completing the questionnaire, and it was hoped that both NES and NNS colleagues would be able to offer constructive criticism of the survey.
in this section students were asked in question 1 if they thought that the issue of plagiarism was taken as seriously in their home country as in the UK. In question 2 students were asked if their views on plagiarism had changed significantly since coming to the UK. In question 3 students were asked if penalties for plagiarism in their home countries were as severe as in the UK. And in question 4 students were asked if they believed that NNSs face a greater challenge than NSs in learning about and coming to an understanding of academic plagiarism.

2.2.1.2.2.5 Section 5: General Questions

In section 5 students were asked if they thought that plagiarism occurred frequently among university students in the UK, and participants were also asked if they had plagiarised before or if they had ever committed what could be interpreted as an act of plagiarism. A list of reasons was given for students to indicate why they had plagiarised if they answered yes. If their reason was not one of the reasons given in the list, students were asked to explain in the space provided. Also, students were asked to give any relevant details about their experience with plagiarism or plagiarism-related appropriation. Finally, students were asked if they felt that they had completed the questionnaire thoroughly and honestly, if they understood the questions, and if they would be willing to participate in a follow up interview.
18 April 1995

Dear Colleague:

Your assistance in my investigations of academic plagiarism would be greatly appreciated. The purpose of this departmental pilot survey is to investigate definitions and conceptualizations of academic plagiarism.

Participation in the survey is voluntary and it is hoped that the results of this research will contribute toward a better understanding of student views in this important area. Completion and return of the questionnaire indicates voluntary agreement to participate in the study.

If you are planning to attend my seminar presentation on plagiarism, April 26, please complete this questionnaire prior to the seminar to avoid the possible skewing of the study results. Upon completion, (or alternatively, upon deciding not to participate in the study), please return this questionnaire to my pigeonhole, the "L" box, at 14 Buccleuch Place, Department of Applied Linguistics.

Thank you in advance.

Sincerely,

John P. Lesko
Questionnaire: Definitions and Conceptualizations of Academic Plagiarism

INTRODUCTION

Any department, university, or academic institution has the important responsibility of clearly defining terms such as "academic dishonesty", "plagiarism" etc. In developing and maintaining such definitions, as well as the accompanying guidelines and procedures, it is important to take into consideration the definitions and conceptualizations held by students.

In our department, we have had several different cases of plagiarism over the past few years. Some of these cases were not "obvious" cases of plagiarism; hence the need to have clear definitions, procedures, and guidelines in dealing with this touchy area. Since plagiarism is not only an important issue for our department, but for the university as well, and the academic community at large, your participation in this study and your valuable input will contribute to expanding our understanding of plagiarism.

Background Information

a. Country of origin: ___________________________

b. Native language: ____________________________

c. Age: __________

d. Gender (circle one) Male Female

INSTRUCTIONS

In the following sections you will find several types of questions. In Section 1 you will find free response types of questions. You will be asked to give short responses to questions regarding plagiarism. Please answer these questions as completely as possible, using additional sheets of paper if necessary.

In Section 2 you will be asked to indicate on a five point scale your level of agreement with explanations of why students should not plagiarize. In Section 3 you will be asked to rate on a five point
scale eight statements on plagiarism. Section 4 is for non-native speakers of English only. Native speakers of English should skip this section and move on to Section 5. In Section 5, for both native and non-native speakers of English, you will be asked some final, general questions regarding plagiarism.

The questionnaire should be completed one section at a time, in order from section 1 to section 5, without returning to a section once that section has been completed.

The responses to this questionnaire will be completely anonymous and confidential, so please answer the questions openly and honestly, giving your own thoughts on this issue of academic plagiarism.
Section 1: Free Response

1. What is your definition of plagiarism?

2. Most would agree that it is "wrong" to plagiarize. But WHY is it wrong?

Note: If you mentioned more than one reason, please put brackets around each separate reason and number each to indicate how important that reason is in explaining why plagiarism is wrong (starting with 1 for the most important reason). Put the number at the beginning of each bracketed reason, inside each left-hand bracket.
3. In the space below, give a brief history of the development of your English academic writing skills (writing courses taken, writing experience, etc.). Include in this history a statement of how you have come to hold your current views on academic plagiarism, and when you first encountered or became aware of the concept of plagiarism.

Reminder: Do not return to Section 1 again after beginning the next section of the questionnaire.

Section 2: Rating and Ranking of Explanations

Part A: Rating of Explanations

For this section of the questionnaire, please read carefully the following explanations of plagiarism. Decide how closely the explanations come to expressing your own view of why students should not plagiarize. You may find that you agree with several (perhaps even all) of these explanations. However, please try to differentiate between those explanations that express your own views quite well, and those that express your views only slightly even though you might agree with them. Then, rate each of the explanations according to the following scale of 1 to 5. Circle the number of your choice.
A. University students should always try to act in a way that they can be proud about. Students should not feel proud about plagiarizing. By plagiarizing, students show that they are careless, lazy, and dishonest. By plagiarizing, students lose their sense of integrity, honor, and self-esteem. If students want to keep their self-respect, they should not plagiarize.

1 = does not express my views  
2 = expresses my views only slightly  
3 = expresses my views to some extent  
4 = expresses my views fairly well  
5 = expresses my views very well

B. It is not fair when students get credit for work they did not do themselves. A student who plagiarizes produces a paper that makes other student's papers look weak or inferior by comparison. Therefore, the student who plagiarizes cheats other students who attempt to do their best work on their own. If students want to be fair to other students, then they should not plagiarize.

1 = does not express my views  
2 = expresses my views only slightly  
3 = expresses my views to some extent  
4 = expresses my views fairly well  
5 = expresses my views very well

C. University students are part of a community whose members value original thinking and believe that new ideas flourish only in an atmosphere of integrity and trust. Plagiarism violates this atmosphere, thereby destroying the conditions that are necessary for independent thinking and original research. If students want to preserve the university as a place where students and scholars can work productively, then they should not plagiarize.

1 = does not express my views  
2 = expresses my views only slightly  
3 = expresses my views to some extent  
4 = expresses my views fairly well  
5 = expresses my views very well

D. All universities, including Edinburgh University, have strict rules against plagiarizing. When students plagiarize, they break the rules, and if they are caught they will face severe penalties. Students must learn to obey the rules of the institution, and if they are caught plagiarizing, they should be
expected to pay the price and be penalized. If students want to avoid failure and expulsion, they should not plagiarize.

E. Most of your teachers care a great deal about students and work hard to help them learn. These teachers expect students to be equally caring and hard-working. It is insulting and upsetting to teachers when a student acts deceitfully and plagiarizes a paper. Plagiarism violates a teacher's trust in students. If students respect their teachers and want their teachers to respect them, they should not plagiarize.

Part B: Rank Ordering of Explanations

Now, please go back and rank the explanations from the one that best expresses your views (number 1) to the one that least expresses your views (number 5). Place your ranking on the line to the left of each explanation.

Section 3: Rating Statements on Plagiarism

For Section 3 of the questionnaire, please use this 5-point rating scale to rate the following statements about plagiarism. Circle the number of your choice.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree to some extent
3 = neutral or undecided
4 = agree to some extent
5 = strongly agree

A. I would be angry and feel it was unfair if I discovered that another student in a class of mine had plagiarized a paper.

1 2 3 4 5
B. I don't care if other students want to plagiarize; it's their business, not mine.

C. I don't think plagiarism is right, but there are still some situations in which a student might be forced to plagiarize in order to get a decent grade in a class.

D. If I knew that another student in one of my classes was planning to plagiarize a paper, I'd try to persuade him or her not to plagiarize.

E. If I discovered that a student had plagiarized, I would try to persuade him or her to confess to the instructor or appropriate authority.

F. If I discovered that a student had plagiarized, I would report him or her to the instructor.

G. Plagiarism is always wrong, regardless of circumstances.

H. If a student in this class got caught plagiarizing, he or she would deserve to fail the class.
Section 4: Non-native writing in English and Plagiarism (This section to be completed by non-native speakers of English only; native speakers of English skip this section)

Keeping in mind that this questionnaire is entirely confidential, and that you are not required to put your name on this questionnaire, please answer the following questions as honestly and completely as possible.

1. Would you say that the issue of plagiarism is taken as seriously in your native country as it is here in the UK?
   Yes  No

   If the answer is no, please explain briefly in the space below.

2. Have your views toward plagiarism changed significantly since you came to the UK to study?
   Yes  No

   If your answer is yes, how have your views toward plagiarism changed since you came to the UK?

3. Penalties for plagiarism here at Edinburgh University may include a failing grade on the paper, or even failure to obtain a degree in your particular course of study. Are the penalties for plagiarism back in your native country as severe as they are here in the UK?
   Yes  No

   If your answer is no, please explain briefly in the space below.
4. Do you believe that non-native speakers of English face a greater challenge than native-speakers in learning about and coming to an understanding of academic plagiarism?
   Yes  No
   
   If your answer is yes, please give the reasoning for your response in the space below.

Section 5: General Questions (for both native and non-native speakers)

1. Do you believe plagiarism occurs frequently among university students here in the UK?
   Yes  (No)

2. Since the beginning of developing your English writing skills, have you ever (either intentionally or unintentionally) committed what could be interpreted as an act of plagiarism?
   Yes  No

   If your answer was yes, was the plagiarism done for any of the following reasons? (check all that apply)
   A. I plagiarized because I was not aware that what I was doing might be considered wrong or dishonest.
   B. I plagiarized because I wanted to get a good grade.
   C. I plagiarized because I did not have the time to do the assignment myself.
   D. I plagiarized because I did not know that what I was doing was plagiarism.
   E. Other reason. Please explain in the space below.

   Please add in the space given below any further relevant details about your case of intentional/unintentional plagiarism.
Final Questions

Do you feel that you have completed this questionnaire thoroughly and honestly? Yes No

Did you understand the questions you were asked to respond to in this survey? Yes No

Would you be willing to participate in an interview session to further discuss your views on plagiarism? Yes No

If yes, please give your name and telephone number.

Name
Telephone

Upon completion, please return the questionnaire to John P. Lesko, University of Edinburgh, Department of Applied Linguistics, 14 Buccleuch Place.
2.2.1.2.3 Analysis and Summary of Results

2.2.1.2.3.1 Understanding of Plagiarism According to Participant Definitions

Since the focus of the study is on L2 English academic writing, only the NNS results will be presented here. Participants will be referred to by number, Student 1, Student 2 and so on (refer to Table 1). In analysing the completed questionnaire, students' understandings of plagiarism were first of all evaluated based mainly on their responses to question 1 and how they defined plagiarism, but their understanding of plagiarism was also based on a holistic evaluation of the entire questionnaire responses. For example, an ideal understanding of plagiarism would include the knowledge that acknowledgement must be given for use of another author's ideas or words. Thus, if a student did not mention acknowledgement in his/her definition of plagiarism, but mentioned it elsewhere in the questionnaire, that mention would be taken into account in the evaluation.

Students' understanding of plagiarism was evaluated according to the following 5 point scale developed by the current researcher. At one end of the scale, 1 represents an ideal understanding of plagiarism, while at the other end of the scale, 5 represents no apparent understanding of the concept.

1 Ideal understanding of plagiarism
2 Good understanding of plagiarism.
3 Basic understanding of plagiarism.
4 Poor or confused understanding of plagiarism
5 No apparent understanding of plagiarism

Students were given a 1 if they showed an ideal understanding, that is an understanding that plagiarism involves unattributed or unacknowledged copying or borrowing of another person's ideas or words, with the intent to make the reader believe that they are original ideas or wording. If students showed any misunderstanding of plagiarism but still met all the requirements of the 1 category,

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12 Because of the low number of participants, this summary of P1 results will necessarily be brief. Extensive analysis and discussion will be reserved for P2 and the actual study questionnaire results. Additionally, only the NNS results will be presented for P1 (But see also volume 1, chapter 4 of the current work for discussion of the pilot study results).
13 A comparison study of NES and NNS views on plagiarism would be a fascinating inquiry.
they received a 2. If students omitted acknowledgement but still showed an understanding that plagiarism involves copying words or ideas, they received a 2. A 3 was given if it appeared their understanding was less clear, and a 4 was given to those who exhibited confusion or serious misunderstanding about the concept, for example if a student were to confuse plagiarism with copyright violation or cheating. 5 was reserved for those who had no apparent understanding of plagiarism.

Three P1 participants had an ideal understanding of plagiarism, while one had a basic understanding according to the evaluation of the current researcher.

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### 2.2.1.2.3.2 Reasons Given Why Plagiarism is Wrong

In analysing question 2, which investigated students views on why plagiarism is wrong, adherence was maintained to Kroll's 6 primary classifications of Individual Responsibility, Ownership, Fairness, Honesty, Laziness, Crime and Punishment as well as his secondary categories of Miscellaneous and Unclassifiable. In Pilot 1 the reasons given for why plagiarism is wrong fell into the categories of Ownership, Individual Responsibility, and Unclassifiable.

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### 2.2.1.2.3.3 English Academic Writing Experience

In question 3 students were asked for a brief history of their academic writing experience, including when they had first encountered or become aware of plagiarism. Student 1 had a very interesting account to relate on her writing experience relating to awareness of plagiarism:

In the teacher training college in Hungary where I did my first degree nobody mentioned plagiarism. For a long time it was a foreign sounding word (note: that we don't have a hungarian equivalent for plagiarism, but we use plagizal (3rd sing) for it) I became aware of it only in the final year when I was writing my BA thesis, but we did not have any writing courses where teachers could have pointed it out to us how bad/ immoral it is to plagiarise. So with this lack of awareness students resorted quite often to plagiarism. Next year when I started teaching in the same department, I became acutely aware of the problem. I was supervising theses, and I realised that the norm was plagiarism, and the exception was some original work.
Student 2 became aware of plagiarism at age six from a school teacher, while student 3 first encountered the concept in a postgraduate departmental session on academic writing after coming to Edinburgh. Student 4 gave no indication of when she first encountered plagiarism as a concept.

2.2.1.2.3.4 Differences in Perceptions of Plagiarism

From Section 4 of the questionnaire, it appeared that students were evenly divided on this question of differing perceptions of plagiarism--2 thought plagiarism was taken just as seriously in their home country, while two did not think it was taken as seriously.

2.2.1.2.3.5 Change in Views

Only one student indicated that her views had changed since coming to the UK to study.

2.2.1.2.3.6 Severity of Penalties for Plagiarism

One student thought penalties for plagiarism were not as severe in her home country, 2 thought they were just as severe, and one did not know. Giving a qualified description of why she thought plagiarism penalties were not as severe, student 1 relates an informative comment on her instructional background:

Yes, but I guess at big universities the state of affairs is different. I went to a rather neglected teacher training college in a smallish city. Also, with the political and social changes/upheaval the main objective was has been to give as many teacher's degrees in as short a time as possible (cessation of the demand for Russian teachers, great demand for English/German teachers) So don't quote me without qualifying what you say. In Budapest and the other universities people might have been more aware of plagiarism!! (for all I know)

---

14 Student 3, who was from Greece, relates an experience which is a practical illustration that some students come from instructional backgrounds where they have apparently never been taught the concept of plagiarism.
2.2.1.2.3.7 Learning About Plagiarism

In response to question 4, 2 of the respondents expressed their views that NNSs face a greater challenge than NSs in learning about and coming to an understanding of academic plagiarism. Student 1 said "You do have to come and live and study in an English speaking country to realise the seriousness of the offence exactly because of different perceptions of plagiarism." Student 2 simply wrote "cultural differences" while the other 2 students did not see learning about plagiarism to be a greater challenge for NNSs.

2.2.1.2.3.8 Frequency of Plagiarism

In responding to section 5 question 1, 3 participants expressed the view that plagiarism occurs frequently among university students in the UK, and one student did not answer the question.

2.2.1.2.3.9 Students Who Have Appropriated Text Before and Reasons Why

One respondent indicated that she had plagiarised before for reasons A, not aware that actions might be considered wrong or dishonest, and D, she did not know she was plagiarising. She also stated "I plagiarised because I didn't know any better. I have plagiarised because I didn't think I could have put it in a better way." Another respondent said "I am not sure if I have plagiarised or not" and the other two said they had never committed what could be interpreted as an act of plagiarism.

2.2.1.2.3.10 Rating and Ranking of Explanations

For this section students rated the 5 explanations of why students should not plagiarise. The table below summarises the results.
Table 2: P1 Rating and Ranking of Explanations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>Best Expresses Viewpoint</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. Self-Respect  B. Fairness  C. Consequences for the Academic Community  D. Obedience to Rules  E. Teacher Student Relationship

Rating Scale: (5—expresses my views very well, 4—expresses my views fairly well, 3—expresses my views to some extent, 2—expresses my views only slightly, and 1—does not express my views).

Not much time will be spent discussing these responses in the appendices because of the small number of pilot study respondents; however it is evident that two students preferred B, Fairness, as the explanation that best expressed their views on why students should not plagiarise. In volume one of the current work, chapter 4, the Pilot Study results are discussed from a Dynamic Model perspective.
2.2.1.2.3.11 Rating of Statements on Plagiarism

In this section students rated 8 statements on plagiarism (given below Table 3).

Table 3: P1 Rating Statements on Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
<th>H</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5—strongly agree, 4—agree to some extent, 3—neutral or undecided, 2—disagree to some extent, and 1—strongly disagree).

Statements
A. I would be angry and feel it was unfair if I discovered that another student in the class had plagiarised a paper.
B. I don't care if other students want to plagiarise; it's their business, not mine.
C. I don't think plagiarism is right, but there are still some situations in which a student might be forced to plagiarise in order to get a decent grade in a course.
D. If I knew that another student in the class was planning to plagiarise a paper, I'd try to persuade him or her not to plagiarise.
E. If I discovered that a student had plagiarised, I'd try to persuade him or her to confess.
F. If I discovered that a student had plagiarised, I'd report him or her to the instructor.
G. Plagiarism is always wrong, regardless of circumstances.
H. If a student in this class got caught plagiarising a paper, he or she would deserve to fail the course.

2.2.1.2.4 Conclusions

From the poor questionnaire return rate in Pilot Study 1 (14% return rate), it became clear that more respondents would be needed to complete the revised student questionnaire if this was going to be a valid inquiry. It was also clear that revisions were needed. P1 respondents made helpful suggestions to improve the questionnaire, and prior to Pilot Study 2, revisions were made and the format of the questionnaire was changed.
2.2.1.3 Pilot Study 2

2.2.1.3.1 Participants and Procedures

For the second pilot study (P2), the questionnaire was conducted in August and September of 1995 among NNS students taking pre-sessional EAP courses in the University of Edinburgh's Institute for Applied Language Studies. The questionnaire was conducted among 3 groups of students. The major difference in P2, other than the revised questionnaire, was the method used in administering the questionnaire. Rather than putting the questionnaire in student boxes for students to complete and return as in P1, the current researcher met with 2 groups of students and had the students complete the questionnaire in one sitting. After this, a follow up discussion session was scheduled to discuss the questionnaire results. With another group of students, the current researcher could not obtain access to the students as an entire group, so the students took home the questionnaires and completed them, returning them to their instructors who then returned the completed questionnaires to the current researcher. A follow up discussion session was also scheduled with this group, but no students chose to attend this session. Table 4 gives the details regarding P2 participants. One student was disqualified from sections 2 and 3 because she did not understand those sections.

15 It seems that there may have been a communication breakdown. The pre-sessional instructor may have forgotten until the last minute to ask the students if they would attend a discussion session. This communication breakdown illustrates the importance of personal contact by researchers with study participants, unless for some reason the contact is undesirable. As helpful as colleagues have been in this study, not all of them shared the same interests and concerns as the current researcher in ensuring that results were obtained and that participants knew what was being requested of them.
Table 4
Pilot Study 2 Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home Country</th>
<th>Native Language (s)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Italian</td>
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<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
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<td>Korea</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Nepali</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Palestine</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
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<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Chinese (Mandarin)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total number of students in study 30

All P1 respondents indicated that they had completed the questionnaire thoroughly and honestly, and only one student indicated that she did not understand the questions in sections 2 and 3.

2.2.1.3.2 The Questionnaire as Revised Since Pilot Study One

After the initially discouraging Pilot Study 1, with a 14.5% return rate, it became clear that not only were more respondents needed for a satisfactory pilot study, but revisions were also necessary. For one thing, there were too many sections to the questionnaire, giving it a formidable appearance. It seemed bulky, and perhaps the long introduction and instructions were a deterrent to more students completing the questionnaire in P1. It had the appearance of being a time consuming task, especially with the lengthy introductory material. Among ESL students in pre-sessional courses, reading comprehension would be a factor preventing those of lower English proficiency from giving a complete response. The EAP co-ordinator at the University of Edinburgh's Institute for Applied Language Studies (IALS),16

16 The current researcher is indebted to Tony Lynch and other members of IALS staff who made valuable suggestions.
suggested that the questionnaire was quite lengthy (10 pages) and that it might be too
difficult (or appear to be too difficult) of a questionnaire for pre-sessional students to
complete in one sitting.

With these considerations in mind, the questionnaire was revised for Pilot Study 2, to be conducted among IALS pre-sessional EAP students in August and September
of 1995. The questionnaire was revised by shortening the Introduction and
Instructions (refer several pages ahead to copy of questionnaire), and the explanations
of orientations one might have toward plagiarism were also abbreviated.

The questionnaire was also reorganised into 3 sections, with section 1 now containing
the questions that had been in sections 1, 4 and 5 of the Pilot 1 questionnaire.

Students would therefore complete the rating and ranking sections last, in sections 2
and 3 of the revised P2 questionnaire. Some of the questions were also reformulated,
shortened where possible, and some new questions were designed in order to elicit the
same sort of information in a slightly different way.

In Section 1 students were again asked for their definition of plagiarism in
question 1. In question 2 students were asked for their reasons regarding why it
might be wrong to plagiarise. In place of the lengthy note asking students to bracket
separate reasons and number them in order of importance, students were simply asked
to number separate reasons and underline the most important one.17 Question 3 in
Pilot 1 was also rather lengthy, and this question was broken up into several separate
questions for Pilot 2--question 3 in Pilot 1 now became questions 3, 4 and 5 in Pilot
2--asking students for their experience in English academic writing, how they have
come to hold current views on plagiarism, and when they had first encountered or
become aware of the concept of plagiarism. As in Section 4 of Pilot 1, students were
again asked if they thought that plagiarism was taken as seriously in their home
countries as in the UK (question 6); if students' views on plagiarism had changed since
coming to the UK (question 7); if penalties for plagiarism are as severe in students'

17 The bracketing and numbering of separate reasons seemed to be a good idea, but in practice it
was a confusing request which PI respondents brought to the attention of the current researcher.
home countries as in the UK (question 8); and whether students believed that persons 
from their culture face a greater challenge than British students in learning about and 
coming to an understanding of plagiarism, and if so why ( question 9).

As in section 5 of Pilot 1, students were again asked if they believed plagiarism 
to be a frequent occurrence among university students in the UK (question 10). And 
in question 11 an inquiry was made as to whether students had plagiarised before, or 
if they had ever committed what could be interpreted as an act of plagiarism; if their 
response was affirmative, students were asked to give the reasons why they had 
appropriated text and to give any relevant details.

In Section 2, the rating and ranking of explanations, the explanations were 
shortened and at the beginning of each explanation, specific categories of orientations 
were given in boldface text so that at a glance students could see the main emphasis 
of each statement. At the end of section two, rather than asking students to rank the 
explanations, students were asked to indicate which explanation came closest to 
expressing their views. In Section 3, the rating of statements on plagiarism, no 
significant changes were made.

For final questions, students were again asked if they had completed the 
questionnaire thoroughly and honestly. Students were then asked if they had 
understood the questions in the survey, and they were asked to indicate any questions 
they did not understand. The rationale in doing this was the belief that because of the 
open-ended nature of the questionnaire, and because there was no plan to do a 
statistical analysis of probability, each student's response would be of value. 
Discarding an entire questionnaire just because a student did not understand one 
question seemed to be a waste of valuable free-response comments by ESL students. 
Therefore, only particular responses to questions were eliminated from the data if a 
student indicated that he/she did not understand a certain question within the 
questionnaire. Since the questionnaire was intended for NNSs who might have 
difficulty with reading comprehension, some difficulty with the questionnaire was
expected, but nevertheless, it was also expected that each ESL student would be able to provide a valuable response.
Questionnaire: Definitions and Conceptualizations of Academic Plagiarism

INTRODUCTION

It is important for teachers to consider student definitions and conceptualizations of plagiarism. By completing this questionnaire you will be contributing toward a better understanding of student views on academic plagiarism. Your valuable input on this important issue is greatly appreciated.

The responses to this questionnaire will be completely anonymous and confidential, so please answer the questions openly and honestly, giving your own thoughts on this issue of plagiarism.

Background Information

a. Country of origin: ____________________________
b. Native language: ____________________________
c. Age: _____
d. Gender (circle one) Male  Female

INSTRUCTIONS

In the following sections you will find several types of questions. The questionnaire should be completed one section at a time, in order from section 1 to section 3, without returning to a section once that section has been completed.
Section 1: Free Response

1. What is your definition of plagiarism?

2. Most would agree that it is "wrong" to plagiarize. But WHY is it wrong? (If you give more than one reason, please number each separate reason and underline the most important reason why you believe plagiarism to be wrong.)

3. What experience have you had in English academic writing? (courses taken, etc.)
4. How have you come to hold your current views on plagiarism?

5. When did you first encounter or become aware of the concept or idea of plagiarism?

6. Would you say that the issue of plagiarism is taken as seriously in your native country as it is here in the UK? If no, please explain.

7. Have your views toward plagiarism changed significantly since you came to the UK to study? If yes, how have your views changed?

8. Penalties for plagiarism here in the UK may include a failing grade on the paper, or even failure to obtain a degree in your particular course of study. Are the penalties for plagiarism back in your native country as severe as they are here in the UK? If no, please explain.
9. Do you believe that students from your culture face a greater challenge than British students in learning about and coming to an understanding of academic plagiarism? If yes, please explain.

10. Do you believe plagiarism occurs frequently among university students here in the UK? If yes, please explain.

11. Have you ever (either intentionally or unintentionally) committed what could be interpreted as an act of plagiarism?  
   - Yes  No
   If your answer was yes, was the plagiarism done for any of the following reasons? (check all that apply)
     A. I plagiarized because I was not aware that what I was doing might be considered wrong or dishonest.
     B. I plagiarized because I wanted to get a good grade.
     C. I plagiarized because I did not have the time to do the assignment myself.
     D. I plagiarized because I did not know that what I was doing was plagiarism.
     E. Other reason. Please explain in the space below.

Please add in the space given below any further relevant details about your case of intentional/unintentional plagiarism.

Note: Do not return to Section 1 again after beginning the next section of the questionnaire.

Section 2: Rating of Explanations
For this section of the questionnaire, please read the following explanations and decide how closely the explanations come to expressing your own view of why students should not plagiarize. Then, rate each of the explanations according to the following scale of 1 to 5. Circle the number of your choice.

1 = does not express my views
2 = expresses my views only slightly
3 = expresses my views to some extent
4 = expresses my views fairly well
5 = expresses my views very well

A. Self Respect: By plagiarizing, students show that they are careless, lazy, and dishonest. By plagiarizing, students lose their sense of integrity, honor, and self-esteem. To keep their self-respect, students should not plagiarize.

B. Fairness: It is not fair when students get credit for work they did not do themselves. To be fair to other students, students should not plagiarize.

C. Consequences for the Academic Community: Plagiarism destroys conditions that are necessary for independent thinking and original research. To preserve the university as a place where students and scholars can work productively, students should not plagiarize.

D. Obedience to Rules: Universities have strict rules against plagiarizing. Students must learn to obey the rules of the institution. To avoid penalties, students should obey the rules and not plagiarize.

E. Teacher-Student Relationship: It is insulting and upsetting to teachers when a student acts deceitfully and plagiarizes a paper.
Plagiarism violates a teacher's trust in students. To maintain a good relationship with their teachers, students should not plagiarize

1 2 3 4 5

Which explanation in this section comes the closest to expressing your views of why students should not plagiarize? (circle the letter of your choice) A B C D E

Section 3: Rating Statements on Plagiarism

For Section 3 of the questionnaire, please use this 5-point rating scale to rate the following statements about plagiarism. Circle the number of your choice.

1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree to some extent
3 = neutral or undecided
4 = agree to some extent
5 = strongly agree

A. I would be angry and feel it was unfair if I discovered that another student in a class of mine had plagiarized a paper.

   1 2 3 4 5

B. I don't care if other students want to plagiarize; it's their business, not mine.

   1 2 3 4 5

C. I don't think plagiarism is right, but there are still some situations in which a student might be forced to plagiarize in order to get a decent grade.

   1 2 3 4 5

D. If I knew that another student in one of my classes was planning to plagiarize a paper, I'd try to persuade him or her not to plagiarize.
E. If I discovered that a student had plagiarized, I would try to persuade him or her to confess to the instructor or appropriate authority.

F. If I discovered that a student had plagiarized, I would report him or her to the instructor.

G. Plagiarism is always wrong, regardless of circumstances.

H. If a student got caught plagiarizing, he or she would deserve to fail the class.

Final Questions

Do you feel that you have completed this questionnaire thoroughly and honestly? Yes  No

Did you understand the questions you were asked to respond to in this survey? Yes  No  If no, which questions did you not understand?
2.2.1.3.3 Analysis and Summary of Results

2.2.1.3.3.1 Understanding of Plagiarism According to Participant Definitions

As in P1, students' understanding of plagiarism was evaluated according to the following 5 point scale:

1. Ideal understanding of plagiarism
2. Good understanding of plagiarism.
3. Basic understanding of plagiarism.
4. Poor or confused understanding of plagiarism.
5. No apparent understanding of plagiarism.

This evaluation was based mainly on how students defined plagiarism, but also on a holistic evaluation of a student's entire questionnaire. To illustrate more clearly in discussing Pilot 2 results, examples will be presented. If students showed an ideal understanding of plagiarism, including the knowledge that plagiarism involves unacknowledged copying or borrowing of another person's words or ideas, they received a rating of 1.

The following definitions of plagiarism given by students were classified in the ideal understanding of plagiarism category:

Plagiarism is the practice of copying other ideas, works or thoughts without attributing authors.

Copying of other's view, idea or word without acknowledging and pretending for own.

Several students received a rating of 1 because although not all criteria were met in the definitions of plagiarism given, elsewhere in the questionnaire sufficient proof was given that they had an ideal understanding of the concept. For example, one student gave the following definition of plagiarism:

- Copying other's written work word by word and claiming that to be your own.
There was no mention of acknowledgement here, but in his response to the next question, the student mentioned attribution in his reasoning behind why it is wrong to plagiarise:

Believing on other's idea is not bad. So if you want to use the idea use your own words possibly in some different way. Or if you want to use the same words then the original writer has a right to be attributed. By not doing so, you are sort of doing a cheating.

Another student gave her definition as simply "academic theft." But elsewhere she too more fully explained her views:

It shows that you are deceiving. In academic society, originality is very important. Many people have worked so hard to produce something new. So we should respect and give credit to their ideas. It is an ethical issue.

She was therefore evaluated as having an ideal understanding of plagiarism.

Students were given a rating of 2 if they had less than an ideal understanding of plagiarism, for example not mentioning acknowledgement as necessary to avoid plagiarism, but still showing knowledge that plagiarism involves copying ideas or words. Also, if they showed some other minor misunderstanding of plagiarism they received a 2. The following explanations fell into the good understanding of plagiarism category:

- It is using someone's idea as if it were your own idea.

- To steal other person's academic achievements and use it as your own.

Students were given a rating of 3 if it seemed that their understanding of plagiarism was less clear, but they still had a basic knowledge that copying was involved. The following definitions were rated as expressing a basic understanding of plagiarism:

- To use someone's idea without his/her permission.

- copying one text exactly without providing new ideas.

- Is the action of copying someone idea or work of other person.
Definitions were rated with a 4 if students exhibited a poor understanding of plagiarism, or demonstrated confusion or serious misunderstanding. To illustrate, consider the following, an example of a participant who exhibited confusion between copyright violation and plagiarism as evidenced in the views he expressed on why it is wrong to plagiarise:

It affects the original book's sale.

It appeared that the student equated plagiarism with copyright violation as did another student who expressed the following:

Copyrights also are not seriously considered in Japan.

No students in Pilot 2 were given a rating of 5, no apparent understanding of plagiarism. Table 5 gives the breakdown of how student definitions of plagiarism were rated.

Table 5: Rating of Student Definitions of Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Number who received rating of</th>
<th>Percent (N=30)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Ideal Understanding</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Good Understanding</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Basic Understanding</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Poor Understanding</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 No Understanding</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.1.3.3.2 Reasons Given Why Plagiarism is Wrong

In analysing question 2, which investigated student views on why plagiarism is wrong, Kroll's 6 primary classifications of Individual Responsibility, Ownership, Fairness, Honesty, Laziness, Crime and Punishment as well as the secondary categories of Miscellaneous and Unclassifiable were again adhered to following the rule that students could have no more than one response classified in each primary category. Three primary categories were added by the current researcher in addition
to Kroll's classifications. These additional categories were seen to be important since as the questionnaires were analysed, it emerged that students gave reasons corresponding to the categories of Not Wrong, Academic Consequences, and Moral Issue. In PI, before these 3 new categories were introduced, several students also gave reasons that might fall into these categories. For example, one Pilot 1 student said "It is not so much wrong as it is disloyal" (Not Wrong). Several other Pilot 1 students gave reasons such as "It waters down the quality of academic debate/advancement" (Academic Consequences).

Kroll assigned responses to the Unclassifiable category if the responses were tautological, that is simply repeating that plagiarism is wrong. He gives as an example of a tautological response "saying that plagiarism was 'morally wrong' " (207). However, the example he gives seemed to the current researcher to be not a tautological response but a separate valid category for why a student might believe it is wrong to plagiarise. "Morally wrong" could indicate that perhaps the student's reasoning has religious orientations, such as seeing plagiarism to be a sin, as some students in this study expressed.

Also, in looking back to Pilot 1 again, although not in the section on why it is wrong to plagiarise, one student wrote "we did not have any writing courses where teachers could have pointed it out to us how bad/ immoral it is to plagiarise." So considering the responses in Pilot 1 which might fall into these 3 categories, and now seeing that these categories were emerging in Pilot 2, it seemed necessary to expand the primary category range for classifying student responses to question 2.

To analyse student responses to question 2, the 6 primary categories which emerged in Kroll's L1 study were again adhered to, but also included were the 3 additional primary categories which seemed relevant for analysing responses in this L2 study. In Pilot 2 students were asked to number each separate reason they gave instead of using brackets, and they were asked to underline the most important reason why they felt it was wrong to plagiarise. However, as Kroll found in his study, it was discovered in the current study that the student numbering of reasons
was unreliable. The numbering did not account for all reasons given in student responses. The numbering was therefore adjusted (following Kroll's example) to more accurately represent the reasons given so as to be able to classify separate reasons in appropriate categories. Students also failed to underline their most important reasons, so these could not be taken into account.

To review the categorising of student reasons, the rule used by Kroll is as follows. Only one response per student could be classified in each primary category. In other words, no student could have more than one response in any particular category excepting Miscellaneous and Unclassifiable. Table 6 gives the frequency that each category was mentioned in student responses.
### Table 6: P2 Students' Reasons that Plagiarism Is Wrong

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Reasons</th>
<th>Frequency (N=30) (percent of students who mentioned each reason)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual Responsibility</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>50%(^{18})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laziness</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime and Punishment</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Consequences</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morality</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Wrong</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclassifiable</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The figures in this table represent the percentage of students who mentioned reasons that could be classified in each particular category. Since students sometimes gave more than one reason to explain why plagiarism is wrong, the figures sum to more than 100%.

For these students, Ownership ranks highest at 50% among the reasons students gave to explain why plagiarism is wrong. Second comes Academic Consequences at 20%, followed by three categories that received equal percentage ratings of 17%—Individual Responsibility, Fairness, and Honesty. Next comes Crime and Punishment with 10% followed by morality with 7% and Not Wrong at 3%. The secondary categories of Miscellaneous and Unclassifiable were rated at 7% and 3% respectively.

\(^{18}\) This seems to be a significant percentage of students who regard ownership as the most important reason to explain why plagiarism is wrong. This figure goes very much against the idea that ESL students have an ideological conflict with the Western Utilitarian discourse structure which values text as a commodity (Scollon 1995). To the contrary, these students in P2 expressed ownership of text and ideas as a main reason why plagiarism is unacceptable. Such results of course must be confirmed in the actual study, and perhaps some students have the ideological conflicts theorised by Scollon.
Although students failed to underline the most important reasons, 8 students mentioned ownership oriented reasons only to explain why plagiarism is wrong. 

In total then, 15 students (50%) explained why plagiarism is wrong by giving reasons based on Ownership, "the idea that plagiarism involves the theft of someone else's property or possessions, a crime analogous to stealing a car or stereo" (Kroll p213) This reasoning is evident in responses such as the following:

Original opinions or theories in academic writings are considered to be his or her own property.

Because, this is intellectual robbery.

Six students (20%) gave reasons that could be classified as Academic Consequence reasoning, the idea that plagiarism is wrong because of the adverse effects it would have on academic endeavour, being an offence against other members of the academic community. This idea is clear in the responses presented below:

Academic writing, if it is in excellent quality, is rewarding; status, qualification, degree.

It prevents the progress in academic fields.

Honesty, Fairness and Individual Responsibility came next, each being mentioned by 5 students (17%) in their responses. Responses in the Honesty category presented the view that plagiarism is wrong because "it involves such acts as lying, deceit, or fraud" (Kroll 213). This view is seen in the following student responses:

it is a ly.

Plagiarism ... gives a wrong idea of the capacity of the student to create new ideas.

- It shows that you are deceiving.

The category "that included statements about the just distribution of the 'credit' due to an author" was Fairness. "Two main concepts were included in these
responses: that an injustice occurs when an author doesn't get the credit he or she deserves, and that an injustice occurs when a person gets undeserved credit by plagiarizing" (Kroll 212). The following statements were classified in the Fairness category:

It is unfair.
It is not fair on other people (making all the effort).

Individual Responsibility is the idea that "students have a responsibility not to plagiarise, either because plagiarism involves cheating oneself (usually out of learning or improving as a writer), or because it violates the duty to do one's own work (and thus to use one's own mind or creative capacity)" (Kroll 211). Reasons expressing this view are seen in the following statements:

Basically because it doesn't help you develop your own ideas and personality.

This practice makes the people less creative in their thinking.

Crime and Punishment was the category that "included any statements that referred to plagiarism as a crime, as a violation of a rule or law, or as an act that risked punishment for the offender" (Kroll 214). The following statements were classified in this category:

Plagiarism is the practice which is punishable by law, so this action is illegal.

Plagiarism is a crime.

Moral Issue, the idea that students should not plagiarise because it is immoral, was mentioned by 2 students (7%):

morally wrong.

No doubt it is wrong to plagiarize someone's idea or work. Because it is not good moral.

The idea that plagiarism is not wrong was held by one student who gave the following explanation:
I do not think it is wrong because it depend on what kind of situation is. it is wrong if you plagiarise on purpose. For example, you want to establish a name for yourself or publish a new research. But you only use other research or sentences to support your theory or in order to extend a theory or research, it is not wrong.

However, it appears that this student had a poor understanding of plagiarism, not realising that it is acceptable to use "other research or sentences" to support a theory, provided acknowledgement is made.

Reasons were classified as Miscellaneous responses if they were "legitimate but uncommon responses that did not fit into any other categories" (Kroll 207). 2 responses were categorised as Miscellaneous:

The readers cannot assess your articles correctly.

If intentionally-not good manner, no respectable person should do this.

Reasons that were tautological, saying the same thing over again, or for which the significance was unclear, were designated as Unclassifiable. One student gave such a response:

Someone, who plagiarized, destroys their life.

2.2.1.3.3 English Academic Writing Experience

How students have developed their current views is an important question since this will obviously affect how they define plagiarism, and why they believe it to be wrong. In investigating how students have come to hold their views, the current researcher was interested in knowing more about their English academic writing experience (question 3), in knowing more about how students have come to hold current views (question 4), in finding out when students first encountered or became aware of the concept of plagiarism (question 5) and in seeing if students' views had changed significantly since they had come to the UK (question 7). This last question would also provide clues to the role university pre-sessional EAP courses play in
shaping students' perceptions of plagiarism as part of their initiation into a new
academic community.

There was a variable response regarding academic writing experience. Some
students had written thesis papers and senior projects in English. Others had had
English language training from the British Council, while for some, the current EAP
course was their first experience in English academic writing.

2.2.1.3.3.4 Current View Development According to Student Descriptions

Responses to question 4 provided some interesting reading representing various
ways in which students have come to hold their current views. 6 students (20%)
indicated that the current pre-sessional course was the influence that led to
development of their current views. One student said "I heard that word in this course
for the first time", and another said "From the course I'm taking now in EAP [I have
come to hold my current views]."

Others had developed their views prior to the current course, by reading for
example: "By reading many publications in all of which plagiarism is pointed out as a
illegal practice." Others had heard of publicised cases of plagiarism: "In Japan when
we had guidance for academic writing. I read in Japanese newspaper about a famous
professor lost his job because of plagiarism." And teachers and instructors were
influential in the development of others' views: "I learned from a teacher before
writing my graduation thesis." British Council training, and looking the term up in a
dictionary were other influential factors mentioned by students.

Family upbringing was mentioned by some students, for example a mother's
explanation: "I am not sure, I think that my mother explained to me the meaning
when I was a child." One participant, herself a teacher, stressed both in her
questionnaire and in the follow-up discussion session held with her group, that her
views had gone through an important stage of development when she supervised
student coursework and frequently found instances of plagiarism. Similar to
experiences which other teacher-participants in this study have related, she explains
how her views on plagiarism were influenced: "[my] view on plagiarism is stronger
when I produced my own work and when I supervised my MA students in their classroom based projects." She relates the most influential experience in the development of her views: "When I saw some of my MA students tried to copy other people's work."

Through question 4, an attempt was made to investigate when students had first became aware of the concept or idea of plagiarism. The majority of students had encountered the idea or concept of plagiarism prior to coming to the UK to study. Several had first become aware of plagiarism through publicised cases, for example by hearing about another student who had plagiarised, or by reading of newspaper reports on lecturers who plagiarised. One public case mentioned by a student involved a novelist.

Others had first encountered the term through British Council training, through the experience of writing an academic paper, and through teacher explanations and course instruction such as specialised courses on conducting research at university. Even before receiving British Council training one participant said, "without knowing the term I had the idea that while taking other writers' words in writing it should be acknowledged either putting the name(s) at the start or end of the paragraph."

Although 6 students indicated that their current pre-sessional course had been influential in the development of their current views, only half that number (3) had actually first encountered the term in that pre-sessional course. And interestingly, this P2 questionnaire seems to be the first time one student encountered the idea of plagiarism: "I never really thought about it before today" was his response.

Finally, for some responses to this question, it was unclear what students were trying to say, or very difficult to analyse the responses. For example, students just gave a date or the age when they first heard of the concept of plagiarism. Only one student did not respond at all to this question.
2.2.1.3.3.5 Change in Views

The majority of students, nineteen (63%) reported that there had been no significant change in their views since coming to the UK to study. Several felt they had not been here long enough for their views to be influenced, saying for example, that they had been "here for only 3 weeks."

Although some student's views had not changed, the pre-sessional course was helpful in familiarising students more with the concept as the following student said:

No, but I have become more familiar as I have started learning writing up research classes in the English course.

Seven students indicated that their views had changed significantly since coming to the UK. These students came to view plagiarism more seriously, seeing it as a more important issue than they had prior to the start of their pre-sessional EAP courses, as seen in this student's comment: "Through the presessional course, I have realized more how much we should be careful."

2.2.1.3.3.6 Differing Perceptions and Perspectives on Plagiarism

Through question 6 an investigation was made regarding students' perceptions of how seriously plagiarism is taken in their home countries as compared to here in the UK. 13 students (43%) believed plagiarism to be taken as seriously in their home countries as it is in the UK. And of these 13, several made special effort to make their point by using capital letters or exclamation points, as the following student wrote: "YES! it is not good to copy anybody's written work and claim to be your own."

10 Participants thought that plagiarism was not taken as seriously in their home countries with several mentioning educational background as a factor. One student gave details on her secondary school educational background and explained that "In secondary school they'll said that it is not right, but they will accept. Only in the university, they will put a zero on it." 5 students were unsure or didn't know, and two students gave unclear responses.

Question 8 was designed to investigate students' perceptions regarding the severity of penalties for plagiarism in the UK versus in their home countries. 10
students were unsure or didn't know much about penalties in the UK or their home countries. Typical responses for these students were statements such as "no idea." 8 students thought the penalties were just as severe. Most just answered "yes." 9 students thought that the penalties in their home countries were not as severe as in the UK. For 2 responses it was unclear what the students thought about severity of penalties and one student gave no response.

Question 10 was designed to investigate students' views on the frequency of plagiarism among university students in the UK. Most students, 18 all together, had no idea how frequent plagiarism was among UK university students. Six students thought it occurs frequently, for example because students might be "unaware of plagiarism" or because "students do not work so hard so they may copy and use their own words easily without having difficulties in making the language fit into the context." 19 6 students thought it did not occur frequently.

19 This student appears to be referring to NES UK students who in his view can more easily contextualise or disguise appropriated material. As presented in the Volume 1 thesis body, this ability of NESs to disguise and more easily re-contextualise lifted source text is perhaps one reason that ESL students are believed to be more persistent plagiarists than NES students.
2.2.1.3.3.7 Learning about Plagiarism

In question 9 student views were investigated with regard to the difficulty that students from their particular cultures might face in learning about and coming to an understanding of plagiarism. 18 respondents indicated that they did not think NNSs from their culture faced any greater challenge than British students in learning about plagiarism. Some students also had a strong reaction to this question, again it seems, desiring to make sure that they made their point. For example, one student wrote "No! Students in my culture don't face any challenge of this kind!"

Some students believed that the problem was not so much one of learning about plagiarism, but one of learning the English language, as seen in this student's response: "No, I don't think so (our problem is English language itself)." Similarly, another student wrote "we have to write using quite limited number of vocab and sentence structures."

9 students did think that students from their particular culture faced a greater challenge than British students, for example because of not being taught about plagiarism, as revealed in the following response: "Because in Japan, I don't think that students are usually taught about plagiarism. Some of them are ignorant of this idea." 3 students did not respond to this question.

2.2.1.3.3.8 Students Who Have Appropriated Text: Reasons Why

11 students out of 29 (37%) indicated that they had plagiarised before. One student gave no response to question 11. 4 were unsure, while the rest indicated that they had never plagiarised before. For the 11 who had plagiarised before, the reasons given are summarised in Table 7.

---

20 These comments are important statements on the instructional background variable.
Table 7: P2 Frequency of Reasons Given for Student Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Number of students who mentioned reason to explain plagiarism</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>5 (17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>1 (3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>4 (13%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>7 (23%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. I plagiarised because I was not aware that what I was doing might be considered wrong or dishonest.
B. I plagiarised because I wanted to get a good grade
C. I plagiarised because I did not have the time to do the assignment myself
D. I plagiarised because I did not know that what I was doing was plagiarism
E. Other Reason

In addition to choosing one of the responses given in Table 7, students often gave further explanation of their plagiarism in the space provided. They were asked to explain the "Other Reason" that they plagiarised if they chose E, and they were also asked to give further relevant details. One student mentioned "short time" as a factor and lack of knowledge on a subject:

I had to do a report about general subject. But it was impossible to do it by myself in short time because I didn't have much knowledge about that subject. so, I combined materials for my report.

The student appears to be describing the joining of "chunks" of source material to create an essay. Elsewhere in his questionnaire, other clues are given as to why he may have lifted text:

And if they are new student, it means if they can't use English so well, they will face a bigger problem that British students ... because they ... face many

---

21 No students chose E as an answer, but students did write clarifying statements to explain their derivation/plagiarism anyway.
22 This combination of material that the student reports may be similar to the strategy used by the Spanish scientists in St. John's (1987) study. Also, in the case studies to be presented in Appendix C, several students seem to have adopted a similar approach, combining materials for their writing tasks. See especially Case 3 on "Extensive Unacknowledged Verbatim Copying from Multiple Sources in a Take Home Exam" (p 262).
kinds of informations. If they need to use many of them, it is maybe difficult to manage by themselves. So they need to plagiarize.

The student seems to be saying that because of low proficiency, or not being able to "use English so well" as he put it, students are likely to appropriate "informations" [sic] in order to better manage the writing task. This student saw it as a necessity: "they need to plagiarize."23 Another student found the textbook language to be useful, and copied sentences. He wrote, "I just used some specific sentences out of a book which explained the case clearly."

2.2.1.3.3.9 Rating of Explanations

Ratings of the 5 explanations of why students should not plagiarise are summarised in Table 8. One student was disqualified from this rating, having not understood sections 2 and 3.

23 This statement supports the theory that in some cases derivation is a strategy of survival for borderline students.
### Table 8
P2 Explanations of Why Students Should not Plagiarise: Mean Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanation based on:</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(n=29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Self-Respect</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.34)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Fairness</td>
<td>4.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.92)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Consequences for Ac. Community</td>
<td>4.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(.73)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D Obedience to Rules</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.23)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E Teacher-Student Relationship</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1.16)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: standard deviations printed in parentheses below means.

Only 20 students indicated which explanations best expressed their views.

3 of the 20 chose A; 5 chose B; 10 chose C; 2 chose D.\(^2^4\)

\(^2^4\) These students seemed to prefer the Consequences for Academic Community explanation of why students should not plagiarise.


2.2.1.3.3.10 Rating of Statements on Plagiarism

Table 9 gives the results from student rating of statements on plagiarism.

Table 9
Statements about Plagiarism: Mean Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Total (n=52)</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Angry</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Don't Care</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Situations forced to plagiarise</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Persuade another not to plagiarise</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Persuade another to confess</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Report student</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Plagiarism always wrong</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Plagiarist should fail</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(many based on 5 point scale, 5 being "strongly agree" and 1 being "strongly disagree"
Note: Standard deviations given in parentheses beside mean.

Statements:
A. I would be angry and feel it was unfair if I discovered that another student in the class had plagiarised a paper.
B. I don't care if other students want to plagiarise; it's their business, not mine.
C. I don't think plagiarising is right, but there are still some situations in which a student might be forced to plagiarise in order to get a decent grade in a course.
D. If I knew that another student in the class was planning to plagiarise a paper, I'd try to persuade him or her not to plagiarise.
E. If I discovered that a student had plagiarised, I'd try to persuade him or her to confess.
F. If I discovered that a student had plagiarised, I'd report him or her to the instructor.
G. Plagiarism is always wrong, regardless of circumstances.
H. If a student in this class got caught plagiarising a paper, he or she would deserve to fail the course.
Generally speaking, these P2 students would be angry if a classmate plagiarised and would care about such behaviour. They do not see plagiarism as situationally relative, and they might try to persuade a classmate not to plagiarise, but they would not attempt to persuade a plagiarist to confess. They would also not go as far as reporting a fellow classmate for plagiarism, but they do not believe plagiarism should go unpunished.

2.2.1.3.3.11 Interviews and Follow-up Discussion Sessions

The original plan had been to conduct in-depth interviews with questionnaire respondents, but because of time limitations, such plans became limited to informal talks with students after questionnaire sessions and follow-up discussion sessions with small groups of students. In Pilot Study 2 follow-up discussion sessions were held with students. These sessions were scheduled a week after conducting the questionnaire, but unfortunately, for one out of three of the scheduled sessions no one showed up.25

In these sessions, questionnaire results were presented, and discussion of the topic of plagiarism was initiated. Students were very curious about why the current research was being conducted, and they frequently asked for the personal views of the current researcher on the issue. Not much additional information was obtained from what was in student questionnaires other than clarification of student responses, and the addition of some more details, such as discussing publicised cases of plagiarism or discussing some common questions such as "How many words must be copied before it is plagiarism?" One particular discussion session was especially informative since all of the students themselves were English teachers who had come to the UK to obtain a higher degree. They were taking a specialised pre-sessional course in English for TEFL and Applied Linguistics. Many of them related teaching experiences which solidified their views on plagiarism, such as seeing their students plagiarise, and as a

25 Understandably, students were very busy during their pre-sessional courses, and they did not have much time for extra activities.
result of dealing with such derivation/plagiarism, they developed an even stronger
view than before that such appropriation defeats the purposes of academic
endeavour.

2.2.1.3.3.12 Revisions Made in Preparation for Conducting the Study
Questionnaire

After conducting Pilot Study 2 among students in the IALS pre-sessional EAP
course, it seemed that the survey instrument had been satisfactorily improved, and it
seemed that it was time to begin the actual study after several more slight revisions.
Changes to the questionnaire after Pilot 2 included eliminating questions 9 and 10.
Regarding question 10, most students had no idea what to think about the frequency
of plagiarism among UK university students. And regarding question 9, it was
decided to ask for similar information in a different way regarding the challenges ESL
students might face in learning about how plagiarism is viewed in the UK. Asking
students' advice on how a suspected case of plagiarism involving a NNS overseas
student should be dealt with seemed to be a better method of eliciting information on
student views in this area, for example, asking whether the cultural background
should be considered, and if there were any other relevant factors in cases of apparent
plagiarism involving ESL students.

Slight modifications were also made to the typesize and format of the
questionnaire, reducing the length from 7 to 6 pages, with the Introduction and
Section 1 given on the first 3 pages, section 2 on page 4, and section 3 on page 5,
concluded by page 6 with final questions (refer ahead to section 2.2.2.2 for a copy of
the revised questionnaire).

These final stages of revision resulted in the questionnaire which was to be used
in the actual study, and these stages of revision were important in helping to identify
problem areas which might hinder the conducting of the questionnaire among a larger
population of ESL students.
2.2.2 The Conducting of the Study Questionnaire

2.2.2.1 Participants and Procedures

Study participants were drawn from students enrolled in pre-sessional EAP courses in the summer of 1996 at the universities of Edinburgh, St. Andrews, Strathclyde, Glasgow and Dundee. Study participants are listed in Table 10 along with the native language(s) and home countries of questionnaire respondents.
### Table 10
**Study Participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home Country</th>
<th>Native Language(s)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bahrain</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>Bengali</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>Czech</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>Finnish</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>German</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cantonese</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>Hungarian</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iceland</td>
<td>Icelandic</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>Hindi</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indonesia</td>
<td>Indonesian</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kazakhstan</td>
<td>Kazakh</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Korean</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Bahasa Malay</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English *</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Malaysian</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sarawak</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tamil</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nepal</td>
<td>Nepali</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>Dutch</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Norwegian</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oman</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>Urdu</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>Polish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Russia</td>
<td>Russian</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Tamil</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Catalan</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Swedish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Switzerland</td>
<td>French</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taiwan</td>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mandarin</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>Thai</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Turkish</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Arab Emirates</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vietnam</td>
<td>Vietnamese</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total number of students in study 135

* 3 Malaysian students indicated that their native language was English, but since they were in an EAP course for non-native speakers it seems that they may have had only limited English proficiency, not having received an IELTS or TOEFL score that was high enough for them to test out of pre-sessional English courses.

These participants had come from 41 different countries and from 34 language backgrounds to the UK to pursue postgraduate degrees in a number of disciplines.
across the range of courses offered by each university. Table 10 illustrates the problem of not being able to subdivide the participant population into single language groups. Even students who spoke the same language might come from different instructional backgrounds. For example, a French speaking student from Canada would have a different background than French speaking students from Switzerland or France. Such a variation of background is characteristic of ESL students, but the same lack of homogeneity renders statistical analyses invalid. For this reason, extensive statistical analyses for the entire population and for specific sub-groups was not seen to be valuable or useful. Studies with large numbers of ESL students from the same language, cultural, and instructional background would be more appropriate populations in a statistical analysis of results. This study population lacks such homogeneity, and even with large numbers of students from the same country, instructional background could vary. Kroll's L1 study population comprised a homogenous study population of American college freshman, so his statistical analyses were valid and reliable. Such homogeneity of participant populations is harder to obtain in L2 studies. From all indications, these students represented a balanced ESL student study population with a wide variety of educational and cultural backgrounds—a fairly representative sample of what one might expect in pre-sessional institutes across Great Britain. The respondents were from 5 Scottish universities, although the majority of respondents were from the University of Strathclyde. Table 11 gives the number of participants from each university.
Table 11: Study Participants' Place of Study in Scotland

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Number of Study Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Edinburgh</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glasgow</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>St. Andrew's</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strathclyde</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dundee</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>135</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as gender is concerned the students were almost evenly divided with 67 males and 68 females. The average age of these students was 28 although there was a wide range from 19 to 44. As mentioned before, since it was felt that each student had something valuable to say in the free response section, it was the intention of the current researcher to disqualify a participant only in extreme circumstances, such as the writing of a spurious response, or giving no response at all. Students had conscientiously completed the questionnaires, and when they did not understand a question, they did not give an answer, as they had been requested to do (they were also requested to indicate which questions they did not understand at the end of the questionnaire). In presenting the questionnaire results, the number of students who did not respond to particular questions will be given. None of the 135 students were disqualified from the Free Response section. However, some respondents did not answer particular questions in the free response question.
2.2.2.2 The Questionnaire as Revised from Pilot Study 2

At the Edinburgh pre-sessional IALS EAP course, 10 students completed the questionnaire in one sitting followed by a discussion session directly after the session. Two other NNSs from the MSc taught course in Edinburgh's Department of Applied Linguistics also completed the questionnaire, giving a total of 12 respondents from Edinburgh. At Glasgow, 9 students completed the questionnaire in one sitting as part of an academic writing exercise followed by a discussion session. At St. Andrews 15 students completed the questionnaire in one sitting followed by a discussion session, and then 3 in another sitting followed by a discussion session. At Strathclyde the current researcher "struck gold" as far as participant turnout and data collection are concerned, thanks to Magda Montgomery (EAP course director) who worked a questionnaire session into the busy schedule of Strathclyde's English Language Teaching Division at a time when nearly all of the incoming ESL students were available. 95 ESL students at Strathclyde completed the questionnaire. Because of this large turnout of students at Strathclyde, no follow-up discussion sessions were held with students. Instead, informal talks with students were initiated as they turned in completed questionnaires. And finally, four completed questionnaires were received from Dundee University. The questionnaire was personally conducted by the current researcher with all study participants except those at Dundee University. According to the wishes of the course co-ordinator of Dundee's Centre for Applied Language Studies, the questionnaires were posted to

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27 Where possible, an attempt was made to meet with questionnaire respondents directly after the questionnaire session. This was done in an attempt to obtain input from students while they were still thinking about the topic, and this was also an attempt to work around the busy schedules of ESL students who might hesitate to take the time to attend one more meeting.

28 Esther Dunbar, an instructor at the University of Glasgow's EFL teaching unit, was kind enough to allow the questionnaire session to be used as an introduction to the topic of plagiarism which she had planned to discuss right about this time.

29 Alison Malcolm-Smith, pre-sessional course director at St. Andrew's, gave her generous support of the project, encouraging students to attend the questionnaire sessions. She apologised in later correspondence for "such a poor turn out of students", but next to the Strathclyde respondents, St. Andrew's respondents comprised the second largest ESL questionnaire population. Because of students' busy schedules, Alison mentioned that students "were quite happy to do as little as possible and if anything voluntary was asked of them, it was always a limited take up."

30 After previewing the survey instrument, Magda saw this questionnaire to be a potentially "useful lesson on... [a] difficult issue."
A copy of the final version of the ESL student questionnaire is presented on the following pages.

\footnote{Kathleen McMillan, course co-ordinator at Dundee's Centre for Applied Language Studies, apologised for the low response rate. She explained that some students "found the format and content of the questionnaire difficult to comprehend." She also explained that some students come from a different background and are "very wary of anything which requires them to answer questions . . . [having fears] that their actions in UK are reported to the home government and that anything they write could land them in trouble."}
Questionnaire: Definitions and Conceptualisations of Academic Plagiarism

INTRODUCTION

It is important for teachers to consider student definitions and conceptualisations of plagiarism. By completing this questionnaire you will be contributing toward a better understanding of student views on academic plagiarism. Your valuable input on this important issue is greatly appreciated.

The responses to this voluntary questionnaire will be completely anonymous and confidential, and the questionnaire is not a part of your particular course of study. Your teachers and instructors will not see your individual responses so please answer the questions openly and honestly, giving your own thoughts on this issue of plagiarism.

Background Information

a. Country of origin:

b. Native language:

c. Age:

d. Gender (circle one) Male  Female

INSTRUCTIONS

In the following sections you will find several types of questions. The questionnaire should be completed one section at a time, in order from section 1 to section 3, without returning to a section once that section has been completed. Feel free to respond in as much detail as possible using the overleaf or additional sheets of paper if necessary.

Unless I have specified a time for collecting this questionnaire, upon completion please return to John P. Lesko, Department of Applied Linguistics, 14 Buccleuch Place.

Please note, native English speaking UK students may skip questions 6,7 and 8 in Section 1.

Thank you for your assistance in this study.

Sincerely,

John P. Lesko
Section 1: Free Response

1. What is your definition of plagiarism?

2. Most would agree that it is "wrong" to plagiarise. But WHY is it wrong? (If you give more than one reason, please number each separate reason and underline the most important reason why you believe plagiarism to be wrong.)

3. What experience have you had in English academic writing? (courses taken, etc.)

4. How have you come to hold your current views on plagiarism?

5. When did you first encounter or become aware of the concept or idea of plagiarism?
6. Would you say that the issue of plagiarism is taken as seriously in your native country as it is here in the UK? If no, please explain.

7. Have your views toward plagiarism changed significantly since you came to the UK to study? If yes, how have your views changed?

8. Penalties for plagiarism here in the UK may include a failing grade on the paper, or even failure to obtain a degree in your particular course of study. Are the penalties for plagiarism back in your native country as severe as they are here in the UK? If no, please explain.

9. What advice would you give to an administrator on a case of suspected plagiarism involving a non-native speaking overseas student? Should the cultural background of the student be considered? What other factors should the administrator take into consideration prior to making a decision on the case?

10. Have you ever (either intentionally or unintentionally) committed what could be interpreted as an act of plagiarism?
   Yes__ No__
   If your answer was yes, was the plagiarism done for any of the following reasons? (check all that apply) Feel free to give further relevant details in the space provided below.
   A. I plagiarised because I was not aware that what I was doing might be considered wrong or dishonest.
   B. I plagiarised because I wanted to get a good grade.
   C. I plagiarised because I did not have the time to do the assignment myself.
   D. I plagiarised because I did not know that what I was doing was plagiarism.
   E. Other reason. Please explain in the space below.
Note: Do not return to Section 1 again after beginning the next section of the questionnaire.

**Section 2: Rating of Explanations**

For this section of the questionnaire, please read the following explanations and decide how closely the explanations come to expressing your own view of why students should not plagiarise. Then, rate each of the explanations according to the following scale of 1 to 5. Circle the number of your choice.

1 = does not express my views  
2 = expresses my views only slightly  
3 = expresses my views to some extent  
4 = expresses my views fairly well  
5 = expresses my views very well

A. **Self Respect:** By plagiarising, students show that they are careless, lazy, and dishonest. By plagiarising, students lose their sense of integrity, honour, and self-esteem. To keep their self-respect, students should not plagiarise.

   1  2  3  4  5

B. **Fairness:** It is not fair when students get credit for work they did not do themselves. To be fair to other students, students should not plagiarise.

   1  2  3  4  5

C. **Consequences for the Academic Community:** Plagiarism destroys conditions that are necessary for independent thinking and original research. To preserve the university as a place where students and scholars can work productively, students should not plagiarise.

   1  2  3  4  5

D. **Obedience to Rules:** Universities have strict rules against plagiarising. Students must learn to obey the rules of the institution. To avoid penalties, students should obey the rules and not plagiarise.

   1  2  3  4  5

E. **Teacher-Student Relationship:** It is insulting and upsetting to teachers when a student acts deceitfully and plagiarises a paper. Plagiarism violates a teacher's trust in students. To maintain a good relationship with their teachers, students should not plagiarise.

   1  2  3  4  5

Which explanation in this section comes the closest to expressing your views of why students should not plagiarise? (circle the letter of your choice)

A  B  C  D  E
Section 3: Rating Statements on Plagiarism

For Section 3 of the questionnaire, please use this 5-point rating scale to rate the following statements about plagiarism. Circle the number of your choice.

1 = strongly disagree  
2 = disagree to some extent  
3 = neutral or undecided  
4 = agree to some extent  
5 = strongly agree

A. I would be angry and feel it was unfair if I discovered that another student in a class of mine had plagiarised a paper.

B. I don’t care if other students want to plagiarise; it’s their business, not mine.

C. I don’t think plagiarism is right, but there are still some situations in which a student might be forced to plagiarise in order to get a decent grade.

D. If I knew that another student in one of my classes was planning to plagiarise a paper, I’d try to persuade him or her not to plagiarise.

E. If I discovered that a student had plagiarised, I would try to persuade him or her to confess to the instructor or appropriate authority.

F. If I discovered that a student had plagiarised, I would report him or her to the instructor.

G. Plagiarism is always wrong, regardless of circumstances.

H. If a student got caught plagiarising, he or she would deserve to fail the class.
Final Questions

Do you feel that you have completed this questionnaire thoroughly and honestly? Yes___ No____

Did you understand the questions you were asked to respond to in this survey? Yes____ No_____ If no, which questions did you not understand?

Any final comments on this complex issue of plagiarism?

Thanks again for your participation and co-operation,

John-P. Łęsko
2.2.2.3 Difficulties Encountered

As discovered from both pilot studies, things did not always go as planned. Minor difficulties which were encountered had to do with access to pre-sessional course students. Accommodation had to be made to the wishes of instructors and course co-ordinators. Although more students may have completed the questionnaire if instructors were to make the questionnaire part of a class exercise, in only one instance was this able to be done. In an academic writing session with Esther Dunbar at Glasgow University, the questionnaire was conducted as an introduction to the issue of plagiarism, and the current researcher was invited to give a short talk on plagiarism followed by a discussion session with students. At Strathclyde, because of the large number of students, no group discussion sessions were held, but informal discussions were initiated with students as they handed in their completed questionnaires.

Dundee University respondents had taken home the questionnaire and returned them to Kathleen McMillan, pre-sessional course director at Dundee's Centre for Applied Language Studies. The current researcher’s not being able to personally conduct the questionnaire with students at Dundee may explain the poor return rate. Otherwise, he could have been present to assist students and answer questions that came up, as had been done in conducting the questionnaire at other institutes. In the case of Dundee University, the questionnaires were given to the course director, who gave them to students to take home and complete, a way of obtaining questionnaire results which researchers seldom find to be successful as was discovered by the current researcher in the pilot study and now again in the actual study. Greater success in questionnaire response rates is usually achieved by having student respondents complete the questionnaire in one sitting.

More serious difficulties had to do with student language proficiency and ability to understand the questionnaire. For example, an attempt was made to obtain results from NNS students at the Blackness Language Centre of Dundee College. 50 questionnaires were given to Alec Edwards, TESOL Co-ordinator, who then
distributed them to language centre instructors. However, not one of these 50
questionnaires was returned, and as Alec later explained, most of the ESL students
had found the questionnaire to be too difficult.

Fortunately this was the only setback of this type, other than a similar problem
among students at the University of Dundee. For the most part, all other study
participants from university pre-sessional EAP courses had excellent ability to express
themselves in English. However, another difficulty was the relatively poor turnouts to
questionnaire sessions at all but Strathclyde University. If it were not for the high
turnout of students at Strathclyde, the student questionnaire data would have been
quite meagre.

The pre-sessional course director at Dundee University explained that some
students "found the format and content of the questionnaire difficult to comprehend."
There were other reasons for the poor return rate, reasons which might also apply to
the poor turnout for questionnaire sessions at other universities. Some students did
not return questionnaires because "the idea of putting pen to paper on the subject was
quite threatening, given that several did exercise a certain amount of plagiarism in the
process of writing their projects" explained Kathleen McMillan.

There was also a wariness students had of freely speaking out on the subject:
As Kathleen McMillan related, "Students recently arrived in the UK are very wary of
anything which requires them to answer questions and I suspect that at least two were
inhibited because they had a fear that their actions in the UK are reported to the home
government and that anything they write could land them in trouble."

Lack of student interest in a voluntary survey of student views is a problem that
can leave any researcher feeling "straight-jacketed." If students do not want to
participate in a voluntary survey, researchers are usually not in a position to make the
survey a course requirement. As Alison Malcolm-Smith, pre-sessional course
director from St. Andrew's, put it, "I'm afraid that they were quite happy to do as little
as possible, and if anything voluntary was asked of them, it was always a limited take
up."
This lack of student interest was not always the case though. Thanks to Magda Montgomery of Strathclyde's English Language Teaching Division, who gave a good representation of the work to students, just under 100 volunteers showed up for the questionnaire session. This session was a very busy one which was conducted in two large seminar rooms. The students who arrived first began the questionnaire in one room, and then as latecomers arrived, they were directed into the other seminar room.

Another difficulty encountered in Pilot 2 was poor turn out to follow up discussion sessions, or no turn out at all in the case of one session. Because of this it was decided to hold just one session with students in the conducting of the study questionnaire. The students completed the questionnaire in the first 20 to 30 minutes, and then a general discussion was initiated which lasted for 15 to 20 minutes.

Despite the difficulties encountered, valuable results were obtained as reflected in the ESL students from diverse backgrounds. They represented a great variety of language and cultural orientations and were a representative sample of the diversity to be expected in most pre-sessional institutes and centres of higher education throughout the UK.

2.2.2.4 Results

In evaluating the questionnaires, one important procedure followed in typing up and coding student responses, was to omit references students made to either their language background or nationality. This was done to avoid any effect this might have on how responses were evaluated.

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32 Many of the student responses to be presented contain grammatical and spelling errors. The responses will be presented as written by students, and errors will not be indicated with *sic* enclosed in brackets because such notation would become redundant. Additionally, these responses were generally well written, and the current researcher sees no point in belabouring the difficulties encountered by L2 writers in a time-constrained writing task such as the current questionnaire. Undoubtedly, with more time these students could have produced essays of high quality on the topic of plagiarism, but in such a short time period, L2 writers (and L1 writers) can be expected to make errors in an impromptu writing task.

33 It was important to avoid any stereotypes which might influence the reporting of the results, for example the stereotype that Asian students plagiarise frequently.
2.2.2.4.1 Understanding of Plagiarism According to Participant Definitions

As in the pilot studies, students' understanding of plagiarism was rated on the 5 point scale as shown below.

1 Ideal understanding of plagiarism
2 Good understanding of plagiarism.
3 Basic understanding of plagiarism.
4 Poor or confused understanding of plagiarism
5 No apparent understanding of plagiarism

The overall average or mean of the ratings given to student understanding of plagiarism was 2.16 which shows that according to the evaluation of the current researcher, these students generally had a good understanding of plagiarism. To present the results in a different form, it may be helpful to see the percentages of students that were rated in each category. These results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12: Rating of Student Definitions of Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rating</th>
<th>Number who received rating</th>
<th>Percent (N=135)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Ideal Understanding</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Good Understanding</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Basic Understanding</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Poor Understanding</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 No Understanding</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of students (44%) had a good understanding of plagiarism. Roughly one quarter of the participants (24%) had an ideal understanding of plagiarism, and the same number again (24%) had a basic understanding of plagiarism. Only 4% of the study participants had a poor understanding of plagiarism, while even fewer (2%) had according to the evaluation of the current researcher, no apparent understanding of the concept. Although the ratings assigned to students may not be a completely accurate interpretation of student understanding of plagiarism, for example students may have had a better understanding than they were able to
communicate in their limited English, it seems that the ratings do distinguish between those who have a poor or no apparent understanding of plagiarism, and those who have a basic, good, or ideal understanding of the concept.

Once again, to illustrate more clearly how student definitions were evaluated, examples will be given for each rating category. A reminder here is necessary regarding evaluations. The main criteria for evaluating students' understanding of plagiarism was their definition of the term, but also taken into account were students' responses elsewhere in the questionnaire. Thus a student who gave a poor definition of plagiarism in response to question 1 might receive a rating of 1, ideal understanding of plagiarism, if elsewhere in the questionnaire he or she demonstrated a knowledge that plagiarism involves copying without acknowledgement of sources. Thus, with this holistic means of analysis, a more accurate picture is presented of students' understanding of plagiarism than if only the definition were taken into account to the exclusion of all else that a student wrote in the questionnaire.

Students who showed some minor misunderstanding of plagiarism received a 2, representing less than an ideal understanding, but still demonstrating knowledge that plagiarism involves borrowing or copying. If students showed even less clear understanding of plagiarism, they received a 3. 4 represented a confused understanding of plagiarism where major misunderstanding would be a factor, and 5 represented no apparent understanding of the concepts involved in plagiarism.
2.2.2.4.1.1 Category 1: Ideal Understanding of Plagiarism

Below are several typical responses for which students were rated in the 1 category:

Copying others writing in your own writing without acknowledging.

Plagiarism is stealing or copying the material or work done, by a colleague or any member of society without giving his/her reference.

Blatant copying of someone else's work, piece of writing. Taking 'chunks' of information/material from some other writer/author without acknowledging the source.

Copying someone else's work (part or the whole contents a paragraph, graphics etc.) to treat the document or writing as your own without citing the original author.

2.2.2.4.1.2 Category 2: Good Understanding of Plagiarism

Definitions rated in the 2 category, Good Understanding of plagiarism, included the following:

I think, plagiarism means, that you are exactly copy a text for example word by word.

Copying the whole article of other writers or a part of it with exactly the same words or sentences.

Plagiarism is the process whereby one's written work is copied word to word without paraphrasing by someone else.

copying the idea of somebody but in own name. A kind of intellectual theft/robberies.

One student gave a definition that would have been classified in the 1 category if elsewhere he had not shown some misunderstanding. His definition is as follows:

Plagiarism is when you copy the words of an author without mentioning that there were the author's thought and not yours.

But elsewhere this student expressed some misunderstanding of plagiarism. He seemed unsure of the distinction between paraphrasing and plagiarism saying "I don't know if paraphrasing is also plagiarism. If positive, then I have already committed
plagiarism." Therefore, according to the holistic evaluation of his questionnaire, he received a 2, or a good understanding of plagiarism evaluation.

On the other side of the coin, there were some students who did not give a clear definition of plagiarism in response to question 1, but elsewhere they demonstrated an "ideal understanding" of plagiarism. For example, the following student's definition of plagiarism was unclear and vague:

Plagiarism is use a sentence or a passage which was wrote by someone else, without altering the name of the real author.

But elsewhere in the questionnaire, her understanding of the concept was more clearly evident:

Because the person who plagiarise, presents ideas which don't belong to him or her as his or her own. That's using intellectual property without any permission.

She was therefore rated in the 2 category rather than 3 or 4.

Other students as well gave unclear definitions of plagiarism, related most likely to language proficiency rather than to understanding of the concepts involved in plagiarism. Student responses demonstrated a good grasp of the conceptual elements involved in plagiarism, but students were not always able to express their ideas as clearly as they wanted to. As one student said, "I can't express my idea in English, maybe because of my limited language skills."

It is important to note here the importance of taking into account a student's overall performance on the questionnaire since upon reading the questionnaires it became apparent that students who exhibited confusion, as in the examples just given, were most likely exhibiting a language-related lack of clarity/expression which would be cleared up later by an adequate and even excellent demonstration of knowing what plagiarism is all about.
2.2.2.4.1.3 Category 3: Basic Understanding of Plagiarism

Definitions that were rated in the 3 category, Basic Understanding of plagiarism, included the following:

It means to steal words from other people and use these words as your own.

In my opinion, plagiarism is a kind of stealing of idea and what’s important that any idea could be implicated in practice. Doesn’t matter whether idea is written or was said by somebody.

The totally copy from an original author.

You copy some information and writing it in your own papers.

To copy what someone wrote and use it in our own report.

One student gave a good definition of plagiarism (category 2 perhaps) but revealed some uncertainty about the concept in her response to question 3. She defined plagiarism as follows:

To copy ideas and results of another person, without telling somebody the original author.

However, in response to question 3 she said "It is necessary to copy facts out of books otherwise nobody would be able to learn anything!" indicating that she did not understand fully the concepts of common knowledge and also indicating that she was not aware that if verbatim copying is done, inverted commas or quotations must be used along with a reference to the author.

2.2.2.4.1.4 Category 4: Poor Understanding of Plagiarism

Responses rated in the 4 category, Poor Understanding of plagiarism, included the following:

Directly copy of written texts

To copy someone's answer when do the examination

The second statement above reveals apparent confusion of plagiarism with "cribbing" or cheating. The following student response was unclear, apparently
because of language difficulties. The student may have had a better understanding of plagiarism than the evaluation given, but from the unclear type of response, it merited a 4 since he at least understood it had to do with appropriation of something that is not one's own:

Plagiarism is like hijacking or robbing others properties.

Another student as well showed confusion about proper acknowledgement and seemed to think that plagiarism was a term designed to keep people from expressing their own opinions:

To write down what other people have written in their book in your own book or dissertation without the permission of them. Even you have the same opinion, but they have published this opinion earlier than you and you are not allowed to write that this your opinion.

He also seemed to think (as so many developing writers do, L1 or L2) that putting a source in the bibliography is all that is needed to avoid plagiarism:

If I write their names and book titles in bibliography I don't think I commit plagiarism!

2.2.2.4.1.5 Category 5: No Apparent Understanding of Plagiarism

Students rated in category 5, No Apparent Understanding of plagiarism, gave the following definitions of plagiarism. One student struggled to complete the questionnaire from all appearances, and thus reading comprehension and language proficiency may have been a factor. His response to question 1 is given below:

As a matter as factor, I'm not quite understand this topic. But in my personal point of view, I do believe that it is important to respect each other on every aspects. No matter you are a student or a teacher.

Another student who apparently struggled to complete the questionnaire gave the following unclear definition of plagiarism:

Plagiarism is an intellectual activity.
Overall the definitions of plagiarism given by students demonstrated that only in
rare cases were there students who had difficulty with understanding the concept of
plagiarism. For the most part these students understood that plagiarism involved
copying of another's ideas or words with the intent to pass them off as one's own,
with no acknowledgement given. The fact that these students were studying at the
postgraduate level is possibly the reason that they exhibited such a good
understanding of plagiarism.

If a line is drawn between those who have a Basic Understanding of plagiarism
or better, and those who have a Poor Understanding or No Apparent Understanding
of plagiarism, it becomes evident that only 9 students (about 7%) had a poor or no
apparent understanding of plagiarism while 126 students (93%) had at least a basic
understanding of plagiarism or better. And judging from talks and discussions with
students, it would be safe to say that if these evaluations of student understandings of
plagiarism are at all unreliable, they would be unreliable in the sense that students
would have a better understanding of plagiarism than the evaluations give them credit
for. In the short time given to complete the questionnaire (half an hour), students
may not have been able to express all that they could have expressed with more time
or with better language proficiency. If they had been writing in their own language,
students most likely would have been able to express their views much better.34

34 Translating the questionnaire into the students' first languages, and having them respond in their
native tongue would have yielded more reliable results, but the current researcher lacked the means
and resources to conduct an investigation in this manner as well as the large number of participants
who spoke a particular L1 which would have been needed to make such an approach a feasible one.
2.2.2.4.2 Reasons Given Why Plagiarism is Wrong

Question 2 investigated student views on why plagiarism is wrong. In classifying student responses the primary categories from Kroll (1988) of Individual Responsibility, Ownership, Fairness, Honesty, Laziness, Crime and Punishment as well as the secondary categories of Miscellaneous and Unclassifiable were again used. It was also found that the three primary categories added in Pilot 2, Not Wrong, Academic Consequences, and Moral Issue, were again relevant.

Again, as in P2, student numbering of reasons and underlining of most important reasons was found to be unreliable. Students frequently gave more than one reason in their responses, and their numbering did not match the reasons given. Or they gave no numbering at all. So student numbering was adjusted, or numbering was added to analyse and classify the reasons students gave to explain why plagiarism is wrong. It was difficult to take students' most important reasons into account as had been the plan since many students neglected to underline which response was most important to them. But in approaching this in another way, it may be helpful to look at responses which students did underline, or at responses in which only one reason was given, which more than likely would be the most important for a student, or at least it would represent the reason which was uppermost in their minds.

So to re-summarise how student responses were analysed, separate reasons were first bracketed in student responses. Then separate reasons were assigned to the 9 primary categories of Individual Responsibility, Ownership, Fairness, Honesty, Laziness, Crime and Punishment, Academic Consequences, Moral Issue, Not Wrong and the secondary categories of Miscellaneous and Unclassifiable. Students could have no more than one response classified in each primary category. A number of students (35 to be exact) gave responses expressing several reasons to explain why plagiarism is wrong, and therefore their responses fit into more than one category.

Table 13 presents the frequency that each category occurred in student responses, or in other words, the percentage of students who mentioned reasons that were assigned to each particular category.
Table 13: Students' Reasons that Plagiarism Is Wrong

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Reasons</th>
<th>Frequency (N=135) (percent of students who mentioned each reason)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual Responsibility</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>54%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laziness</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime and Punishment</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Consequences</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral Issue</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Wrong</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclassifiable</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The figures in this table represent the percentage of students who mentioned reasons that could be classified in each particular category. Since some students gave more than one reason to explain why plagiarism is wrong, the figures sum to more than 100%.

From 99 of the responses to question 2 it was possible to determine which reason was most important to explain why plagiarism is wrong. 16 participants underlined their most important reason, while 83 gave only one reason to explain why plagiarism is wrong. For 36 respondents it was unclear which reason was most important to them to explain why plagiarism was wrong. For some reason, these students did not underline their most important reason. Perhaps they felt that all of the reasons they gave were equally important.

For the ESL students in this study, Ownership was the most frequently mentioned reason given to explain why plagiarism is wrong, mentioned by 73 students.

35 As was found in P2, Ownership represented the most important category to students.
(54%). Fairness was the next frequent reason, mentioned by 32 students (24%) followed by Honesty and Individual Responsibility mentioned by 18 students (13%) and 17 students (12%) respectively. Laziness came next, mentioned by 9 students (7%), followed by Moral Issue, mentioned by 8 students (6%) followed by Academic Consequences which was mentioned by 6 students (4%) and Not Wrong, mentioned by 2 students,36 one of whom, or perhaps even both, apparently did not fully understand the concept of plagiarism. 7 students (5%) mentioned reasons that were classified as Miscellaneous, and 12 students (9%) gave reasons that were unclassifiable.

2.2.2.4.2.1 Students' Most Important Reasons Why Plagiarism is Wrong:
Classification of Responses

Table 14 gives the percentage out of those 99 students for whom it was possible to determine which reason was most important, either because the student gave only one reason, or because the student underlined the most important reason.

36 This was a surprisingly lower percentage than what had been expected. These ESL students clearly go against the trend among American college students of seeing cheating as a relative issue. Brownfeld (1998) presented troubling information on the moral illiteracy of many young American students, but these ESL students had no problem with asserting that plagiarism is wrong, and they made their views quite clear.
Table 14: Most Important Reasons Why Plagiarism is Wrong

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category of Reasons</th>
<th>Frequency (N=99)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individual Responsibility</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ownership</td>
<td>49%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honesty</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laziness</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime and Punishment</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Consequences</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral Issue</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Wrong</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miscellaneous</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclassifiable</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: 16 reasons were underlined as being the most important, while 83 students gave only one reason to explain why Plagiarism is wrong.

Again, as in the pilot studies, Ownership ranked first with 49% of these students indicating that this is the most important reason why it is wrong to plagiarise. Fairness was the most important reason for 16% followed by Individual Responsibility with 9%, Honesty at 8%, Laziness, Not Wrong and Moral Issue, were each ranked most important by 2%. Last were Academic Consequences and Crime and Punishment, ranked first in importance by 1%. 9 students who gave only one reason gave reasons that were unclassifiable.

37 It becomes clear again that ownership is generally an important reason to ESL students to explain why plagiarism is wrong.
2.2.2.4.2.1 Ownership

Reasons were classified in the Ownership category if students gave reasons to explain why plagiarism is wrong based on the principle that such behavior is analogous to stealing the personal property of another. 73 students (54%) mentioned this reasoning in their responses and for 49 students (49%, n=99), this was clearly the most important reason why it is wrong to plagiarise. The following responses illustrate the Ownership principle:

- It is the same ethic question as if you steal someone’s property.
- Plagiarism is a kind of theft. Theft has always been looked down on in every kind of society.
- Because the idea is from other peoples not comes out from your mind. If you plagiarise it means you don’t respect the author and stole his/her creation.
- Words like personal property, they have their own master.
- Theft is unquestionably wrong

2.2.2.4.2.1.2 Fairness

Reasons were classified in the Fairness category if the principle was mentioned that authors should receive "credit" that is due them. Injustice occurs both when an author does not get this credit, and when someone else gets undeserved credit from another's work. 32 students (24%) mentioned the Fairness principle in their responses and for 16 students (16%, n=99) this was the most important reason why plagiarism is wrong. This idea of Fairness is evident in the following responses:

- Because it is easy to rethink an idea. The real work lies in thinking about it for the first time in history. A plagiator takes the credit for work done by someone else.
- Plagiarism is unfair to the students who are work hard.
- Because is not fair for the person who worked and try hard spending long time to write and trying to find ideas.
2.2.2.4.2.1.3 Honesty

Honesty, the principle that plagiarism is wrong since it involves lying, deceit, or fraud, was mentioned by 18 students (13%) and was the most important reason plagiarism is wrong for 8 students (8%, n=99). The Honesty principle is seen in the following responses:

Plagiarist usually gives people untrue picture of his skills.
You are giving wrong impression about yourself to others.
It is morally wrong because you have to be truthful with what are your ideas and those that do not belong to you.

2.2.2.4.2.1.4 Individual Responsibility

17 students (12.5%) mentioned reasons reflecting an orientation toward Individual Responsibility, the principle that plagiarism is wrong because one cheats oneself out of the possibility of learning or building writing skills, and because it goes against the responsibility individuals have to do their own work, using their own mind and creativity. For 9 students (9%, n=99)) this was the most important reason why plagiarism is wrong. Reasoning oriented toward the principle of Individual Responsibility is evident in the following responses:

Every one has to improve his/her own capability to write.
It is wrong because man must use his own thoughts and put it into words instead of robbing another's thoughts. It would not only be unfair but it also limits our 'growth' as writers.
2.2.2.4.2.1.5 Laziness

Laziness was a reason that was given by 9 students (7%) to explain why plagiarism is wrong, and for 2 students (2%, n=99) this was the most important reason why plagiarism is wrong. This view is seen in the responses below:

Someone who investigated a certain topic and if one student steal if, this student will be lazy and most student can do that.

It's not good for yourself, because it will leads to laziness.

I don't like at all people who are lazy and they don't want to work to get better.

2.2.2.4.2.1.6 Moral Issue

For 8 students (6%) plagiarism was a Moral Issue, having to do with religion, or being an immoral thing to do, a sin. 2 students (2%, n=99) indicated that this was the most important reason why plagiarism is wrong. The following statements reflect this Moral Issue orientation:

It is the problem of morality.

To plagiarise is committing a cardinal sin. It is actually an act of stealing. I strongly feel that plagiarism is a sin.

It is morally wrong because you have to be truthful with what are your ideas and those that do not belong to you.

It is a kind of moral law.

It appeared that several other students were inclined to see plagiarism as a Moral Issue. For example, in response to question 4 several wrote that religion or religious faith influenced their views on plagiarism:

Based on my religion and experience I got from doing my PhD.

Base of my background (the way my parents taught me) 2. Religious faith.
2.2.4.2.1.7 Academic Consequences

6 students (4%) gave reasons that reflected an Academic Consequences orientation, the view that plagiarism is wrong because it has adverse effects on academic endeavour, inhibiting productive research, misleading those who read the results of academic inquiry, and going against the norms/ethics of the academic community. Only one student felt this was the most important reason to explain why plagiarism is wrong. The following responses illustrate the Academic Consequences view:

Because you may offend other people, and it can be obstructive for further academic research.

If plagiarism would not removed, people do not want to share their knowledge, and it will disturb the development of academic knowledge.

2.2.4.2.1.8 Crime and Punishment

4 students gave reasons that were classified in the Crime and Punishment category, the principle that plagiarism is wrong because it is a crime, because it breaks a rule or law, or because offenders would be punished. Only one student indicated that this was the most important reason why plagiarism is wrong. The Crime and Punishment principle is seen in the following student responses:

It is wrong because plagiarism is the same as theft, which is a criminal-offence.

It is not legal.

2.2.4.2.1.9 Not Wrong

Only 2 students expressed the view that plagiarism is not wrong, but it seems that the students did not fully understand the concept. One student asked in response to question 2:

Is it really wrong? Should not every good idea given to everybody who wants to deal with? (That does not mean that I'm a plagiariser in the hard way)
In response to question 3, investigating experience in English academic writing, the same student gave an answer which suggests that he was not completely aware of the concepts of acknowledgement or common knowledge.

It is necessary to copy facts out of books otherwise nobody would be able to learn anything!

However, this student did advocate punishment for offenders as seen below, so it may be that he does see plagiarism as wrong:

If somebody has definitely done plagiarism, he should fail his degree. He is too stubit!

It seems that the other student whose response was classified in the Not Wrong category was also confused about the concept of plagiarism. This student defined plagiarism as follows:

Plagiarism is the basic requirement of a researcher. Any researcher could not complete their research paper without consulting others efforts and views in that particular subject matter. This is just a copying of someone's others view in your report.

And then he said in response to question 2:

I do not believe that it is wrong.

However, the student's response to question 8 reveals serious misunderstanding in that he confused plagiarism with copyright violation, as in photocopying from a copyrighted publication without permission. He also seemed unaware that use of source material was acceptable if proper acknowledgement was given. His response to question 10 also reveals misunderstanding of the concept:

I plagiarised because I think that is not wrong. I believe that quoting someone's view in short and giving own ideas is not bad.

If "quoting someone's view in short" is taken to mean paraphrase, or say even quotation, then it is clear that he has not grasped the idea that summary, paraphrase or
quotation of another's ideas with proper acknowledgement is the way to avoid plagiarism.

2.2.2.4.2.1.10 Miscellaneous

Miscellaneous responses included reasons given that were "legitimate but uncommon responses that did not fit into any other categories" (Kroll 1988). 7 responses were assigned to this category. One student mentioned a reason involving copied material being unsuitable: "One should not rely on what someone else has written. It may be wrong!" Another felt it was wrong because "researchers would feel depressed" and another was concerned that plagiarism "may lead other people-students for example—to wrong direction."

12 reasons given by students were unclassifiable, being either tautological, or uninterpretable, that is the relevance or significance of what the students were trying to say was unclear. Unclassifiable responses included the following:

- It's a disturbing of personality's rights.
- It's very bad manner.

2.2.2.4.3 English Academic Writing Experience (EAW)

Questions 3, 4, 5, and 7 were designed to investigate how students have come to hold their current views. Experience students had already had in English academic writing is obviously a factor in conceptualisations of plagiarism. Students were asked how they have come to hold their current views in question 4, and when they had first encountered or become aware of plagiarism is question 5. Question 7 was designed to investigate whether students' views had changed significantly since coming to the UK— it was considered important to investigate the effect that pre-sessional courses had in development of student views.

Predictably there was a variable response regarding English academic-writing experience. Students had come from a wide variety of academic writing backgrounds. Some had no experience at all in EAW, while others had only done assignments for
the current pre-session EAP course, such as writing a paper on the situation of the homeless people in Glasgow. Still others had taken EFL courses, done diplomas and specialist courses, business courses—all courses in which English was the medium of instruction. Some had taken language training in their home country, for example British Council training. Others wrote that they had completed specialised reports on diverse topics such as architecture. Other writing experience included completing theses for undergraduate and postgraduate degrees, such as an MSc in medical education. Some had written scientific articles in their subject area, miscellaneous reports, and specialised bibliographies on specific subjects, research proposals, essays on historical subjects, essays on British society, as well as papers for projects at teacher training college.

A few students had taken general English courses but not academic writing courses, as one student wrote:

I have taken courses in general English but I've never taken English Academic writing courses.

Many had had English as the medium of instruction since early childhood, and thus were quite experienced in English academic writing.

In analysing student responses 3 basic categories were used. The first category was for those who indicated that they had had previous experience in EAW other than the current pre-sessional EAP course. This experience may have been coursework, reports or essays related to profession, or general instruction in EAW. The second category was for those who indicated that they had little or no experience in EAW. This category included those for whom the current pre-sessional course was their only EAW experience, as well as those who had taken general English courses such as EFL, but not academic writing courses. The final category was reserved for those responses that were unclear or vague regarding previous EAW experience. It was hard to determine from such responses how much previous experience a student had had in EAW—or the response was irrelevant, the student apparently did not understand the question, or simply wrote information that applied to another question.
in the questionnaire, for example writing more information that would explain views on why it is wrong to plagiarise, as some students did. 54 (40%) students indicated that they had had previous experience in EAW other than the current pre-sessional course.

44 (32%) students indicated that they had little experience in EAW except for the current pre-sessional course. 37 students (27%) gave unclear or irrelevant responses for which it was not possible to draw any conclusions about student experience in English academic writing. It is important here to make a comment on the apparent difficulty some students had in comprehending the questionnaire. It seemed that there was a difficulty in comprehending this question, or understanding what sort of information was being asked for. For example, in response to question 3, some students seemed to think that they were being asked about instances of plagiarism they had come across in the past, and they responded by mentioning plagiarism they had encountered among colleagues or fellow students. As one student said, "some colleges copied some parts of this colleague's teaching materials to put in their own without acknowledgement." Some other students seemed to think that they were being asked for more information related to the first two questions, and they expounded more on defining plagiarism, or they gave more reasons to explain why plagiarism might be wrong.

Others it seemed, were attempting to exhibit knowledge and demonstrate that they knew what plagiarism was and how to avoid it, explaining for example academic quotation conventions. And several others admitted to copying texts, explaining why they had done so.
2.2.2.4.4 How Students Have Come to Hold Their Current Views

Students expressed a wide range of experiences which played a part in how they have come to hold their current views on plagiarism. Some had simply used logic, common sense, personal principles, conscience and general reflection in developing their views. Others had been strongly influenced by previous instruction or by their current pre-sessional EAP course, for example through discussion with tutors and lecturers. Some had heard of plagiarism cases in the newspaper or they had seen reports of public cases on television which had influenced their views. Others had come to hold their current views by doing their own research, thus realising the hard work that goes into academic writing, and as a result their views underwent re-examination and modification. Some indicated that family background and upbringing was an important factor in their current views.

For 41 (30%) students, previous instruction had been influential in how they have developed current views. Dialogue with tutors and lecturers had affected their views. Students mentioned school, research courses and general education as the influential factors in development of their views.

For 13 (10%) students the current pre-sessional EAP course had been influential in development of current views. One student was influenced by a teacher explaining "how strict the law against it [plagiarism] is." For another it was "pre-sessional English courses with clear examples of plagiarism" which were influential. A participant who first heard about plagiarism in a pre-sessional course commented as follows: "I did not have the idea about plagiarism. I've first heard in this academic language course and the tutor have said it to us and given a paper regarding this." Systematic instruction, or "being repeatedly told of how serious plagiarism here is" was another influential factor on student views. And for another student it was both "academic discussion with lecturers" and the course "guide book" which were influential. For this small minority of study participants (10%), the current EAP course played a major role in how they have come to view plagiarism.

38 This seems to be a small but significant minority.
There may have been more students whose views were significantly influenced by the current pre-sessional course, since it was not always clear whether students were referring to current or prior instruction. In some cases students did not clarify whether they were referring to instruction in the current pre-sessional course or to instruction prior to the course, for example simply stating that lecturers, teachers or education played a role in how they have come to hold their current views.

32 students (23%) gave miscellaneous responses in which it was unclear how students had come to hold their current views, and 24 students (17%) did not respond to this particular question. Poor design of this particular question is perhaps more to blame than student inability.

10 students (7%) said that their views had been influenced by a realisation of the hard work that goes into producing original ideas and creative thinking after doing research of their own, or after seeing others plagiarise and so benefit unfairly from work that was not their own. One student related that when his ideas were "taken by other people" he went through an important stage in the development of his views.

Another explained that "Once you do your own research, you come to realise what effort does it require to do and create some original work. And somebody stealing your views is like stealing your house or breaking in!" The result of another student's personal research experience was understanding "the difference between plagiarism and real work."

9 students (6%) felt that their views had developed from basic common sense or a natural idea about what is right and wrong, and general logical reflection on the issue. Others had read about or seen on television, cases of plagiarism which had influenced their view. 6 students (4%) gave such responses, having read newspapers on the subject, having heard of instances of plagiarism at university, or having followed television coverage of cases and so on. Family background played an important role for 5 students in the development of their views.
2.2.2.4.5 First Encounter with Plagiarism

The majority of students had encountered or become aware of the concept/idea of plagiarism prior to coming to the UK. 75% of students gave such a response. Out of this 75%, most had encountered the concept at school, including university, high school, college, business school, secondary and primary school.

A number of students said that it was a major writing project which was their first encounter with the concept of plagiarism. Teachers gave students instruction prior to the assignment, such as strong warnings about the seriousness of plagiarism before the writing of a thesis.

11 students (8%) indicated that it was a writing project which was their first encounter, although since many students gave general answers such as "at school" or "at university", it is most likely that many others received guidance on plagiarism in preparation for writing tasks.

In addition to project papers, dissertations/theses, part time research was also mentioned by students as writing experience in which they encountered the concept of plagiarism. One cannot assume though that since students are at the postgraduate level that they are completely familiar with or that they have even encountered the concept. It was "During my first year of a PhD course" when one student first encountered the concept. 39 Nine students (6%) had previously encountered the concept by learning about cases or instances of plagiarism by a classmate, or a public figure. Reading represented another means by which several students first encountered the concept of plagiarism, either reading newspapers, or by reading in preparation to write a thesis.

Language courses in home countries were another means by which several students became aware of plagiarism, taking English Diploma courses, university language preparation courses, while teacher training courses in their home countries were first encounters with plagiarism for other students. As for the rest of the students, 18 or 13%, 40 the current pre-sessional course was the first time they had

39 Responses such as this were rare.
40 This figure roughly corresponds with those 10% who said that the current EAP course played a
encountered plagiarism as a concept. Two of the students in this minority group said that the study questionnaire was their first encounter with the concept of plagiarism. For the remaining 12% it was unclear when they first encountered the concept. Either students simply did not know or answers were difficult to analyse and did not clearly indicate when the student first encountered or became aware of the concept of plagiarism.

2.2.2.4.6 Changes in Views on Plagiarism Since Coming to the UK to Study

78 students (58%) reported that there had been no significant change in their views since coming to the UK to study. Some felt quite strongly about their views, using exclamation points, capital letters, or large handwriting to make their point. It seems that the wording of the questionnaire might have offended some students, as if it were being suggested that other countries have lower standards than the British about plagiarism, and that perhaps students were expected by those in British institutions to change their views to a better standard on plagiarism. This of course was not the intention at all. One student's reaction was "you seem to be so proud of your academical system that there is no room to understand other systems. And I was a bit upset of the thought that other nations are in these questions pictured as having less strict rules." 41

An emphatic "NO!" was a frequent answer given by others when asked if their views had changed. However, 29 students (21%) reported that their views had changed significantly since coming to the UK to study. 42 One student saw the British as very strict concerning plagiarism, which was "a much bigger offence" in Britain than in his home country. Another said that since coming to the UK, he specifies the sources of his written work more clearly and is more careful with his assignments.

41 This was an ironic twist to the study results since the current researcher is not British, but American.
42 This is another small but significant minority.
Others had realised that in the UK "plagiarism is considered a very serious offence." As another wrote, "Now I believe in Plagiarism", underlining key words for emphasis.

15 students (11%) gave responses to the effect that they had been here too short of a time to experience any significant change in views. 8 students (5%) gave no response to this question, and 5 (3%) gave unclear responses.

2.2.2.4.7 Perceptions of How Seriously Plagiarism is Taken in UK Versus in Students' Home Countries

65 students (48%) thought plagiarism was taken just as seriously in their home country as in the UK. 3 students thought it was taken even more seriously. 41 students (30%) thought that plagiarism was not taken as seriously in their home country as it is in the UK. 16 students (12%) thought that they had not been in the UK long enough to compare, and 6 students (4%) gave unclear responses, while 3 students (2%) did not respond to this question.

One student did not see it as a "question of country but of mentality, honesty of the concerned people." 41 students (30%) did not think plagiarism was taken as seriously in their home country. As one put it, the view toward plagiarism in the home country was "more liberal" and as long as one was not too obvious in appropriating text, no one cared too much. Some thought that at undergraduate levels the issue was not as serious as at the postgraduate or professional level back in their home countries. In some countries with a low literacy rate (23% mentioned by one participant), plagiarism was not that important of an issue, similar to countries where people had a subsistency level of existence. As one participant said, "we are struggling for subsistency life, so when basic needs are fulfilled than other things are solved." 16 students (11%) felt that they had not been in the UK long enough to compare. One student felt that it simply depended on which particular institute of higher learning one was talking about, and the particular policies of that institution.

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43 This view is analogous to findings that American high schools do not deal as seriously with plagiarism as colleges and universities do (Dant 1986).
44 This student view illustrates that instructional background can vary even within a particular country.
2.2.4.8 Student Perceptions of Penalties for Plagiarism in Home Countries Versus in the UK

61 students (45%) perceived penalties to be as severe in their home countries as they are in the UK. 4 students (3%) perceived the penalties to be even more severe than in the UK. 33 students (24%) perceived penalties to be less severe in their home countries than in the UK. 9 students (7%) gave no response. And 9 students (6%) gave unclear or vague responses, while 17 students (13%) did not know.

2.2.4.9 Student Advice in Dealing with Cases of Plagiarism Involving NNS Overseas Students

As expected, student responses again expressed a wide range of views in giving advice and suggestions for dealing with cases of plagiarism among NNS overseas students. Since students often gave advice that fell into more than one category, the figures in the following table of responses tabulate to more than 100%. In analysing the responses, 11 broad categories of advice emerged, as listed below in Table 15.
Table 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>% of Students who mentioned category (N=121P)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Cultural Background should be taken into account.</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Cultural background is irrelevant.</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Knowledge about plagiarism/warnings is relevant.</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. English proficiency of the student is relevant.</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Same treatment as NS UK students should be standard.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Intention of the student is relevant.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Talking with student is important.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Extent and type of plagiarism is relevant.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Leniency/understanding of student situation is important.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Harsh treatment for offenders should be standard.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Miscellaneous</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

45 students (33%) felt that the cultural background of NNS overseas students was important in evaluating suspected cases of plagiarism. These students were concerned that cultural background should be considered since a student may come from a different educational background where copying from source material was tolerated and even advocated as one participant said,

If the administrator have not given advise to the class about why they should not do plagiarism, then he/she doesn't have the right to punish them. I say this because I've talked with some friends about this, and at school in their country they were asked to copy from books and not necessarily acknowledging it. ⁴⁵

But along with this type of response, the importance of students being told "the rules" was nearly always expressed, students asking for example, "Did this person in question know about the rules?" Following is another example of a student who at the same time as expressing the importance of cultural background, expresses the importance of instruction:

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⁴⁵ This response contains advice relating to both cultural background and knowledge orientations. When cultural background was seen as important by students, it was usually in the sense that a differing cultural background equates with a different educational/instructional background, as this student has explained.
Any administrator should consider the cultural background of the overseas students. If administrators do not want overseas students to plagiarise, administrators should teach students before students start academic years or academic writing.

Along similar lines another student wrote

Non native speaking overseas students must be explained completely about plagiarism so they will know the consequence of being a plagiariser... If the administrator already explained about the plagiarism and notice the penalties students will avoid it.

Others offered the advice that cultural background was important since it meant that there would likely be language difficulties: "Cultural background should be considered. Non-native speakers who have language problem would generally tend to copy words." Similarly, another student wrote "The cultural background should be considered, that it's difficult to paraphrase." Writing also of linguistic proficiency and cultural background, another wrote "the background of the student must be considered as a very significant factor! Maybe he doesn't really want to plagiarise, but he feel that 'other' language is far better than his! So just take it!" For students who thought cultural background was irrelevant (21 or 15.5%), a common view was that students must adapt to the "British points of view concerning plagiarism." For example, as the following student said

"Difference in the cultural background is not an excuse. When in Rome do as the Romans do! But students should definitely be warned and reminded because plagiarism can be unintentional too.

Others felt that since stealing is universally esteemed to be wrong, then cultural background is no excuse. One student said "I think the cultural background is not so important because in every country it is not allowed to steal." Others said

"No excuse for plagiarism at all. That is no culture in the world that allow plagiarism. Any plagiarism is not the right thing to do in any cases!"

\[46\] It is interesting to note how students perceive cultural background in terms of the established L2 writing variables of instructional background and L2 proficiency.
It's universal for punishing people who steals things.

In the view of one participant cultural background is a "very weak excuse" for plagiarism. Knowledge about plagiarism was an important variable to 55 students (40%), the "kind of orientation and advice given" and awareness of consequences and penalties. Students felt it important that "overseas student should know the rule and punishment of plagiarism and teachers should explain them so that they can not do it and help them how to write assignment or research paper."

Students also mentioned the importance of having preliminary drafts reviewed so that students had "enough input about how to 'take' and write (incorporate) other people's views or ideas." The prevailing view was that "if someone is able to understand what is plagiarism and is caught doing it then he should be penalised." If it was a case of not being proficient and struggling with writing, students felt a warning should be given, "but not at the postgraduate level!" emphasised one student. Leniency was advocated for those lacking proficiency or knowledge of the penalties for plagiarism. If students did have knowledge, and had been given instruction, the view was that they should be held accountable, as one student put it: "If there is appropriate information beforehand, then even a non-native speaker overseas student should be taken account seriously."

English language proficiency was another important variable mentioned by students, one that should be taken into account when dealing with a case of questionable appropriation of text. This variable was mentioned by 27 students (22%). Students saw the "degree of English skills" and "academic writing capability" as important. As one put it, "It's difficult to rewrite a thought in a foreign language." This was his explanation as to why NNS students might borrow wording from source texts. Another student expressed a similar view: "Overseas students are often used to plagiarising because of their lack of vocabulary: it is an easy way to express

47 This interesting comment on recontextualisation reveals the student's view that supervisors need to provide guidelines on avoidance of plagiarism. Sometimes, as will be seen in the presentation of the MSsCCQ results, course co-ordinators can have quite opposite expectations regarding student knowledge of academic writing conventions. It may be assumed that no further input or instruction is necessary to guide students in their postgraduate writing.
strong ideas with strong words and few mistakes." One student seemed to be commenting on the stages of development writers go through, the early stages being characterised by a dependence on source texts:

In the beginning it is not always to easy writing without plagiarism. If helps you to get started. After a while you will decrease your plagiarism.

And another seems to be describing the "jigsaw approach" used by the Spanish scientists in St. John's (1987) study:

Sometimes I can't find a word or a sentence which most express my idea. I match this and that (a phrase from one sentence to another). I look it at times and I'm not sure whether it is plagiarism or not.

Lack of paraphrase skills, an important linguistic capability as seen in Fanning's (1992) work, was mentioned by others:

Sometimes students do not know how to paraphrase or how to quote accurately.

It's difficult to paraphrase.

Some overseas students have problems with the English language. Sometimes they do not know how to paraphrase the text.

Other factors such as level of proficiency, ability to paraphrase, ability in using a thesaurus and dictionary should be considered.

Others mentioned the "temptation" to appropriate text, the same temptation observed by Yao (1991) in her study. One student commented,

Maybe he doesn't really want to plagiarise, but he feel that 'other' language is far better than his! So just take it!

Also seen in these student responses is the same lack of confidence which Yao observed in her study:

Sometimes maybe they've not found the sentences are very good, grammatically correct (and couldn't make their own sentences)

If someone is not good at English, he/she may copy some lines from published book to cover his/her weakness.

48 This is a curious statement relating derivation/plagiarism to an L2 proficiency-related lack of vocabulary.
Intent of the student was mentioned by 11 students (8%), stressing the importance of whether the appropriation was "on purpose or not." As one student put it:

It should be considered very carefully if there has been the intention to commit this crime or it was, maybe, a mistake.

Leniency for NNS overseas students was advocated by 12 students (8%). One student said "Give a chance!" and another advised, "rewriting of the entire assignment is a fair form of punishment." These students saw importance in making sure the offender was informed of the "regulations pertaining to plagiarism in the UK" and in giving the individual a "second chance" or an "opportunity to revise the paper so that it will have no plagiarism in it at all." Some however, were in favour of harsh treatment for offenders, for example seeing them as an opportunity to establish a deterring precedent to others:

Punish those who plagiarised severely so that it is a lesson to the others.

The extent, amount or type of plagiarism were other factors that should be taken into account, advised 4 (2%) students, commenting on "the percentage of plagiarism", the "type of plagiarism" and identifying the "level/extent of plagiarism." 4 students (2%) emphasised the importance of talking, "asking the student to explain what he or she means." 7 students (5%) did not respond to this question, and 9 students (6%) gave miscellaneous responses that did not fit into the other categories.
2.2.2.4.10 Students Who Have Appropriated Text: Reasons Why

Out of the 135 study participants, 134 responded to this question. 71 students (53%) indicated that they had plagiarised before or that they had committed what might be interpreted as plagiarism, and they indicated reasons to explain their behavior choosing from the set of reasons given in Table 16 or explaining in the space provided other reasons or details that had to do with previous textual appropriation activity.

Out of the 71 students who admitted plagiarising before, most had plagiarised because they were not aware that what they were doing might be considered wrong or dishonest, or because they did not know that what they were doing was plagiarism. The closely related reasons A and D (see Table 16), were chosen by 32 (45%) and 34 (48%) students respectively to explain why they had plagiarised. 19 (27%) students indicated that they had plagiarised for some other reason than the reasons listed in the questionnaire. For 18 students (25%), time was a factor, the plagiarism being committed because students did not have time to do the assignment themselves. For 10 (14%) students, the plagiarism was committed because of a desire to obtain a good grade. 7 students, (5% out of the 134 who responded to this question) were unsure if they had ever plagiarised. Table 16 presents the reasons students chose to explain why they plagiarised. Since some students chose more than one reason, (A and D being the most common combination of responses) the figures tabulate to more than 100%.
Table 16: Frequency of Reasons Given for ESL Student Plagiarism

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Number of students who mentioned reason to explain plagiarism (N=71)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>32 (45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>10 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>18 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>34 (48%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>19 (27%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A. I plagiarised because I was not aware that what I was doing might be considered wrong or dishonest.
B. I plagiarised because I wanted to get a good grade
C. I plagiarised because I did not have the time to do the assignment myself
D. I plagiarised because I did not know that what I was doing was plagiarism
E. Other Reason

In addition to selecting one of the categories to explain their behavior, students frequently wrote more information about their previous textual appropriation activity. In analysing these responses, it became clear that three factors were important: time, language proficiency, and lack of confidence in the ability to produce acceptable English academic prose. Some statements by students relate to all three of these categories, as in the following:

I plagiarised because I felt I couldn't say it better and getting the source was not easy. I had photocopies of a certain part of a book and didn't know the author or other details. I didn't have time. I knew it was wrong but I still did it because I thought that I couldn't do it better. But I used quotations.\(^49\)

\(^{49}\) It seems that this student might have been somewhat confused about plagiarism. The last statement is especially unclear. She may mean that she used quotation marks to indicate an otherwise unacknowledged quotation, which would of course not be plagiarism, but improper source acknowledgment.
Appropriation of text seemed to be a survival strategy for students brought on by a fear of failure, to pass an exam for example:

I can't express my idea in English. Maybe because of my limited language skills. I think one thing a student plagiarises because they are afraid that they will fail an exam or can't get a degree. Frankly say, I will do whatever I have to pass an exam... To me, if I plagiarise, it is because I am afraid that I will fail, not to receive a good grade. I know that I'm here to gain knowledge but as long as you have a passing grade system, nobody wants to be a loser. It is a way of survival if I have no other choices.  

Another student, in addition to the one who gave the above response, specifically stated, "I plagiarised because I wanted pass the exams." Students spoke of their "problem to express in English" what they wanted to say, or being "used to plagiarising because of [a] lack of vocabulary." Plagiarism in this case is "an easy way to express strong ideas with strong words and few mistakes." "Difficulties of finding the right words" was also brought up by students, as was the fear of paraphrasing: "I plagiarised because I was afraid that I could change the meaning of the paragraph."

Students also saw expressions in source texts as "really appropriate what I wanted to say" and they wanted to use these expressions in their writing. Others spoke of the desire to "Find a better English!!", because expressing one's ideas "into very good English is very difficult." Similarly, another felt the language in the source text to be "better from what I could do. So I just take some sentences which was very nice and has the accurate meaning that I want to say." Another was "trying to find proper words to express my point of view."  

2.2.2.4.11 Rating of Explanations

Ratings of the 5 explanations of why students should not plagiarise are summarised in Table 17. Five students were disqualified from these ratings for either not completing these sections of the questionnaire or indicating that they did not understand these questions.

50 This is another comment on plagiarism used as a strategy for avoiding failure.
51 These comments align exactly with StJohn's (1987) contention that the Spanish scientists were seeking the right language to express their own fully preconceptualised ideas.
Table 17
Explanations of Why Students Should not Plagiarise: Mean Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explanation based on:</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>(n=130)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A Self-Respect</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>(1.36)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B Fairness</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>(1.04)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C Consequences for Ac. Community</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>(.94)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D Obedience to Rules</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>(1.29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E Teacher-Student Relationship</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>(1.12)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(based on 5 pt scale, 5 being "expresses my views very well" and 1 being "does not express my views") note: standard deviations printed in parentheses below means.

After using this section of Kroll's questionnaire in two pilot studies and in the actual study, it became clear that the most valuable data had been obtained from the free response sections. The additional work involved in analysing the extensive written responses was well worth the effort. The most that can be said from the responses to this rating of explanations section is that students seemed to prefer the Fairness orientation over the other explanations of why one should not plagiarise.

2.2.2.4.12 Rating of Statements about Plagiarism

The next section has more value in investigating student views, although the free responses are still more informative in relating student views and attitudes on plagiarism. Table 18 presents the results regarding how students rated the 8 statements on plagiarism. Generally speaking these students would be angry if a classmate were to plagiarise, and they would care if someone benefited unfairly from plagiarism. They do not see plagiarism as situationally relative as seen from the mean ratings given statements C and G. They would try to persuade another student not to
plagiarise, but would not go as far as persuading someone to confess to plagiarising. Finally, these students saw plagiarists as deserving of penalties for such behaviour.
### Table 18
Statements about Plagiarism: Mean Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Total (n=130)</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Angry</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Don't Care</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Situations forced to plagiarise</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Persuade another not to plagiarise</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. Persuade another to confess</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Report student</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Plagiarism always wrong</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. Plagiarist should fail</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(mean based on 5 point scale, 5 being 'strongly agree' and 1 being 'strongly disagree')

**Statements**
A. I would be angry and feel it was unfair if I discovered that another student in the class had plagiarised a paper.
B. I don't care if other students want to plagiarise; it's their business, not mine.
C. I don't think plagiarism is right, but there are still some situations in which a student might be forced to plagiarise in order to get a decent grade in a course.
D. If I knew that another student in the class was planning to plagiarise a paper, I'd try to persuade him or her not to plagiarise.
E. If I discovered that a student had plagiarised, I'd try to persuade him or her to confess.
F. If I discovered that a student had plagiarised, I'd report him or her to the instructor.
G. Plagiarism is always wrong, regardless of circumstances.
H. If a student in this class got caught plagiarising a paper, he or she would deserve to fail the course.
2.2.2.5 Summary and Discussion of Results

In discussing the student questionnaire results, it will be helpful to refer back to the central research questions of the study:

1. Why are ESL students perceived by many educators involved with L2 writing to be persistent plagiarists, and is this perception a valid one?

2. What explanatory variables, in addition to established L2 writing variables, are involved in cases of apparent plagiarism involving ESL students, and how can these explanatory variables (both established and predicted variables) be usefully incorporated into L2 writing theory in order to provide reliable principles for practice and pedagogy?

Additionally, it will be useful to review the particular areas of information which were investigated with the survey instrument in this study:

1) How students define plagiarism.

2) Why students believe plagiarism to be "wrong" (or not wrong).

3) How students have come to hold current views on plagiarism, including when students first encountered the concept of plagiarism.

4) How students have been initiated into English academic writing, including the instruction they have had on plagiarism.

5) Whether students undergo changes in views on plagiarism when coming to study in the UK.

6) What differences in cultural attitudes toward plagiarism students might perceive in the UK versus in their home countries.

7) What differences students might perceive in ESL student versus NES (native English speaking) student experience with plagiarism (this information was sought by asking for advice on dealing with a case of plagiarism involving a NNS overseas student).

8) Whether students had ever plagiarised before, or whether they had ever committed what might be interpreted as plagiarism.

9) Why students resort to appropriation activity.
10) Rating of explanations (with differing ethical orientations) about plagiarism, and ranking of statements about plagiarism (also with differing ethical orientations).

In reviewing the student questionnaire results, it is evident that ESL students are perceived by many educators to be persistent plagiarists because they do indeed appropriate texts for various reasons. 71 students in this study (53%), indicated that they had plagiarised before, or that they had committed what might be interpreted as an act of plagiarism. But as far as the perception of ESL students as persistent plagiarists being a valid one, it would be safe to say at this point that it is not entirely valid. From student responses, it it clear that students go through stages of development in their views on plagiarism and in their views on the acceptability of using derivation and unacknowledged copying as composing strategies. Students become more sensitive to ethical orientations to plagiarism when they do original research of their own and when they are given the responsibility of teaching others how to produce quality academic writing. Just over half of the students in this study may have appropriated text before, but the majority of this half did not realise that unacknowledged derivation was unacceptable, or they did not have a complete understanding of plagiarism. Furthermore, in their development as writers they came to have an understanding of plagiarism which made them realise how serious of an issue it is. A sizable majority of these students saw plagiarism to be wrong because it violates the principle of ownership, and these students clearly expressed views which condemned plagiarism as unacceptable. Only 2 students out of 135 saw nothing wrong with plagiarism, and it may be that they did not understand what they were being asked to do.

So to characterise or stereotype these students as persistent plagiarists is an inaccurately and invalidly portrayed perception, yet as seen in the literature, the perception is a widely held one. ESL students in this study may have appropriated text before, but for most of them it was for lack of knowledge of L2 convention.
according to their responses. And once students realised that unacknowledged copying was unacceptable at some point in the development of their views, they decided that they would not make such derivation a feature of their writing, and in responding to this questionnaire they spoke out against plagiarism as a form of academic dishonesty.

Regarding the second research question, investigating variables involved in the use of derivation/plagiarism by ESL students as a composing strategy, the results reveal a surprising congruency with established L2 writing variables which have been used to explain other types of L2 writing difficulties. To review, these L2 writing variables are as follows:

1) Writing strategies
2) L1 writing ability
3) Knowledge of L2 writing conventions
4) Instructional background
5) L2 proficiency

A number of students explained that their derivation had been used as a survival strategy for fear of failure. Students wanted to pass their exams and they wanted to receive passing marks on their academic writing projects. Many students also said that a lack of knowledge was the reason they had plagiarised. Students frequently mentioned instructional/educational background as a variable which should be considered in cases of apparent plagiarism involving NNS overseas students. And proficiency was also mentioned by many students as a reason that an ESL student might appropriate text without acknowledgment.

The ESL students in this study gave well written definitions of plagiarism and their responses reveal an overall excellent understanding of the concept, with nearly a quarter of students having an ideal understanding of plagiarism, nearly half of them having a good understanding, and another quarter having at least a basic understanding of plagiarism. The vast majority, some 94%, had at least a basic
understanding of what is involved in avoiding plagiarism. Furthermore, these students
gave cogently expressed thoughts and ideas on why plagiarism is wrong, and their
free responses fell neatly into categories quite similar to the categories which emerged
in Kroll's L1 study. The majority preferred ownership as the principle which
explained their view of why plagiarism is wrong followed by the principles of
Fairness, Honesty, Individual Responsibility and so on. These students did see
plagiarism to be wrong, and there were few signs of equivocation.

Students in this study came from diverse backgrounds when it comes to EAW
experience, but such diverse backgrounds have resulted in very similar views on
dishonesty in English academic writing. Plagiarism, or the stealing of another's work,
seems to be universally despised by those who appreciate the value of hard work, and
a number of students made the point that they considered plagiarism to be wrong long
before they had come to the UK and long before they had learned to write in English.
The majority of students had encountered the concept of plagiarism before coming to
the UK, and they had experienced little change in their views since arriving to study in
Great Britain. However, a small but significant minority of students did indicate that
their views had undergone further development, and some had experienced important
changes in their views while in presessional EAP courses. Some realised just how
important of an issue plagiarism is seen to be in the UK, while rarely, a few
encountered the concept for the first time in their pre-sessional course, at least one
encountering the concept through participating in the current survey. Just because a
student is studying at the postgraduate level does not mean he/she is familiar with the
concept of plagiarism. Rare cases may involve a student first coming to terms with
the concept of plagiarism at the postgraduate level. About half of these students
thought that plagiarism was taken just as seriously in their home country as it is in the
UK, but 30% of these students thought that it was not taken as seriously in their
home countries.

As far as differences between cases of plagiarism involving NESs versus cases
involving ESL students, about one third of the students thought that in a case
involving a NNS overseas student, the cultural background should be considered, but it was in the sense that a differing cultural background might mean that a student had come from a different educational/instructional background, or in the sense that a student might be of lower English proficiency since a differing cultural background would entail speaking English as an L2. Some thought that cultural background was irrelevant, and nearly half of the students saw knowledge to be an important factor—whether or not the student knew that plagiarism was not acceptable. Just under one quarter of these students saw L2 proficiency to be an important variable.

Just over half of these students had appropriated text before. They had either plagiarised, or in their way of thinking they had committed what might be interpreted as an act of plagiarism. Of these students, about half again reported that their use of derivation as a composing strategy was due to lack of knowledge. Lack of time was the second most common reason that students gave to explain their derivation/plagiarism: "I plagiarised because I didn't have time to do the assignment myself." 18 students (25%, n=71), gave time as the reason they had lifted text.52

In addition to time, lack of confidence was a variable mentioned by many students to explain their derivation/plagiarism. They wanted to be able to produce quality English academic prose, and they had doubts about their ability to produce English that would be as well-written as what appeared in published texts, or as well-written as the English found in the reports and projects of their NES colleagues.53

The ratings of ethical orientations and statements about plagiarism reveal that this group of ESL students favours Fairness to explain why one should not plagiarise, and they have strong feelings about the issue. They would be angry if a classmate plagiarised. For them, plagiarism is not situationally relative, and they see it as a behavior which merits penalties.

From these student questionnaire results, it becomes evident that perceptions of ESL students as being persistent plagiarists are valid in the sense that many ESL

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52 Time seems to be an important L2 writing explanatory variable.
53 Lack of confidence seems to be emerging as an important explanatory variable.
students have appropriated text before, \footnote{But L1 students could also be categorised as persistent plagiarists since many of them also appropriate text.} but it is generally an inaccurate perception if plagiarism is defined as a deceitful behavior requiring knowledge on the part of the offender that such derivation without acknowledgment is not acceptable. Leaving off the modifier persistent, the perception that many ESL students are plagiarists is valid in the sense that some ESLs students do appropriate text for reasons other than lack of knowledge, but such appropriation is more rarely done, and when it is done, the reasons seem to be related more to L2 proficiency and lack of confidence than to outright deceit. So in relation to outright deceitful plagiarism, the lifting of text by ESL students, when it is done with knowledge of L2 academic writing conventions, seems to be a relatively more minor form of derivation or plagiarism than much of the appropriation going on today in academia and in post-modern culture at large.
2.2.3 MSc Course Co-ordinator Questionnaire (MScCCQ)

2.2.3.1 Introduction: Reasons for Choosing MSc Course Co-ordinators as Study Participants

By conducting a questionnaire among course co-ordinators of master's level programmes at various Scottish universities, not only was such an inquiry seen as a contingency plan to offset future low student questionnaire response rates, but it was also seen as a valuable investigation of experiences that teachers have had with plagiarism and derivation in the academic writing of their non-native speaking students. As part of this investigation of teachers' experience, obtaining student texts to analyse--student writing in which there were instances of derivation/plagiarism--was a major goal in conducting the MScCCQ.

British universities attract many overseas students, and Scottish universities are especially known for international scholarly exchange. One Scottish university prospectus states that "over a third of postgraduate students are from outside the UK, 80 different nationalities are represented." Another course catalogue stated that "One third of its 2,100 full-time postgraduates are drawn from over 100 different countries." The large number of NNS students in postgraduate courses was one reason that the questionnaires were conducted among postgraduate MSc course co-ordinators and students, in addition to the prediction that postgraduates would possess greater English proficiency and ability to communicate their views and L2 writing experience with clarity and competence. With the large numbers of NNS postgraduates in MSc taught courses, the reasoning was that since continuous assessment is a feature of such courses (projects, essays, take home exams etc.), derivation and plagiarism would more likely be discovered in a taught course than in a research degree programme.

In selecting which university departments to send questionnaires to, the first task was to ascertain whether or not a particular department had an MSc taught

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55 Generally, research degree students are also more proficient in English than taught course student, so if L2 proficiency is a variable, one might expect that research degree students would not lift text as frequently as taught course students would in order to compensate for linguistic deficiency.
course. Another task was to determine whether the department regularly had NNS overseas students in their programme. In some cases the course catalogues (university prospectus) gave clues; for example departments which offered programmes of interest to overseas students often stated that the program was designed with the overseas student in mind, as in studies related to tropical animal health or the petroleum industry. The text of several taught course descriptions gave clear indication that attempts were being made to attract overseas students as in the following statement: "This course is designed principally for overseas students who would like to develop ... ." In several instances, pictures of department staff and students in a university prospectus gave some indication that there would be overseas students since it appeared from the picture that there were a number of non-British students.56

2.2.3.2 The Questionnaire and Method of Conducting the Survey Instrument

In the MSc CCQ, information was sought on participant perceptions of the English academic writing ability of NNS students (question 1), writing assistance available to students (question 2), and writing strategies commonly used by students (question 3). Additionally, information was sought on instruction given with regard to avoiding plagiarism (question 4), difficulty students encounter in writing (question 5), and details of plagiarism cases respondents had encountered (questions 6 and 7). Finally, advice was solicited from participants relating to their recommendations for dealing with suspected cases of plagiarism among NNS overseas students (question 8). To follow up on the possibility of obtaining student texts, participants were asked for their name, department, professional status and telephone number.

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56 Although admittedly it is hard to be sure about the appearance of an average British individual who speaks English as the native language.
The MScCCQ was designed to elicit information in the following areas:

1) Course co-ordinator perceptions of English academic writing ability of ESL students in their programmes.
2) Assistance available to ESL students struggling with their writing tasks.
3) Strategies and procedures used by ESL students in their academic writing.
4) Training and instruction given to students in preparing them for academic writing, including whether instruction on avoidance of plagiarism is given.
5) Difficulties ESL students face in their academic writing.
6) Details of recent (past 5 years) cases of plagiarism or unacknowledged appropriation of source materials.
7) Advice on dealing with suspected cases of plagiarism by ESL students, including whether cultural background should be considered.

In several instances guided interviews were conducted with MSc course co-ordinators to obtain more information about instances of derivation/plagiarism by ESL students, or to obtain a response from a participant who did not have time to complete the questionnaire. One of the main goals in conducting this questionnaire among MSc course co-ordinators was to obtain ESL texts to analyze in which there were instances of derivation and plagiarism. Participants were somewhat more hesitant to divulge details of such cases than they were to simply complete the questionnaire. Some course co-ordinators no longer had ESL texts relating to cases of derivation and plagiarism, having thrown the texts out or having filed them away in forgotten archives. In spite of this, a number of ESL student texts were obtained for analysis including exam essays, course projects, and an MSc dissertation. Not all of the texts are presented in this thesis—only those texts in which it could be clearly demonstrated that derivation/plagiarism had occurred. There were five such cases obtained for analysis, with two cases involving more than one student writing task in which a student's writing exhibited signs of derivative influence without acknowledgment. 57

57 See appendix C (p 177) for the complete data on these cases including student texts and source
Questionnaires with an accompanying cover letter were sent by post to participants. The cover letter gave assurances that the information requested would be handled responsibly: "Your responses will be treated in a sensitive and confidential manner, and no department, course or instructor will be mentioned by name in my dissertation." (Refer ahead several pages, pp 124-129, for copy of letters and questionnaire). It was hoped that with assurances of confidentiality participants would not feel hesitant to relate details about their experiences with student appropriation of source materials. For many in academia, anything that relates to plagiarism is a sensitive issue, and there is always a fear of lawsuits by students who feel they have been wronged, resulting in a certain hesitancy to talk about such issues with just anyone.

The questionnaire and guided interviews were first conducted among a number of department staff at Edinburgh university where the current researcher was studying in the Department of Applied Linguistics. For this Edinburgh University survey, the questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter and also a letter of support from Professor Harry Dickenson, Assistant Dean Postgraduate in the Faculty of Arts. After checking with other postgraduate Faculty Deans concerning the questionnaire, he generously wrote a letter of support which was included with the questionnaire and cover letter when surveying MSc staff at Edinburgh. His letter reiterated the confidentiality that seemed necessary to achieve a positive response, and hopefully the support of the postgraduate committees would allay any fears that university staff might have about divulging information on cases of textual appropriation.

At Edinburgh University the inter-departmental mailing system was used to send questionnaires to course co-ordinators, after first contacting them by telephone to see if they could complete the questionnaires. The regular postal system was used
for sending questionnaires to course co-ordinators at other universities in the UK. For those at Edinburgh University who did not have time to complete a questionnaire (10 staff) a brief guided interview was conducted by telephone and respondents were asked for the same information as asked for in the questionnaire. Some staff said quite bluntly that if a questionnaire were sent, it would end up in the bin. Since several interviewees were short on time, some interviews turned out to be hurried telephone surveys, so some questions were omitted and the interview results were somewhat more sketchy than the written questionnaire responses. On the following pages are presented copies of the letters and questionnaires used in surveying MSc course co-ordinators.
3 November 1995

To: All relevant staff

Dear Colleague,

John P. Lesko in the Department of Applied Linguistics in the Faculty of Arts is researching a PhD on the difficulties facing Non-Native Speakers (NNS) in writing English when undertaking MSc degrees in this university. He is interested in such questions as how they cope with attributing work to others, how they learn about the practices of a particular discipline in citing sources, and how they learn what is plagiarism and what is not. He is engaged in this as a serious academic enquiry into how NNS learn and what problems they have in adjusting to the requirements we have in this university (and in Britain in general). He has already collected information, through questionnaires and interviews, from NNS who have arrived to do MSc degrees here. These NNS have been happy to cooperate with him and are quite willing to let him follow up his enquiries with their teachers and supervisors. He now wishes to send questionnaires to some teachers and course organisers in MSc degrees in various parts of the university, and perhaps to interview a selection of these. I wish to emphasise that he will be conducting this exercise in a sensitive and confidential manner. He is not seeking to criticise any student, any teacher or any course, and he will not be mentioning any student, course or teacher by name in his dissertation.

I believe this is a serious and positive study. I hope therefore that you have no objection if he approaches you. I hope this letter from me will allay any fears you may have. I have consulted all convenors of Postgraduate Studies Committees in the University and they have all given their support for this research. I hope therefore you will assist Mr Lesko to the best of your ability.

Thank you for your help.

With best wishes.

Yours sincerely

[Signature]

Professor Harry Dickinson
Associate Dean Postgraduate (Faculty of Arts)
3 November 1995

Professor H.T. DICKINSON
Richard Lodge Professor of British History
Concurrent Professor of History, Nanjing University, China
DEPARTMENT of HISTORY
University of Edinburgh
William Robertson Building
EDINBURGH EH8 9JY
U.K.
Telephone (direct) 0131 650 3785
(secretary) 0131 650 3781
(home) 0131 229 1379
Fax (office) 0131 650 3784
E-Mail: Harry.Dickinson@ed.ac.uk

To: John Lesko, PG student, Department of Applied Linguistics

Dear John,

All the Associate Deans Postgraduate have approved your research plans to interview academic staff. I therefore enclose a letter which you can copy and enclose with any approach you make to a member of staff. It should help you to get a positive response.

Good luck with your research.

With best wishes,

Yours sincerely,

Professor Harry Dickinson
Associate Dean Postgraduate (Faculty of Arts)

cc Tony Howatt, Applied Linguistics
Dear Colleague,

As part of my research toward the PhD in Applied Linguistics, I am requesting your assistance in furthering our understanding of some of the difficulties non-native speakers (NNS) may face in fulfilling their English academic writing assignments. Since you are a member of staff/teacher/instructor who frequently evaluates the writing of NNSs, I believe your input would be a valuable contribution to my work.

I would therefore be grateful if you would take the time to complete the short questionnaire which I have attached to this letter, and I wish to re-emphasise that your responses will be treated discretely and confidentially. In my dissertation I will not be mentioning by name any students, teachers or courses. Should you have any questions please contact either me or my supervisor, Anthony P. Howatt, in the Department of Applied Linguistics, University of Edinburgh (tel: 650-3864).

Upon completion, please return the questionnaire to John P. Lesko, Department of Applied Linguistics, 14 Buccleuch Place unless I have specified a time to pick up the questionnaires.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

John P. Lesko
PhD Researcher
6 August 1996

MSc Course Co-ordinator
Institute and Department Address

Dear MSc Course Co-ordinator:

As part of my research toward the PhD in Applied Linguistics I am investigating some of the academic writing difficulties faced by non-native speakers (NNS) of English who are undertaking taught courses in the UK.

I would be extremely grateful if you would complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me in the accompanying self-addressed stamped envelope (or alternatively pass it along to be completed by a colleague who might be more knowledgeable about writing difficulties faced by overseas students). Your responses to this brief questionnaire will help me immensely in my work, and I am hopeful that you will help contribute to our understanding of challenges faced by NNS overseas students in adapting to academic life in the UK.

Your responses will be treated in a sensitive and confidential manner, and no department, course or instructor will be mentioned by name in my dissertation.

I look forward to hearing from you. Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely yours,

John P. Lesko
PhD researcher in Applied Linguistics

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1 These accompanying letters were personally addressed to questionnaire respondents.
QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE ACADEMIC WRITING CHALLENGES FACED BY NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

Instructions: The following questions are of the free-response type. Please respond as you feel appropriate, using the overleaf or extra sheets of paper as necessary.

1. What is your general impression of the English academic writing ability of incoming non-native speakers of English (NNS) to your course?

2. What kind of assistance is available for students who may need help with their academic writing skills?

3. What are some common writing strategies and processes that your NNS students use in fulfilling their writing assignments?

4. What kind of training/instruction do you give your students in preparing them for their academic writing tasks? Does this training/instruction include guidance on the importance of source attribution and acknowledgement, and the avoidance of plagiarism?

5. Are there any difficulties that your NNS students face in fulfilling their writing assignments for your course?
6. Are you aware of any recent (past five years) instances of questionable appropriation of text, plagiarism, or difficulties with source acknowledgement and attribution in the writing of NNS students? (Note: I would also be interested in any other instances you have come across as a result of evaluating the writing of NNSs throughout your career)

7. If you have come across cases as mentioned above, could you give the brief details of the case(s) in which you were involved?

8. What advice would you give to an administrator on a case of suspected plagiarism involving a non-native speaking overseas student? Should the cultural background of the student be considered? What other factors should the administrator take into consideration prior to making a decision on the case?

Additionally, the following information would be helpful for me to get in touch with you regarding any questions I might have about your responses:

a. department __________________________

b. name and professional status______________

c. telephone number _______________________

Sincere thanks for your assistance,

John P. Lesko
PhD Researcher
2.2.3.3 Guided Interviews

10 Edinburgh University staff said that they did not have time to complete a questionnaire so brief telephone interviews were conducted instead. These respondents had plenty of anecdotal accounts to relate on their views and experience with student appropriation of text. One respondent said that plagiarism among NNS students was a "general problem in the master's course" and he remembered a "particularly nasty" case a few years ago involving a dissertation. The student had copied chunks of text and joined them together. Such lifting of text was a common practice in Greece, the student said when confronted. After this incident, staff in the department became more vigilant—on the lookout for such textual appropriation. Also as a result of this incident, a type of contract was designed which students signed, pledging that they would turn in only original work in their own words.

In another department, the office secretary provided answers to some questions, and most importantly, she was aware of a department staff member who just the year before had dealt with a major instance of textual appropriation, a case which will be discussed later in chapter 4. There had actually been two cases in this department the year before, the secretary said, but in only one of these cases were staff able to trace the exact sources from which the student had appropriated text. In the other case, there was simply not enough time to investigate the student's dissertation thoroughly, although there were passages which seemed heavily derivative. The sources used by the student were highly specific, and they came from a collection of unpublished manuscripts to which the MSc staff did not have access.

A respondent in another department mentioned a case involving two Germans who turned in projects closely resembling each other. The students claimed that their effort had been a collaborative one and that they had come from the same German university and were accustomed to such collaboration. Eventually the students' explanation was accepted.

Another respondent, who was typical in his stereotyping of Far Easterners, felt that "oriental students seem to have the most difficulty" with unacknowledged verbatim copying and that some cultures tacitly encourage unacknowledged
appropriation of text. He saw the difference between appropriation among NSs and NNSs as follows. Native speakers do it out of just "plain badness" while non-native speakers usually do it for other reasons. This respondent also mentioned a case of plagiarism involving a NNS in which language proficiency might have been indirectly related. A student had too much to handle with one project, and not being able to handle another project concurrently, he resorted to unacknowledged lifting of source text.

Another telephone interviewee mentioned a student who had looked up article abstracts on a certain topic, lifted sentences and phrases from them, and used them in the reconstruction of his own literature review from a course project. In another department, an interviewee mentioned that appropriation of text had become a significant problem in recent years with at least one case happening a year involving struggling NNS students. One person outside Edinburgh University from the Murray House Institute of International Education was interviewed, but no questionnaires were conducted there. This participant saw appropriation of text as a "crucial problem" in the writing of non-native speakers.

The rest of the interviewees did not have much to relate with regard to derivation/plagiarism by NNSs other than making general comments on why NNSs might have such problems with appropriation of text. They saw "different traditions from the West-European tradition" as a factor and mentioned the respect in some

59 This respondent may be correct in asserting that some instructional backgrounds encourage patterns of derivation, but his stereotyping of oriental students is based on the invalid assumption that derivation is not a problem among students from other backgrounds as well. Students from other cultures and countries appropriate text too.
60 This sounds exactly like what the Spanish scientists in St. John's study (1987) did.
61 This perception that the problem is a relatively recent phenomenon may have some validity.
traditions of "the ability to reproduce the work of acknowledged authorities in the field." In such a tradition, this ability is "an important route to academic success."

2.2.3.4 Fears of Bringing out the Departmental "Dirty Laundry"

These Edinburgh interviews were the start of the MSc staff survey. From these interviews predictions could be made regarding the type of difficulties which would be encountered in attempting to learn details about departmental problems with plagiarism. It was going to be very difficult to obtain texts involved in cases of lifted source materials. In beginning one telephone interview, a respondent was just beginning to discuss several interesting cases the department had had. But then all of a sudden he said "Wait a minute. I'd better check with the department head." He felt that some of the information might be too sensitive and confidential to give out to just anyone. He came back to the telephone, and to the dismay of the current researcher, said that his department head had ruled out any possibility of divulging details or releasing texts involving student cases of derivation/plagiarism. He said that overseas students attract a lot of money and funding, and they did not want to scare them away by bringing out the departmental "dirty laundry" as he put it. Besides that, the department head felt that the writing problems of overseas students were no different from the problems faced by native speakers. So the department head put a quick end to this particular telephone interview, which left the current researcher wondering how many other departments might have "dirty laundry" that would remain hidden away.
2.2.3.5 Participants

Table 19 gives the breakdown of questionnaire participants. These figures include only those who completed and returned a questionnaire, since in the brief telephone interviews not every question was asked of all interviewees. A total of 108 questionnaires were sent out by post along with self-addressed stamped return envelopes, and a response was received from 56 MSc course co-ordinators, a return rate of 51.8%.  

Table 19
MSc Course Co-ordinator Questionnaire Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th># of Questionnaires Sent</th>
<th># of Questionnaires Returned</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>St. Andrew's</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Napier</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1 (disqualified)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glasgow</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dundee</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paisley</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heriot-Watt</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aberdeen</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strathclyde</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7 (1 disqualified)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stirling</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7 (1 disqualified)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Edinburgh</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>108 sent</td>
<td>56 returned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-3 disqualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>=53 participants</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

62 The other 48.2% must have used the second class stamp on the SASE (self addressed stamped envelope) for something else.
After 2 respondents who gave spurious responses were disqualified along with one respondent who had never had any NNS overseas students in his programme, 53 participant questionnaires were left for analysis.

2.2.3.6 Results

2.2.3.6.1 Perceptions of NNS Student English Academic Writing Ability

The first question was designed to investigate respondent impressions regarding the EAW (English academic writing) ability of incoming NNS to taught postgraduate courses. Most respondents (25 or 47%) indicated that writing proficiency of incoming students was variable, there being a wide variation of student ability ranging from poor to excellent. 15 respondents (28%) had the impression that the English academic writing ability was adequate for the course or better. Two respondents in this category felt that the writing ability of NNSs was better than NESs! 12 respondents (22%) felt that the writing ability of students was limited and insufficient for the demands of the course. Several even mentioned that despite requirements for certain levels of attainment in either the TOEFL or IELTS exams, such exams are not always reliable means of guaranteeing that a student's English proficiency is at the level needed to undertake and to do well in a particular course, and therefore students are sometimes allowed in who in their view, should never have been admitted to the course in the first place. According to some respondents, such students eventually drop out of the course or return to their home countries with only a diploma rather than a degree.

One respondent felt student ability to be "adequate for basic expression", and he commented on the development and improvement in writing skills that he had observed:

First essays are generally poor, and often very poor in Autumn (end first term) exams. First drafts of dissertations are much better, by end of first year. The level of expression however requires a great deal of superior input to produce scientific prose.
This input consisted mainly of editing by supervisors and rewriting of student work. In one department, because of a professor who was a leading international authority in petroleum economics, postgraduates were attracted from most corners of the globe—From Germany, Denmark, Sri Lanka, Greece, the Philippines, China, Hong Kong, Korea, Russia, Iran, Africa. The respondents' evaluation was that these students "demonstrated spoken and written English of a very high quality." In departments which attracted professionals to their courses, the view of student writing seemed to be generally more positive.

Experience was, in respondent views, a definite factor in the level of student English writing ability: "Many of our students have professional experience and so excellent English." The British Commonwealth influence also seems to be one of the variables in student writing ability pointed out by several respondents. In many commonwealth countries, English is the medium of instruction. One course coordinator said that "if they come from a commonwealth country" student writing ability is "usually OK." Another respondent held similar views: "Those from Anglophile Countries within the commonwealth tend to be more competent."

One respondent's comments are interesting since they span the range of student ability and background. He has also mentioned the commonwealth influence and he sees NNS English writing to be better than NES English writing in some cases, a thought-provoking idea:

I have found that most African students I have taught have very good English and require little or no remedial work on language. This is because most of them have come from ex-British colonies where their medium of instruction has been English at least since they entered secondary education and no doubt because they are gifted students anyway.

Indian sub-continent students, despite perhaps a similar inheritance, do seem to have more difficulties in producing British-type English... My own greatest

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63 Professional experience seems to be a similar variable to the L2 writing instruction background variable, and these comments support the view that students in the early stages of development as writers will face more problems (such as derivative influence in their writing) than those writers who are further along in their development due to more experience. However, as seen in the cases of the Spanish and Chinese scientists (St. John 1987; Xiguang Li and Xiong Lei (1996), even experienced L2 writers sometimes lift text.
difficulties have come with the few Chinese students I have taught. Students from European universities on Erasmus exchanges etc. tend to have good English in my experience. The fact that they have been taught the language formally in an academic context means that their written work is often more 'correct' than that of many native speakers who, in recent years, seem to be less and less likely to understand grammar.

2.2.3.6.2 Writing Assistance Available to Struggling Students

Question 2 investigated the type of assistance available for students struggling with the demands of the course. The main resources mentioned by respondents for struggling students included courses and tutoring offered by university language centres or institutes as well as courses and tutoring offered within the departments. 36 respondents (68%) mentioned university language centres/institutes as a resource for struggling students. 15 (28%) mentioned departmental assistance, and 8 (15%) indicated that assistance was limited. 7 (13%) mentioned supervisors and advisors as sources of help although several made it clear that such help was also limited. Supervisor assistance involved "Mainly laborious and painstaking corrections" to drafts of student work. 3 (5%) mentioned private tutors and 2 respondents were not aware of any assistance available to students.

2.2.3.6.3 Student Writing Strategies

Through question 3 the type of writing strategies students use in completing their writing assignments was investigated. However, this question seems to have been unclear since a number of participants did not respond.

Those who did respond related a variety of writing strategies and processes used by students. These included the strategy of using a dictionary and thesaurus, which are invaluable tools for the NNS, but they can also be used to "plug in" a few synonyms when paraphrasing instead of formulating the radical paraphrase which demonstrates true understanding and comprehension of a text. As one participant commented,
Weaker students tend to rely on one text book which they have tried to 'learn' thoroughly by going through it with the appropriate dictionary. One then gets what amounts to plagiarism.

Outlines, structured planning and word processing software were other means employed as part of student writing processes. Also mentioned was assistance rendered by friends-- such as proofreading an essay. Supervisors were also mentioned as sources of help in "editing of student work" or even rewriting it. "They rely on me to re-write their work" said one respondent. Departmental writing seminars in which examples of academic writing were given were another source of assistance.

Several respondents commented on the writing strategies used by students of limited proficiency: "quite often they write in note form and have no idea how to structure an essay." Another mentioned the use of "single sentences, bullet-point and item listing structures" and commented further on the tendency of "low ability (English language) students . . . to avoid involving, structured paragraphs." Copying, restructuring of source texts, and attempted paraphrase were other ways in which students dealt with difficult assignments.

Other strategies used by students of limited English proficiency involved appropriation of text and "often direct plagiarism" as one respondent stated quite bluntly. Such strategies were used in "compiling reports using modified plagiarism, changing phrases slightly to be consistent in style." The appropriation of text might be from any number of sources with students often "copying from books, journals, postgraduate dissertations held in the library and very occasionally from essays of previous years." Writing an assignment in the L1 and then translating it into English was another strategy mentioned.
2.2.3.6.4 Preparation for Academic Writing Tasks

Question 4 investigated the type of training and instruction given to students in preparation for writing tasks. Respondents were asked specifically whether guidance was given on source acknowledgement and avoidance of plagiarism. Nearly all respondents reported that in training and instructions given for writing tasks, some sort of mention was made of the importance of avoiding plagiarism and properly acknowledging sources. A typical response is as follows: "All students NS, and NNS, are warned orally and in writing about plagiarism and proper acknowledgement of sources." "Introduction courses for all incoming post-graduates" were mentioned by other respondents. In such courses "Source attribution and acknowledgement and the avoidance of plagiarism are all emphasised."

According to participant responses, instruction on the avoidance of plagiarism often included examples of both correct and incorrect acknowledgement of source materials. Students would also be asked to criticise badly written academic papers. Some respondents also mentioned general university guidelines or department policy statements and handbooks and also department seminars conducted on research techniques and academic writing.

Supervisors and tutors were another source of guidance to students in helping them to avoid plagiarism and in initiating them into academic writing. Others stated that students with major problems were referred to the university language centre/institute for assistance with academic writing and statements were also made to the effect that writing assignments were structured to help students avoid plagiarism.

Only several said that no type of instruction was given on avoiding plagiarism, for example saying that it was expected that students' writing ability should be such that no further input would be required from the department. The students should be ready to begin the course without further training. As one respondent put it: "We have to assume that their competence in English is at a level that requires no further input from us."
2.2.3.6.5 Writing Difficulties of NNS Students

According to these respondents the main difficulties students faced in their English academic writing were time constraints and English proficiency. 11 (20%) respondents mentioned time as being a factor in student difficulty. This is evident in the following responses:

Some students take considerable time to complete their assignments which detracts from other work.

We allow more time in examinations than for all-English language capability (same time for all students).

They face time constraints since it takes them very much longer than native speakers. At a minimum many [NS students] write two essays for every one they [NNS students] submit.

Time. Their work is often well produced but it takes a lot of time.

Main difficulty is unseen, time-limited examinations—virtually impossible if not perfectly fluent in written English.

Most face time problems since they write much more slowly than native speakers, and have frequent recourse to dictionaries.

Exam pressures show up weaknesses; students who can communicate orally sometimes go to pieces in a time-constrained exam paper.

16 respondents (30%) mentioned proficiency as a difficulty in student writing. Knowing "whether problems lie with reading comprehension, intelligence, or writing ability" is a difficult problem faced by course co-ordinators. "Local problems of organising material, paragraphing and sentence structure" were problems that came out in responses. Problems such as these are perhaps why one respondent felt that "In the end all texts need to be edited by a native English speaker."

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64 Responses from these course co-ordinators corroborate the similar findings in the student questionnaire responses that time is an important explanatory variable.
65 This statement is quite accurate. Except for the most proficient L2 writers, ESL students generally produce English writing which is recognisable as having been produced by a non-native speaker. Students are aware of the non-native characteristics of their writing, and a way of ensuring that their writing is more native-like, other than paying an L1 editor, is to copy published source text.
Lack of confidence in their own writing ability was also brought up. Students are "reluctant to alter words from a reference" and instead they often "attempt to incorporate 'chunks' of text from references and join them together unchanged." However, not many will "successfully link these [chunks] up with their own words" as one participant explained. 66

Some respondents (5) felt that in their particular MSc courses, there were few problems since TOEFL and IELTS standards were strictly enforced and any problems that did occur were not much different than those faced by native speakers. Respondents' trouble with students who lacked confidence in L2 writing skills was that they had to constantly encourage students to write in their own words. Radical paraphrase is a daunting challenge for developing writers who feel safest with synonym substitution and copying. Many developing L2 writers lack the confidence to use their own wording. As one respondent said, "we say 'change the words but not the meaning' but it takes courage!"

Several gave unspecific responses, simply stating that students did have difficulties and some simply felt that general writing skills were a problem.

2.2.3.6.6 Cases of Textual Appropriation

Questions 6 and 7 approached one of the main purposes in conducting this questionnaire—finding out the details of derivation/plagiarism cases which respondents had encountered. The intention was to follow up on any leads in order to obtain student texts to analyse. In question 6 respondents were asked if they had encountered student appropriation of text within the past 5 years, and they were asked for brief details of such cases in question 7.

Out of the 53 participants, 19 (36%) said that they had not encountered appropriation of text among their NNS students. 34 participants (64%) said that they had encountered appropriation activity among their NNS students. Details respondents gave were usually brief anecdotal type of accounts, and some gave

66 These are compelling comments on recontextualisation difficulties.
definite indication that they did not want to discuss any of these cases, saying for example "No [details available]. The information is confidential" or "I cannot divulge details" or "I do not wish to discuss any of the above." Such participants did not give a name or telephone number for the current researcher to contact them.67

With the others who did give case details and telephone numbers, attempts were made to follow up on cases and obtain student texts and further case details. For 5 cases the current researcher was able to obtain the details and texts which were needed for the case analysis aspect of this project.68 A number of leads, however, were dead ends. Many respondents no longer had student texts— they had been lost or returned to students after rewriting and resubmission of derivative work by students. Other promising leads yielded disappointing results. A lead at St. Andrew's University came to nothing when a respondent would not answer letters or return telephone calls after an initially promising conversation with the head of one of the schools. Another case was in the middle of a judicial appeal process at Dundee University, a case in which the department concerned had recommended expulsion of a NNS who appropriated text. The course co-ordinator wanted to wait until the case was settled before releasing any information.69

The cases for which it was possible to obtain details and student texts involved various types of appropriation in an MSc dissertation, in course projects, and in time-limited take-home exams. In several of these cases there was more than one instance of appropriation by students in several different projects. The analysis of all of these cases and instances of textual appropriation are presented in Appendix C (p 177). In addition to these cases, there were some interesting anecdotal accounts of student derivation and plagiarism.

67 However, the questionnaires had been coded before being mailed to study participants, so at the very least it could be determined how many questionnaires had been returned from each institution.
68 See Appendix C (p 177) for the full report on these cases.
69 The current researcher's three years in residence at Edinburgh ended, and after returning to America to take up a teaching post, no further attempts were made to follow up on this case.
For instance, one respondent mentioned a Taiwanese student who "didn't seem to understand that he was supposed to advance his own thoughts." Another spoke of a current student who was a master of plagiarism. His spoken and written English is atrocious but his essays are models of style. He is very bright and admits he copies out appropriate sentences to construct an answer . . . he will eventually be a good research student [if he learns how to avoid plagiarism!] when he passes his taught MSc.70

Others said that cases of textual appropriation do "occur frequently but they tend to be minor (e.g. small paragraphs), and they are usually done with attribution." Incorrect acknowledgement as described here seems to be a common feature of both L1 and L2 derivation/plagiarism by developing writers. Others mentioned both "simple plagiarism" and more serious plagiarism such as "copying large chunks of text with and without attribution." Respondents also commented on how textual appropriation is often identified: "the quality of English has suddenly improved markedly, then deteriorated again; further investigation has revealed unacknowledged lifting of material from English language sources." Here the respondent has brought up writing style contrasts between entire projects of a student. In other instances, the contrast in text language was a recontextualisation problem occurring within only one student project, there being marked differences between the style of the lifted text and the style of the student text: "It [appropriation of text] is more obvious in the poorer English ability students than the good ones since the plagiarised text has a significantly different quality to that of the students own material" said one respondent. Another remarked that "it [appropriation of text] is most obvious when the style of writing changes."71 For students with enough "luck", instances of questionable use of source material are "spotted early on in draft and the matter discussed with the student."

Otherwise, students can become involved in a lengthy process of investigation of their

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70 Statements such as these to the effect that ESL students copy in order to express their own preconceptualised ideas are a reoccurring theme in discussions of derivation/plagiarism by NNSs. Such recontextualisation problems are also features of L1 texts. L1 writers may also have trouble recontextualising lifted material which in turn gives away their plagiarism. See Murphy (1990).
written work, both recent and current projects, if they are suspected of having plagiarised. Even if students are cleared of academic dishonesty, these investigations can hold up completion of their course of study, and students must postpone their graduation and career plans if an investigation occurs near the end of an academic year.

Borderline students were mentioned by respondents "whose appropriation of text has been because they have not been capable of doing anything else." With this type of appropriation, leniency tends to be the result, whereas in cases where the student is capable of producing satisfactory English academic prose, deceit may be suspected which makes examiners much less likely to deal leniently when it seems that the student was capable of properly acknowledging source materials, but consciously chose not to do so.

Another anecdotal case involved a Sri Lankan student who copied from a book written by one of his examiners. The respondent was involved in an appeal against the refusal to award him a PhD and "the problem involved non-attributed quotations from a book written by an examiner, to which the individual in question took exception."
Another anecdote mentioned was an instance of cheating. It was not an instance of plagiarism or derivation, but it was a case of an ESL student attempting to compensate for the limited amount of time given to write an exam essay. It appears that faced with the time limitations imposed by exam situations, a student opted for a strategy of writing exam responses on his own time, rather than facing the uncertainty of being able to produce an appropriate response in a limited time period. It was a strange case involving a Korean student who was found to be cheating by writing 'fair summary' answers in refill examination books which he smuggled into the examination room and exchanged for the blank books he was given. This represented a curious misunderstanding of what was required for a first class degree since the answers were highly impressive resumes on a given topic, which could be predicted, but did not answer the specific question, which could not be predicted.

In another case an Italian student had plagiarised in writing a paper on mediaeval literature. Her supervisor said that "she confessed to finding herself daunted by the standard required and aimed for." Several commented on the extensive number of derivation/plagiarism cases which they had encountered over the years. One did not give any details in his questionnaire response since he had so many NNS overseas students that it would not be "possible [to give details] without a great deal of work." Another said "It [appropriation of text] goes on to one degree or another the whole time." Another anecdotal account involved appropriation of another student's diploma project: "Student A from a college in England lent his diploma project to an MSc student B. B was awarded the MSc. When A became a student in our course and read B's MSc dissertation he claimed that 'large' parts were copied from his diploma project dissertation." This seemed to be one of the more serious derivation/plagiarism cases mentioned by respondents.

One respondent thought that "All students at the entry level tend to copy to be sure they've the information correct!" and that "Native speakers are probably worse" when it comes to plagiarism. Along similar lines, some respondents were not aware

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72 This is a thought-provoking speculation which may have some validity.
of plagiarism by NNSs, but they had encountered instances of lifting and copying by British students including a student who copied "a previously submitted Economics essay" and a student "who copied a chapter of a textbook."73

2.2.3.6.7 Advice in Dealing with Apparent Plagiarism by NNS Students

Advice given by respondents for dealing with appropriation of text by NNSs was very similar to that given by students themselves. There were those who saw cultural background as irrelevant, and there were those who saw it as providing some explanation of--but no excuse for--unacknowledged appropriation of text. As with the students, knowledge about the rules and conventions for acknowledging sources was seen to be very important, mentioned by 12 participants (22%). This was the most common trend in participant advice. Several felt that there should be no difference in handling NNS and NES appropriation of text. Further instruction and resubmission of an assignment was seen as an appropriate penalty by many respondents, provided the case was not a serious one. For example if the appropriation occurred in one of the first written projects in a course, as opposed to a final project at the end of the course, respondents felt that a student should be permitted to resubmit.

As far as cultural background is concerned, one respondent said that "The cultural background of the university takes precedence" and that "NNS students should be inducted into scholarly procedures and the expectations of a Scottish university culture." Another said "Plagiarism should be penalised, as it is already a wrong thing to do, irrespective of the cultural background!"74 If the student had been instructed in academic conventions for acknowledging sources, the common view was that "the cultural background should not play a large part in any consideration or action." Below are some other views expressed on cultural background:

73 This copying of a textbook chapter is quite similar to what Student C in Case 3 did. Refer to Appendix C (app 3.5, p 262).
74 This view was similar to views expressed by many students who felt that cultural background was irrelevant. They expressed the view that in any culture, theft is regarded with disdain, as reflected in an Ownership ethical orientation.
The cultural background may help to explain, but not excuse, plagiarism.

Cultural background is a relevant factor but so too is the intention to deceive.

The student needs to be educated as to the way it is done here.

Yet another respondent felt that since instruction was given in pre-sessional EAP courses with cultural differences being acknowledged, then "students should be aware of the significance of plagiarism by the time they come to writing their assignments."

Knowledge was important to both students and MSc course co-ordinators in deciding how to deal with appropriation of text. One respondent asked "how systematic was the information provided to the student?" and another stated that "all" students were asked to conform to the "very clear outlines on plagiarism." Another queried whether "the student actually underst[ood] what plagiarism means." Another said "As long as they are informed at the beginning of their course that this is not acceptable they should be treated no differently than UK students" while another felt that the type of instruction was important: "Have they had proper briefing and opportunity for discussion early on?--Not just in UK 'regulation' language, but a straightforward practical account of why it matters?" Several mentioned the need for handling cases "firmly but sensitively."

Plagiarism as a survival strategy was mentioned by several respondents. Students of "poor quality" who "should not have been admitted in the first place" may resort to appropriation of text if overwhelmed by the demands of the course. Given the difficulty in ascertaining true student ability and language proficiency from overseas, coupled with the "immense family or government pressure to return home with the sought after qualifications" and the desire to avoid "loss of face" which failure would cause, it is very easy to see why one respondent said that "almost all [NNS] plagiarists are forced to practice it to survive."75

75 The stereotype of orientals as having particular problems with derivation/plagiarism is invalid since students from other backgrounds employ derivation as a strategy as well, but "loss of face" may
Intent of the student was seen as important to a number of respondents who advocated an "interview with the student to establish intent." Others expressed the importance of "catching the problem early--from the first assignment." And others felt quite confident in their ability to catch unacknowledged appropriation of text in the early stages saying "Any such case would not get to the stage of examination; the work would be returned to the student." Another exclaimed "It would not get that far!"

2.2.3.7 Summary and Conclusions

The central questions of this project relate to the reasons ESL students are perceived to be persistent plagiarists and the variables which are involved in derivation/plagiarism by non-native speakers. The information provided by these MSc course co-ordinators solidifies the theory that ESL students are perceived to be persistent plagiarists because many of them do in fact appropriate text without acknowledgment. 34 respondents, or 64% reported that they had encountered derivation/plagiarism by ESL students. But from participant responses, it also becomes clear that many ESL students are excellent writers and "gifted students" who demonstrate "spoken and written English of a very high quality" as one course co-ordinator put it. One key concept that emerges from both the student and MScCCQ responses is that ESL students are at varying levels of development in their academic writing. Some are more proficient than others in their L2 writing skills, while some are of such borderline L2 proficiency that they need perhaps several more years of intensive English preparation before they would be ready for a postgraduate level course with an English medium of instruction. It may be that the students who have serious problems with their EAW are a cause of the mis-perception that most ESL students are persistent plagiarists. Some teachers might tend to relate problems encountered with a minority of students to the entire ESL student population. Such a mis-perception is not supported by the overall questionnaire results, although be a particularly important influence in cases involving students from Far Eastern countries.
several in this MScCCQ population did seem to be of the mindset that sees ESL students as nothing but thieves of texts and pilferers of published academic prose. Some course co-ordinators, however, had a more balanced view, seeing many similarities between L1 and L2 writers. They realised too, that other variables were involved besides outright deception, but they were hesitant to excuse derivation and plagiarism solely on the basis of cultural background alone.

Explanatory variables featured in participant responses as important considerations which must be addressed in case of derivation/plagiarism involving ESL students. Knowledge of convention was mentioned by just under a quarter of respondents as an important variable, and plagiarism as a survival strategy was also mentioned by respondents. Proficiency in the L2 was also seen to be important since a number of course co-ordinators expressed the view that students should be at a level of English proficiency which required no further input by the department. Students should be ready to handle the academic writing tasks assigned in their course of study. Others more realistically recognised that ESL students would need assistance of some sort, and some were even willing to provide the extensive input and guidance necessary for some students to write well. University language centres/institutes were seen as the main resource for struggling students with 68% of these respondents mentioning language centre/institute tutelage as a form of assistance available to ESL students. Over a quarter of respondents mentions assistance available within their departments, but some made it clear that such assistance was limited.

Instructional background was also mentioned as a variable. Students from commonwealth countries who had a background of English as the medium of instruction were seen to have fewer problems with their academic writing, but

76 Knowledge was the most commonly mentioned variable.
77 Although these course co-ordinators saw university language centres/institutes as an important resource, the EAP specialist responses reveal a lack of communication between language centre/institute staff and departments. EAP specialists indicated that they rarely received reports on struggling L2 writers who had gone through their presessional EAP courses. It seems that a better liaison is needed between course co-ordinators and university language centres/institutes if ESL students are to receive maximum benefit from the L2 writing resource most frequently mentioned by MScCCQ participants.
students from other countries were frequently mentioned as exhibiting lower proficiency in English and a poorer quality of L2 English academic prose.

Finally, these responses give further support to the variables of Time and Lack of Confidence which emerged in the student questionnaire as possibly important variables. Students were described as extremely limited by time-constrained writing tasks. Some students fell to pieces if a time limit was involved, and some resorted to cheating in order to circumvent the time limitation, attempting to smuggle pre-composed essays into the exam room to exchange them for the exam booklets. Other students were described as lacking the courage to write on their own and depart from the copying from source texts and insertion of "chunks" of source language into their own essays. Such insertion of language "chunks", as proposed by respondents, results in recontextualisation problems which are easily noticed by evaluators.

As was the case with the student questionnaire results, there is a degree of congruence of the MScCCQ responses with the established explanatory variables for L2 writing problems. There is also a congruence with the student questionnaire results in that both study populations have stressed the importance of the additional explanatory variables of Time and Lack of Confidence.
2.2.4 EAP Specialist Questionnaire

2.2.4.1 Introduction

In conducting the EAP specialist questionnaire, input from those who are associated with the university language institutes/centres was seen to be important. EAP specialists are the people to whom MSc staff refer struggling students for writing assistance. Many of these specialists are course directors in university pre-sessional EAP courses. Some are EAP writing tutors teaching full or part-time in pre-sessional and in-sessional EAP courses while others are university lecturers on specialised EAP topics. Generally, these EAP specialists had interesting and knowledgeable perspectives to offer. Some respondents referred the current researcher to articles on the topic of derivation/plagiarism, and several respondents had written on the current research topic themselves (e.g. Fanning 1992). The perspectives of these EAP respondents represent an important source of data to compare with the responses of ESL students and MSc course co-ordinators.

2.2.4.2 Participants and Procedure

From a list of current (1995/96) members of the British Association of Lecturers in English for Academic Purposes (BALEAP) 50 members were randomly selected to whom a questionnaire was sent, along with a self-addressed stamped envelope for them to return the questionnaire. 27 members responded to the questionnaire yielding a return rate of 54%.

2.2.4.3 The Questionnaire

Since the advice of EAP specialists was being sought, the questionnaire was adapted accordingly (refer ahead several pages for copy of questionnaire). Question 1 sought respondent views on differences there might be between plagiarism among NESs versus plagiarism among non-native speakers of English. In question 2, as in the student and MSc course co-ordinator questionnaires, advice was sought on how respondents felt a case of suspected plagiarism involving a NNS should be dealt with. And in question 3 respondents were asked for possible reasons that NNS students were perceived to be persistent plagiarists. Question 4 was designed to elicit
information on how respondents dealt with the issue of plagiarism at their institution, for example in their pre-sessional EAP courses. And in question 5, information was sought on NNS student reactions to instruction on plagiarism. Respondents were asked for typical responses of ESL students, for example whether students see plagiarism as a novel concept, or whether they agree that it is "wrong" and unacceptable. In question 6, brief details were sought about any cases of plagiarism or appropriation of text which respondents were aware of, which had occurred among students who had gone through pre-sessional courses. In question 7 respondent views were sought on whether English language proficiency was an important variable in cases of derivation/plagiarism involving NNSs. Finally, respondents were asked for their name, professional status, institutional affiliation, and telephone number/email address in order to follow up on information given in questionnaire responses. The questionnaire and accompanying letter used in surveying EAP specialists are presented on the following pages.
14 August 1996

BALEAP Member
Institution Address

Dear BALEAP Member:

As part of my research toward the PhD in Applied Linguistics I am investigating some of the academic writing difficulties faced by non-native speakers (NNS) of English who are undertaking taught courses in the UK. I am especially interested in writing difficulties related to plagiarism.

I would be extremely grateful if you would complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me in the accompanying self-addressed stamped envelope (or alternatively pass it along to be completed by a colleague who might be more knowledgeable in this area). Your responses to this brief questionnaire will help me immensely in my work, and I am hopeful that you will help contribute to our understanding of challenges faced by NNS overseas students in adapting to academic life in the UK.

I look forward to hearing from you. Thank you in advance for your assistance.

Sincerely,

John P. Lesko
PhD researcher in Applied Linguistics

1 These accompanying letters were personally addressed to questionnaire respondents.
Questionnaire on Non-native Writing in English and Academic Plagiarism

Instructions: The following questions are of the free-response type. Please respond as you feel appropriate, using extra sheets of paper as necessary.

1. Do you believe that there is any difference between plagiarism among native speakers versus plagiarism among non-native speakers? If so, what are some of these differences?

2. What advice would you give to a course administrator on a case of suspected plagiarism involving a non-native speaking student? Should the cultural background of the student be considered? What factors should the administrator take into consideration prior to making a decision on the case?

3. What are some possible reasons that non-native speaking students are perceived by many Western instructors to be persistent plagiarists?

4. How do you deal with this issue of plagiarism in pre-session courses for NNSs at your institution? (Note: I would be grateful for copies of any materials or handouts you use in teaching students about plagiarism)

5. What is the typical reaction of students to instruction on plagiarism? For example, is it a novel concept for most of them? Do they agree that plagiarism is 'wrong'?
6. Do you ever hear about cases of plagiarism that occur later in the year with students that have gone through your pre-session courses? If so, could you give any brief details about such cases?

7. Is English language proficiency an important variable in plagiarism among NNSs?

Additionally, the following information would be helpful for me to get in touch with you regarding any questions I might have about your responses:

a. name and professional status

b. institutional affiliation

c. telephone number/email

Sincere thanks for your assistance,

John P. Lesko
PhD researcher
Applied Linguistics
University of Edinburgh
2.2.4.4 Results

2.2.4.4.1 Differences Between Apparent Plagiarism Involving NES Writers and Apparent Plagiarism Involving NNS Writers

Responses given included a number of categories why unacknowledged appropriation of text by NNS writers might be different from unacknowledged appropriation of text by NS writers. Different cultural attitudes, different academic conventions in home country, proficiency related factors, misunderstanding or lack of knowledge on avoiding plagiarism, and NNS student difficulty in covering up appropriation of text as skillfully as NESs--these were some of the main ideas brought out in responses.

The most common difference, mentioned by 10 respondents (37%) was that unacknowledged appropriation of text by non-native writers was easier to spot, not as covert as appropriation by more linguistically skilled native speakers. One respondent said "Overt plagiarism may be more common among NNS." Another said that NNS students "conceal it less skilfully" and another respondent felt that "Native speakers are better at it! They are more able to disguise it in usage." In another respondent's view the "major stylistic variations" in a NNS student text involving lifted source material, make it harder for a non-native writer to "plagiarise and get away with it." Commenting on why such NNS appropriation of text is more easily spotted, one EAP specialist said that such lifted text is usually more readily noticeable (esp. to an EAP teacher) than NS plagiarism, because the links between plagiarised sections often contain linguistic errors or inappropriate forms/style. Furthermore, the plagiarised sections may contain irrelevant information/discussion, because the NNS plagiarist could not clearly understand the message.

Native speakers were seen as "far better equipped to disguise their plagiarism" and able to do it "more successfully." With a NNS student text "the language of it [lifted material] stands in stark contrast to the preceding or proceeding [student] text." Native speakers may have more of a sense of relevance when selecting text to lift, being "more judicious in selecting what to plagiarise" whereas NNSs may be
lifting text that they do not even understand, perhaps being accustomed to simply copying a text even if it has not been understood.  

The next most common trend in participant responses was the mentioning of language proficiency related problems which might lead students to appropriate text. 7 participants (26%) mentioned such factors. Respondents commented on "NNS inability to express ideas/concepts adequately in L2" which leads to reproducing "passages for fear of making conceptual errors." Such reproduction of a text rather than reformulation of a text was viewed as an attempt "to compensate for language weaknesses." Irrelevance in student texts was seen as one possible sign of plagiarism since the NNS might not understand what he/she read: "the plagiarised sections may contain irrelevant information/discussion, because the NNS plagiarist could not clearly understand the message." Unacknowledged appropriation of text was seen as more likely to be a result of "simple linguistic inadequacy" than "intellectual dishonesty."

Cultural attitudes and backgrounds were mentioned by 6 participants (22%), and were seen as a possible difference between NNS and NS appropriation of text. As one said, "Certainly the Eastern culture with their respect for authority, teacher and the written word tend to allow plagiarism." Another suggested that "some non-native speakers regard borrowing material as a work of respect." Another put it this way: "Some cultures do not have the same attitude towards unacknowledged use of a source, for example students may admire an original source and see little point in trying to regurgitate it in another form." This respect for the written word seemed to be the most common cultural attitude brought up by respondents. Reverence for the word itself, and the authority who spoke the word were seen as implicit in this attitude: "Students from near and middle eastern and also East Asian cultures tend to 'lift' chunks of text in the belief that they could not express the idea(s) contained as well as the writer/authority. This reverence for the written/published word is deeply

78 EAP specialists gave some of the most insightful comments on recontextualisation problems faced by ESL students who appropriate text. This is a key reason that ESL students may be perceived to be persistent plagiarists. They cannot conceal their derivation as skillfully as L1 writers.
ingrained in their academic culture/background." The view held by respondents was that NNS students would not want to "desecrate the venerable original." Seeing the "printed word as sacred", the appropriate thing to do is to "simply replicate" rather than reformulate an admired text. Differing academic conventions were also mentioned:

Non-native speakers may come from a cultural background where the concept of intellectual property plus its obverse plagiarism is not reflected in the academic background reading they have received. Citation and attribution are known through textbook observation only.

Several respondents felt that there might be "a tendency to reiterate material directly from sources because of academic conventions in home countries." Lack of confidence in L2 ability, related to proficiency, was mentioned also. One respondent felt that "A common reason [NNS students appropriate text] may be lack of confidence ... hence unacknowledged passages are reproduced for fear of making conceptual errors." Another EAP specialist felt that "NNS students are forced to resort to plagiarism through lack of confidence in linguistic resources."

Lack of knowledge or misunderstanding of conventions was another common reason (mentioned by 5 participants or 18%) mentioned to explain NNS textual appropriation, but several pointed out that this applies to NS students as well:

There is also a belief (both NS and NNS) that changing a few words in a passage means they are not plagiarising or that as long the author is mentioned somewhere in their writing, as much of the original text as is required can be reproduced without acknowledgement.

This suggests that the principle of 'Honesty' in academic writing or its parameters are not understood or that the amount of unacknowledged direct quotation that is permissible is not understood by students, i.e. they may not realize that quoting (within limits) is acceptable as long as it is properly acknowledged.

79 These views expressed by EAP respondents regarding respect for the written word and the "venerable original" were not mentioned by students.
As this respondent has said, this reason applies equally to NNS and NS students. Both may not "appreciate the importance of acknowledgement of sources" and "not understand fully" the academic conventions of source acknowledgement. 

Similar to the "just plain badness" view of why NS students plagiarise held by one MSc course co-ordinator, several EAP specialists felt that "NSs (NESs) do it intentionally, hoping not to be found out, whereas NNSs do it unintentionally—either because of their cultural background or because of poor language proficiency." Along similar lines, another said "NSs (NESs) presumably are aware that what they are doing is wrong, while NNSs are often totally unaware." And several also felt that although there were some differences between NS and NNS appropriation of text, these differences were not significant. As one respondent put it: "I am not certain that there are significant differences—the main one is probably that NS are far better equipped to disguise their plagiarism than NNS."

### 2.2.4.4.2 Advice for Dealing with Apparent Plagiarism Involving NNS

Knowledge about avoiding plagiarism was by far the most important consideration for these respondents, mentioned by nearly all of them (24 or 88%). Cultural considerations, proficiency, and other general considerations were also brought up.

As far as knowledge about avoiding plagiarism is concerned, respondents saw it important to talk with the student "to determine if the topic of plagiarism has been part of their pre-sessional (or other) course." If "the student had any teaching on this subject on a pre-sessional course... [and] the subject teacher had made it plain that plagiarism is not acceptable", the prevailing view was that the case should not be treated much differently from NES cases.

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80 Respondent comments up to this point reveal that EAP specialists perceive knowledge and instructional background to be common reasons why both L1 and L2 writers lift text. However, L2 proficiency is strictly an L2 writing variable.

81 There was a tendency by these EAP specialists to glibly cite "cultural background" whereas student respondents were much more specific, relating cultural background to the differing institutional/educational background and to the lower level of L2 proficiency.
Pre-sessional writing was seen as an important "trial-run" situation in which students would have opportunity to practically apply instruction they had received. "Parameters of British academic culture" were acknowledged as not being universal, and differences with other cultures should, in respondent views, be dealt with in pre-sessional courses. Deducting marks, or even giving a zero on a pre-sessional writing assignment if unacknowledged textual appropriation were to occur, was seen as an important "warning that could prevent plagiarism when consequences would be more serious." 82

Also seen as important was the educational context of the behaviour, for example, if the appropriation occurred in "an assessed piece of writing and at what level", or if it was "the first occurrence of plagiarism at a particular stage in a course. e.g., the submission of the first course assignment." Respondents felt that the best measures were preventative, making academic acknowledgement conventions "clear at the outset", making sure "that all international students are briefed and shown clear examples of what is and what isn't plagiarism in UK academic culture from the start." In the ideal situation, if questionable appropriation does occur, it should be "spotted by tutors and supervisors before final drafts are submitted and the student at this point should be directed to take the appropriate action to avoid plagiarism." Not only is this beneficial for the student since there is opportunity to revise with correct acknowledgement before assessment, but also the student cannot "claim a lack of supervision/guidance" and entangle everyone in appeal processes and so on. Looking at a student's other written work was seen by respondents as another way to get an idea of how much the student knows, and an important question is "Was source material acknowledged correctly in other works?" If the "rules" had been "made very clear beforehand", and the student had demonstrated knowledge of proper acknowledgement in other written work, one respondent felt that "stern measures are in everyones' interest." However, interviewing in a "sensitive manner to ascertain if a

82 Both MSc course co-ordinators and EAP specialists place great emphasis on the value of these presessional EAP courses.
student was actually aware of what he/she was doing" was seen as important. Establishing how much a student knew about avoiding plagiarism does indeed require tact and sensitivity.

If knowledge or misunderstanding about plagiarism was the problem, respondents suggested tutorials and writing sessions to help the student. In these sessions, rewriting the student text could be supervised, or if the entire text had been lifted, another writing assignment could be done from scratch. Rewriting under "test conditions" was another suggestion. English language teaching courses such as those in pre-sessional programmes, were seen as an important "opportunity to work on the problem without punishment at this stage."

Cultural background was seen as relevant in giving some insight into why the student did what he/she did, but this was not seen as a justification: "The cultural background of the student may explain why he or she has plagiarised but does not excuse it, unless it can be demonstrated that the student had not been made aware of British academic norms."

There is great difficulty however, in considering cultural factors, as one respondent put it: "which cultures for example are affected more than others?" Similarly, another EAP specialist said "it would be difficult, and open the department to charges of racial discrimination if some nationalities are come down on and others not." There was also the view expressed that "Cultural background should be irrelevant if student has been properly briefed and staff have ensured comprehension."

Proficiency was another variable brought up again by respondents, who thought it necessary to consider the language level of the student and his/her "general language competency." The extent of appropriated text was another important consideration, mentioned by several EAP specialists, as was the timing of such appropriation, for example, it if occurred at the beginning or end of a course. One specialist recommended that "In the early stages of a course of study some tolerance is advisable." And finally, one respondent commented on each case being unique, requiring one to exercise sound judgement and discretion.
2.2.4.4.3 Possible Reasons NNS Students Are Perceived by Instructors to be Persistent Plagiarists

Deckert (1993) has written on the problem of "English as a Second Language (ESL) students in settings of higher education" being "frequently viewed by Western instructors as persistent plagiarizers." Since this perception of ESL students was a central focus of the research, it seemed appropriate in this EAP specialist questionnaire to ask respondents for their views on why this perception of ESL students exists.

Answers to this question were similar to response categories that came out in the first two questions, participants sometimes referring back to their responses to question 1 or 2. Cultural and educational attitudes, lack of confidence in L2 ability, and language proficiency were common reasons respondents gave to explain why NNSs might be perceived as persistent plagiarists.

A "deeply ingrained reverence for the written/published word" was mentioned again, as were "different ideas about ownership of text" and "attitudes to academic authority." Respondents viewed some students as seeing what is written in the book as always right and written "in the best possible way." Another called this attitude the "worship of the printed word." Certain cultural attitudes were seen as stifling originality, resulting in students having a "lack of independent thinking on own." This view is evident in the following statement:

Students from some non-European cultures have not been trained in critical thought and the process of reviewing the literature (with acknowledgement) and then putting forward their view of the literature—lack of independent thinking on own.
Others said that for some NNS students "the only way of expressing something" was to "reuse what they see as being chunks of useful language." The view that cultures which "encourage students to learn by heart" reinforce tendencies to appropriate text was held by some respondents. Others mentioned educational practices "where rote learning, copying and use of other people's work are acceptable and even flattering to the original author" and reflect the "well known influence of the Koran." Another mentioned that "Students brought up in a rote learning system are not encouraged to have their own opinions and sometimes feel that they must copy from sources just as they would regurgitate the teacher's own words in an exam at home." Following a model of good writing is a common way of learning to write in many educational or cultural traditions, but there is always the "temptation to go beyond following a model and actually incorporate it into their own work."

"Preferring the safety of repetition of accepted knowledge" was a reason given (in an institutional brochure on teaching overseas students to which a respondent referred) to explain NNS hesitation to be independent and original, as well as critical of established views. Several felt that "Western instructors need instructing themselves" on cultural attitudes and "educational attitudes of NNS students and divergence from their own." The Chinese seem to be the favourite culture to mention when discussing why NNS struggle with plagiarism, as one specialist said:

"Plagiarism may have been something which was totally accepted-writing in their L1. Chinese students in China would do this without acknowledging sources as this would suggest that they suspected their readers or professors of being ignorant!"

However, some respondents stressed that "plenty of Western NNSs do it too!" It was not just Far Easterners, but also European students who "often believe that their main task is to give back the material taught to them."
Lack of confidence in L2 ability was again brought out by respondents as a possible reason for NNS appropriation of text, resulting in the perception that they are persistent plagiarists. According to respondents, textual appropriation may be due to "Lack of confidence in their [NNS students] ability to phrase ideas and concepts clearly, succinctly and/or accurately." One respondent referred the current researcher to a booklet on teaching overseas students. In this booklet the view was expressed that given the common ESL student's "Lack of personal confidence ... it is not surprising that the weaker ones prefer to rely on material learnt parrot fashion."

Others gave similar views:

Non-native speakers lack confidence in their own work and feel more secure if they borrow from elsewhere.

The NNS may be concerned with making mistakes and therefore find the original text the easiest way to produce correct language.

NNS students particularly from non-European backgrounds [83] may be anxious and under-confident of their own writing skills and therefore model their writing too closely on established authors. Uncertainty over how well they have understood both task and materials may lead them to play safe and use sources with minimal independent interpretation.84

Proficiency, closely related to a lack of confidence in L2 ability, was also mentioned. Respondents saw "comprehension problems" and "failure to really understand and synthesise different sources" as variables in many instances of textual appropriation. One respondent said that "most students, unsure of their ability in English, may revert to copying sentences, paragraphs." And another said "We also cannot be unrealistic about language levels-some students, Erasmus [European student exchange programme] and others, do not have the language skills necessary and have no option but to copy large chunks."

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83 Eurocentrism was evident in some responses. But Sherman (1992) and St. John (1987) offer evidence that European background L2 writers are also "anxious and under-confident of their own writing skills."

84 These numerous comments on under-confidence or lack of confidence strengthen the theory that this is an important explanatory variable in explaining derivation/plagiarism in ESL contexts.
Knowledge was also brought up again. "Confusion regarding the conventions of quoting/referencing/use of footnotes and associated academic writing skills mechanics" might be the case in some appropriation of text, or in other words there might be a "lack of understanding of what is required of them" or a "lack of training." Other respondents saw "insufficient acquaintance with useful models" as the cause of misunderstanding or confusion regarding acknowledgement conventions.

Several others brought up again in response to this question the view that appropriation by NNS is easy to spot, as illustrated below:

Because there will be a greater mismatch between the student's own written ability and that of the author quoted, so plagiarism may be easier to spot than in native speaker writing. Plagiarised passages tend to be longer with NNS (though NS often plagiarise extensively) and NNS probably have less skill in making links between their own and plagiarised work, so plagiarised passages stand out more noticeably as 'odd' or don't 'fit' the grammatical or situational context into which they are inserted.

Because "they have encountered it [textual appropriation] more frequently from NNS students" instructors may perceive NNS students to be more persistent plagiarists than "NS students who cover up their appropriation better."

In evaluating responses of these EAP specialists, it seemed that ESL students are sometimes caught in a "no-win" situation, a type of "Heads I win, tails you lose" scenario. The less proficient NNS may be suspected of appropriating text to cover up his/her poor language proficiency. But respondents also advised that the more proficient NNS may also be suspect! For example, "a NNS who writes very well or who gets their work proofread may be suspected of writing something which sounds too good." NNS students may be suspected of plagiarising if "Their English is weak, yet they hand in well-written assignments." These were some of the ideas brought up by EAP specialists as to why NNSs might be seen as persistent plagiarists.
2.2.4.4.4 How the Issue of Plagiarism is Dealt with in Pre-sessional EAP Courses

Through question 4 the issue of how plagiarism is addressed in pre-sessional EAP courses was investigated. Most respondents indicated that class discussion of the topic, examples, and exercises were how they presented this issue to students. Some introduced sessions on plagiarism by asking students what they thought of it. According to respondents nearly all students in these sessions thought that plagiarism was unacceptable and that it should not be done.

Opportunity was given for "students [to] share their countries' views on the topic which broadens the issue." Also "examples of previous students' work" were seen as a valuable teaching tool. Student exercises mentioned by respondents included producing "evidence from their own department library of texts that are subject-specific and in which they can identify examples of attribution/citation/reference/quotation." After illustrating unacknowledged appropriation of text with "extracts of past students' work where they have plagiarised" some respondents had students complete a writing assignment, and then "hand in photocopied sections of their sources with their work." This way instructors could evaluate student use of source material. Encouraging reformulation of source text material as well as reinforcing summary/paraphrase skills were seen as valuable exercises. Systematic instruction, or a "drip-feed" approach was seen necessary by some respondents to ensure that students understood how to avoid plagiarism.

Other pedagogical methods for teaching avoidance of plagiarism included encouraging students to be "selective in their reading" rather than relying too much on one text, encouraging students to learn "multiple text note" strategies "rather than following the structure of the text they are reading blindly." The rationale behind this pedagogy was that "This makes work more their own and they are less likely to plagiarise."
Building student confidence was another approach mentioned:

We try to make them more confident, responsible and in control. We try to persuade subject tutors to give credit for text organisation, structure and argument and to be more tolerant of language errors. If a student is able to produce a clear argument etc. then language problems become less intrusive and language errors often do mean students are at least attempting to use their own words, i.e. they can be seen as a positive developmental stage, provided students are in control of the structure and objectives of their written work.

Although some had developed their own handouts and teaching materials, others relied on published textbooks or materials developed by others. J. Trzeciak and S.E. Mackay's book *Study Skills for Academic Writing* (Prentice-Hall) seemed to be a favourite text with these EAP respondents. Exercises in this text were mentioned as "excellent exercises" for use in pre-sessional EAP courses.

One respondent mentioned an approach using an explanation of the topic in both the L1 and English, a useful approach that would work if there are large numbers of speakers of a particular language in a course: "We have a statement/explanation in English for all students and one in Japanese because we have so many Japanese students. This information is constantly backed up by teacher/student interaction."

Coming down hard on misuse of source texts was seen by some EAP specialists as essential to prevent future re-occurrence of unacknowledged textual appropriation after the pre-sessional course when it might land a student in serious trouble. One specialist said: "We stamp on it!! We make students aware of the fact that it is a very serious offence." Another said: "I land on any cases in course projects very heavily which, after the first drafts are usually altered for the final version." Similar to MSc course co-ordinators who saw the need for firmness and sensitivity, one EAP specialist said "A quiet chat with the offender can help—but tact is essential." Most felt that in the pre-sessional course it was very important to "monitor work with plagiarism in mind" and to give "straightforward explanation" when reviewing academic conventions for acknowledging source material.
2.2.4.4.5 NNS Student Reaction to Instruction on Plagiarism in Pre-sessional EAP Courses

Nearly all respondents indicated that for most NNS students in their pre-sessional courses plagiarism was not a novel concept. Most students had heard of it before, and agreed that it was something that should not be done. The following response is typical: "It is novel for some. Mostly they do think it is 'wrong'."

Another said that "they [NNSs] deplore it. Same thing other people do!" But this particular respondent also added, "However they do tend to employ the tactic!"

Another said "It is a novel concept for a few. Most recognise it is wrong but don't see it as a crucial issue." The issue becomes more important however, "Once they see referencing as a way of indicating reading research done for the purpose of writing (and getting some credit for choosing appropriate texts)." One respondent mentioned "overkill", students worrying so much about avoiding plagiarism that they feel "they have to hunt out primary source references" or wonder if "it's acceptable to quote x quoting y." One respondent related the story of a student who "became so anxious about not plagiarising that he included a friend's opinion in the footnote, 'As John said in the restaurant..!'"

Some respondents had interesting views and even stereotypical thinking it would seem. According to one such respondent, in the "Middle East and Indian sub-continent--plagiarism, copying, cheating in exams...is acceptable unless one is found out." This particular respondent gave a proverb in support of his views, "the cunning of foxes is highly rated" although it was unclear where this proverb was from.85 Another respondent said that "European students tend to be aware of plagiarism", whereas "Middle Eastern students look surprised and worried or 'shifty'! Far Eastern--inscrutable."

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85 In a seminar given on preliminary results of this research, another person expressed the similar view that in certain cultures stealing is "acceptable unless one is found out", but this seems to be the case in most cultures. Those who are caught stealing face socially-sanctioned penalties.
Reactions of the minority of ESL students for whom plagiarism is a novel concept include "Shock!"; "Surprise!"; "Amazement! Despair! Disbelief!"; "Dismay!" For those who did not completely understand the concept "convincing them that it is wrong and getting them to avoid it can take a long time (a whole summer)." Students such as these "mostly appreciate being told how to avoid synonym substitution", and properly acknowledge sources, and they "agree that plagiarism is culturally unacceptable in the UK, rather than morally wrong." They are "relieved to hear that they can quote, and always agree in theory at least, that it is wrong [to plagiarise]."

Although it is a novel concept for a minority, one respondent said "No one has ever spoken in favour of it [plagiarism]." In discussions of plagiarism it is common for questions to arise such as "how many words can be 'lifted'? What about ideas?" Some students did not see plagiarism as a novel concept, but their different perspective (or lack of knowledge) presented a problem. Previously they may have thought that "a bibliography [and nothing else] was sufficient" to avoid charges of plagiarism.

Despite students generally agreeing that plagiarism is unacceptable and should not be done, a student's being able to "parrot" instruction on plagiarism does not mean he/she will not do it. As one EAP specialist commented: "a significant proportion seem to think they can get away with it, although if challenged they would agree that they shouldn't." Another said "Yes-they accept it is wrong—but even after extensive discussion, students can still produce lifted or unattributed material (some think newspapers don't count . . .)."86

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86 Comments such as these suggest that perhaps the problem of derivation/plagiarism is persistent at least among some students, but not among ESL students as a whole.
One respondent commented on how the concept can be novel for both NNS and NS students:

For cultural reasons it is novel for many NNS, and probably for many NS who have not come from school with any notion of 'intellectual property' and credit for original ideas.

NS and NNS experiences with plagiarism are not vastly different. This seems to be a reoccurring theme, one which could be investigated much further.

2.2.4.4.6 Cases of Plagiarism Among Students Who Have Gone Through Pre-sessional EAP Courses

11 respondents (40%) had heard of instances of plagiarism among NNS students who had gone through pre-sessional courses. Although the current researcher had hoped to obtain samples of student writing containing lifted source material as had been done in following up on leads from the MScCCQ, these hopes were not realised, and no further texts were obtained despite following up on possible leads. Some had no idea if cases occurred after pre-sessional courses because they did not work in language support programmes during the year at the university language centre/institute. Others could not comment because they got "little feedback from departments" or as one put it: "Our EFL unit does not get such information from the academic departments. They expect to deal with the whole question themselves."87

Those who had heard back from departments mentioned supervisors who "have persistent problems with some Korean students" as well as Malaysian and Middle Eastern students. Another commented that when such textual appropriation did occur, it was usually among students of low proficiency: "Yes, but usually with students whose language skills were very weak at the Pre-sessional stage and whose problems were identified by themselves or their tutors" Another mentioned a

87 These comments suggest the importance of contact between university language centres/institutes and departments. If pre-sessional courses are to be successful in preparing students for their L2 writing tasks, feedback is necessary from departments when problems occur, especially when there are plagiarism-related problems.
Japanese postgraduate who had to be "admonished in writing by lecturer for lifting too many passages from sourcebooks." Another thought that "the more challenging the academic study itself, the more likely a student is to regress to own cultural approach." Another mentioned the time factor, which surprisingly has not been brought up that often by these respondents as compared to the MScCCQ respondents. One EAP specialist reported, "Yes, I had one case last year. The student in fact knew she had plagiarised and has been in this country many years. It was mainly due to incredible time pressure--working, bringing up children, etc. She was given the chance to submit again." Other cases included mechanical copying and miscopying, "often with words or whole lines left out."

One respondent speculated on the motives of a student referred to the language centre for writing assistance. Although this particular student's "writing was seriously bad" he had been admitted to an MPhil course. The tutor knew that the student had other theses on his subject from other universities and suspected that the student intended to "use them wrongly."

There was also an EAP specialist who heard back of cases "occasionally" and she commented on the "survival strategy" reasons behind why a student might appropriate text: "On the whole, I would say these are cases of desperation. Students resort to it because they cannot cope, even if they are aware that what they are doing is wrong."

Another case involved "a PhD thesis being rejected because an inexperienced tutor/supervisor had failed to spot plagiarism in it", and another case had to do with a lack of interest in a particular subject:

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88 The MScCCQ respondents gave more of an emphasis to time being a variable, but both EAP and MScCCQ populations stressed the importance of L2 proficiency, lack of confidence, and knowledge as variables, and both stressed the fact that L1 and L2 writers lift text.
One of the ex-pre-sessional students handed in an abridged copy of another classmate's assignment. Unfortunately he copied a stunningly good assignment and it was obvious. He was also blind, hadn't attended the lectures and hadn't borrowed any books, so it was quite apparent he couldn't have done it himself. When confronted he was very unpleasant (he was so most of the time anyway) and felt there had been no reason to do any work on it because he wasn't interested in the subject. He had to rewrite it and get the lowest mark for the rewrite. The alternative was not to rewrite and so fail the course.

Although not an instance of plagiarism, one respondent brought up a technique of memorisation used by some students as a strategy to prepare exam answers. This strategy seems similar to strategies others have used when faced with time-limited exams, such as the strategy of the Korean student smuggling in completed exam booklets with "fair summary answers" or the strategy of memorising a model essay and plugging in different key words. However, in this particular instance the students have memorised their own essays: "some ex-pre-sessional students may try to write and memorise parts of their own essay before taking an exam which involves writing shorter essay answers."

2.2.4.4.7 English Proficiency as a Variable in Unacknowledged Appropriation of Text by NNS Students

22 respondents (81%) thought that language proficiency was an important variable in unacknowledged appropriation of text by NNSs. One said that proficiency "plus limitations on time" made appropriation of text the only option for some students. Another respondent commented on the "survival strategy" use of textual appropriation: "if a subject tutor's tolerance of language errors is low, sometimes plagiarism can be a panic measure by a student trying to reduce his language errors."

When a student "feels more in control", he/she will be "less likely to present chunks of undigested text."
The L2 proficiency variable is evident in the following statements:

The weaker the student, the more prone s/he is to copy whole chunks.

Plagiarism tends to happen more with students of lower linguistic proficiency.

The higher the level of language and confidence, the less the 'need' for plagiarism.

Clearly it is sometimes a means of compensating for linguistic (and cognitive) deficiency. At higher levels of proficiency, however, there are cases of students who feel inadequate because they cannot write like published or proficient NS writers.

A student whose English is weak and comes from a culture where plagiarism is a novel idea may be less willing to expose their linguistic weakness by using their own words and consequently tempted to 'borrow' the 'perfect English' in their textbooks.

Lack of perceived linguistic resources drives NNSs to plagiarism as a necessary resort.

The ability to understand what they read and then to present it in 'processed' form is crucial. Those who are weakest in language have the biggest problem in trying to avoid the accusation of plagiarism.

My impression is that the worst plagiarists tend to be those with the lowest levels of language proficiency.

In addition to proficiency, one respondent speculated that a student might have a "hidden agenda for being in the UK in the first place." Interestingly, there was an anecdotal account where a "hidden agenda for being in the UK" seems to have been a variable. An MSc course co-ordinator in the study discussed the case of a student who did very poorly in her MSc studies. Unacknowledged appropriation of text was a feature of her work. Yet strangely she did not seem to care, that is until she appealed against the decision not to award her the degree. Later, it turned out that she had been more interested in establishing UK business contacts for her family's clothing company than getting an MSc degree.

Some respondents saw proficiency as less important than the cultural variable. For example, one EAP specialist commented as follows: "I have taught students who are less proficient linguistically, from places like Israel and Cyprus who will write
complex ideas rather awkwardly. In contrast some Asians will simply rely on 'the
book' to speak for itself and answer the question."

2.2.4.5 Summary and Conclusions

The EAP specialist responses to this questionnaire provide a perspective which
has not yet been as adequately addressed by the student and MScCCQ study
populations. These EAP specialists provided an extremely useful and practical answer
to the question of why ESL students are perceived by many educators to be persistent
plagiarists. Both L1 and L2 writers appropriate text, but because L2 writers are less
skillful in covering up their derivation and recontextualising the lifted source text in
their own writing, their appropriation may be more frequently discovered by
instructors and examiners than appropriation by L1 writers. Appropriation by L2
writers is more obvious because of ungrammatical links or disjunctures between a
student's own writing and the lifted text from a published source.

The responses of these EAP specialists, in addition to providing this practical
insight, also fit neatly into the explanatory variable categories which have been given
in existing literature on L2 writing problems, and which have emerged in the
responses given by ESL students and MSc course co-ordinators.

Generally, each of the study populations has emphasised the importance of the
main explanatory variables consisting of writing strategies, L1 writing backgrounds,
knowledge of L2 convention, instructional background, and L2 proficiency, as well as
the additional variables of time and lack of confidence, which seem to be emerging as
significant variables. The student and MScCCQ responses, however, emphasised the
time variable more than these EAP responses, although several EAP specialists did
see time as important.\textsuperscript{89} These EAP specialist responses reveal, more than the other
study population responses perhaps, that lack of confidence is an important variable in

\textsuperscript{89} It could be that the variable of time was not as evident in the EAP responses since not as many
EAP specialists were surveyed as MSc course co-ordinators and ESL students.

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cases of derivation/plagiarism in ESL contexts, although the variable did emerge in the responses from the other study populations.

Despite the insightful responses of the EAP respondents, it seemed that these EAP specialists had a tendency to generally blame cultural background without more specifically defining the type of cultural influence to which they were referring. It seems that some of these EAP respondents may have been too quickly and too generally blaming negative transfer or cultural interference when in fact developmental factors may be more important variables to specifically explain why students are struggling with derivation/plagiarism problems. Mohan and Lo (1985) addressed this tendency to quickly blame negative transfer from the L1 cultural background rather than first looking for other variables to explain L2 writing problems. Their contention was that many L2 writing problems are traceable to developmental variables, but they did not completely exclude the possibility of negative transfer.

An important comparison was made by many EAP respondents between L1 and L2 writing problems. Both L1 and L2 writers have the plagiarism-related problem of lifting text without acknowledgment. But what emerges from these responses is the idea that when L2 writers lift text for reasons uncommon to L1 writers, this appropriation has more in common with linguistic inadequacy or L2 proficiency and a personal lack of confidence in language ability than it does with other variables. Respondents commented that deceit is more often involved in L1 cases than in L2 cases. L2 cases tend to be a result of low L2 proficiency, and the derivation may be a survival strategy opted for to compensate for linguistic deficiencies. Both L1 and L2 writers use derivation as a strategy. Both may lack the appropriate knowledge (which depends heavily on their instructional background), but L2 writers in particular may lack the L2 proficiency which is needed to produce acceptable writing, or they may lack confidence in their language abilities, and the resultant ESL student text becomes a mix of non-native like prose which is combined with poorly recontextualised "chunks" of unacknowledged source text which are easily spotted by evaluators and
examiners. The easily recognised and often encountered instances of derivation/plagiarism by ESL students create the mis-perception that ESL students plagiarise more often than L1 writers, when in fact, L1 writers lift text just as often without acknowledgment, but their native linguistic skills enable them to better recontextualise such appropriation so that it is not discovered as often as appropriation by L2 writers is found out.

While some EAP respondents did tend to quickly blame general cultural background and negative transfer, they did offer some very important insights on the invalid perception of why ESL students are perceived to be persistent plagiarists, and their responses provided valuable support to the theorized explanatory variables and dynamic interactions underlying derivation and plagiarism in ESL contexts.
2.3 Concluding Remarks on Questionnaire Data

The three study populations surveyed by means of questionnaire provided solid data which will be extremely useful in relation to the case studies of derivation/plagiarism in ESL contexts as part of this investigation of the explanatory variables and dynamic interactions involved in contexts where ESL students have adopted derivation/plagiarism as a composing strategy. It seems that from this data, some valid answers will be able to be given to the question of why ESL students are seen by some educators to be persistent plagiarists. It also seems that a solid foundation has been laid for analysing the precise relation of general L2 writing explanatory variables to the specific problem of derivation/plagiarism in ESL contexts. Additionally, several other variables have emerged as important features of derivative writing by L2 writers. Hopefully, the information and insights gained from conducting these questionnaires will provide a reliable base for constructing a valid theoretical model to explain the interactions and variables involved in derivative L2 writing contexts.
3 Appendix C: Case Study Results

3.1 Introduction

In Appendix C material is presented from the 5 NNS student cases of textual appropriation. The cases all involved ESL students enrolled in MSc taught courses, and information on these cases was obtained by interviewing MSc staff involved, by obtaining and analysing student texts, and by reviewing miscellaneous data pertaining to the cases. For reasons of confidentiality, reference to students’ names has been omitted as well as reference to the department and university in which the students were studying. The material in Appendix C is arranged case-by-case and ordered as follows:

1) Summary of case details
2) Presentation of textual appropriation, one extract at a time, in a double column format with student text in the first column and source text (s) in the second column, and with color coding of student text to illustrate/highlight textual appropriation.
3) Presentation of copies of original student texts.
4) Presentation of miscellaneous data pertaining to each case.

First a general summary of case details is given. Next, the textual appropriation is presented in a double column side-by-side format with the student text juxtaposed with the source text (s) from which language (and sometimes ideas/text structure) was appropriated. Synonym substitution and paraphrase is highlighted in these student texts with blue boldface type, while verbatim copying is highlighted with red boldface type. This color coding in the presentation of student text extracts is helpful in enabling a quick scan of the texts to be done in analysing the derivative language. In the presentations of the textual appropriation, each case has been divided up into manageable sections in the form of numbered extracts. In 2 cases, textual
appropriation was found in more than one student writing task (cases 2 and 4). These cases were sub-divided into cases 2a and 2b, and cases 4a and 4b respectively; continuous, consecutive numbering of extracts was maintained in moving from \( a \) to \( b \) in cases 2 and 4 in order to avoid confusion.

After presenting the textual appropriation for a case, copies of the original student texts will be presented. Finally, following this, miscellaneous data relating to a case will be presented, such as supervisor comments on drafts of student writing or evaluation of student writing progress by writing tutors.

3.2 Procedures and Methodology

The procedures used to obtain these case details and texts have already been briefly discussed in presenting the MScCCQ results. The MScCCQ was the instrument used to first of all determine if respondents had ever encountered derivation/plagiarism by their students. Information respondents gave was used to follow up on possible leads, and the goal was to obtain as much information as possible about each case by interviewing the department staff involved in the cases. Students could not be interviewed since most had left the country after completing their MSc degree or diploma. Tact was essential in discussing these sensitive cases with interviewees since the case details were confidential.

The method of analysing these cases consisted of determining what type of textual appropriation had occurred by comparing student texts to original source texts. In some cases this was not too difficult of a task since examiners had already specifically highlighted the derivation\(^9\) and also because some derivation did not consist of extensive amounts of appropriation. For example, case 1 involved minor instances of textual appropriation which had been highlighted by examiners in both the original student text and in the source text. However, in some cases, tracing the textual appropriation was extremely difficult because examiners gave only general

\(^9\)For example, examiners underlined portions of student text which were derivative and jotted down page numbers of source texts from which students had lifted text without acknowledgment.
clues as to what source texts had been used by students in their derivative writing processes. Additionally, several cases involved quite extensive lifting of source material. This was the situation in case 5. Extensive unacknowledged use of source material was a feature of this case, and the student had skipped from one source text to another in his strategy of textual appropriation. With only general references to source text authors, tracing the derivation in this case became quite a laborious undertaking.

Color coding was found to be the best way of clearly indicating derivative student text. This color coding was especially useful when a student employed complex patterns of appropriation as in case 5. Color coding enabled the current researcher to quickly scan a text to check for derivative material. Without the coding, such scanning could easily take several minutes to review again the material which had been lifted. Coding also enabled a distinction to be made between copied material and paraphrased material in which a student employed synonym substitution. Finally, the side-by-side 2 column format presenting both student text and source text, facilitates a quick comparison of the derivative L2 writing with the source from which it was derived.

91 For example, examiners made marginal notes questioning whether a particular idea had been used from a work without acknowledgment. The author's name was given, but no other clues were given to indicate which material had been borrowed.
3.3 Case 1: Derivation of Text and Text-Structure in a Take-Home Exam

3.3.1 Summary of Case Details

In case 1 a Japanese student was discovered to have written a take home exam response containing apparently lifted text from one of the course texts, Krashen's *Second Language Acquisition Theory*. He had apparently copied phrases and sentences from the source text sections on "Acquisition and Learning", "The Natural Order Hypothesis", and "The Monitor Hypothesis." He had given nearly the same titles to the sections in his exam response as the titles in the source text. In the first section of the student's exam response, given in extract 1, it is evident that the student has slightly changed the word order of the first sentence in the source text, and he has acknowledged that this is Krashen's theory. The problem is that verbatim copying has been done without using quotation marks or inverted commas. Students had been specifically reminded before the exams that they needed to acknowledge sources when they gave direct quotations.

Similarly, in extract 2 it is evident that the student has continued the apparent copying with slight variations from the source text wording. In extract 3 there is more apparent verbatim copying without acknowledgement. There also seems to be a copying error. The student wrote "acquisition is unvariable for self-correction" rather than "acquisition is unavailable for self-correction."92

The student's explanation of his derivative exam response was that he had memorised the course material so well that he was unable to tell which were his own words and which were the words of the texts he had studied. In his mind the memorised material and his own words and ideas were synonymous. The resulting style was, he declared, a "mishmash" or mixture of words and phrases he had memorised along with his own words and ideas. When confronted with this...

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92 This may be a type of error due to homophony. Two similar sounding words could easily be interchanged, especially since Japanese students are known for having difficulty with *l* and *r* distinctions in spoken English (e.g. *fried rice* often sounds like *fried lice*). See Prator & Robinett (1985:113). The *l* and the *r* are the two consonants which comprise the major difference between the two words which the student has confused.
suspiciously derivative writing style, he also replied that in his view, memorising the material made it his own.

However, the fact that he had apparently miscopied (or mis-memorised) source material, cast doubt upon his claims in the minds of examiners, although to be fair to the student, it should be said that his claim is not an entirely impossible one. Considering though that it was a take-home exam in which students would have access to sources and not just their memory, it seems most likely that it was a case of mis-copying and not mis-memorisation. Furthermore, the fact that the apparent copying is in the same order as the source text—both the general order of sections and the order of specific sentences and phrases—lends weight to the direct copying explanation over the student's memorisation explanation of his derivative exam response.

Because this was a first occurrence, the student was given the benefit of the doubt with a warning about the serious nature of plagiarism-related derivative writing and unacknowledged copying, and he went on to successfully complete his particular MSc course.

3.3.2 Textual Appropriation in Case I

On the following pages are presented the extracts from case 1 which illustrate student A's derivative use of source text.
3.3.2.1 Case 1: Extract 1

**Student Text:**

1. (The Acquisition learning hypothesis)

The acquisition learning distinction is the most important and is the heart of Krashen's theory. 'Acquisition' occurs subconsciously as a result of participating in natural communication, whereas 'learning' is knowing the rules, having a conscious knowledge about grammar. Therefore, learning refers to 'explicit' knowledge of rules, being aware of them and being able to talk about them.

**Source Text:**

Acquisition and Learning

The most important and useful theoretical point is the acquisition-learning distinction, the hypothesis that adult language students have two distinct ways of developing skills and knowledge in a second language. Simply, acquiring a language is "picking it up," i.e., developing ability in a language by using it in natural, communicative situations. Children acquire their first language, and most probably, second languages as well. As we shall see in Chapter Two adults also can acquire: they do not usually do it quite as well as children, but it appears that language acquisition is the central, most important means for gaining linguistic skills even for an adult.

Language learning is different from acquisition. Language learning is "knowing the rules," having a conscious knowledge about grammar. According to recent research, it appears that formal language learning is not nearly as important in developing communicative ability in second languages as previously thought. Many researchers now believe that language acquisition is responsible for the ability to understand and speak second languages easily and well. Language learning may only be useful as an editor, which we will call a Monitor. We use acquisition when we initiate sentences in second languages, and bring in learning only as a kind of after-thought to make alterations and corrections. . . .(p18)
3.3.2.2 Case 1: Extract 2

**Student Text:**

2. The natural order hypothesis
Learners may follow a more or less invariant order in the acquisition of formal grammatical features. In other words grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order. Thus certain grammatical structures tend to be acquired early and others to be late. For example, present progressive morpheme '-ing' tends to be acquired earlier than third person singular verb morpheme '-s' or '-es'.

**Source Text:**

The Natural Order Hypothesis
This hypothesis states that grammatical structures are acquired (not necessarily learned) in a predictable order. It states that we will see similarities across acquirers; certain structures will tend to be acquired early, while others will tend to be acquired late.

Before giving some examples from the language acquisition research, it may be helpful to make some qualifying statements. The natural order hypothesis does not state that every acquirer will acquire grammatical structures in the exact same order. It states rather that, in general, certain structures tend to be acquired early and [sic-words missing?] to be acquired late. It also allows the possibility that structures may be acquired in groups, several at about the same time. Some examples might help to make this clear. . .(p28)
3. (The monitor hypothesis)
The conscious learning has an extremely limited function in adult second language performance. Here the monitor is the device which learners use to edit their language performance. When learners produce utterances in their second language, the utterance is 'initiated' by the acquired system, and their conscious learning comes into play later. Krashen suggests three conditions for the monitor use; such as (1) There must be sufficient time, (2) the focus must be on form and not meaning, and (3) the user must know the rule. Importantly, this hypothesis is not saying that acquisition is unvariable for self-correction, but that conscious learning has only the function that it is not used to initiate production in a second language. [Underline emphasis mine-- student apparently miscopied this word]

Source Text:

The Monitor Hypothesis
This hypothesis states that conscious learning has an extremely limited function in adult second language performance: it can only be used as a Monitor, or an editor. The hypothesis says that when we produce utterances in a second language, the utterance is "initiated" by the acquired system, and our conscious learning only comes into play later. We can thus use the Monitor to make changes in our utterances only after the utterance has been generated by the acquired system. This may happen before we actually speak or write, or it may happen after. When it happen after the utterance has been produced (uttered or written), it is called self-repair. . . .

A very important point about the Monitor hypothesis is that it does not say that acquisition is unavailable for self-correction. We often self-correct, or edit, using acquisition, in both first and in second languages. What the Monitor hypothesis claims is that conscious learning has only this function, that it is not used to initiate production in a second language. [Underline emphasis by current author. Student apparently miscopied this word]
Some critical views on Krashen's Natural Approach: Focusing on Teaching English in Japan

Natural Approach is based on Krashen's five central hypotheses such as (1) acquisition learning hypothesis, (2) the natural order hypothesis, (3) the monitor hypothesis, (4) the input hypothesis and (5) affective filter hypothesis. First of all, I would like to see the brief overview of the five central hypotheses, then some principles of the Natural Approach. And finally I would like to suggest several critical point of view in the approach, particularly, by focusing on teaching English in Japan.

Krashen's Monitor Model was considerably prominent to a certain extent in Second Language Acquisition research and the studies. However, the theory is, in fact, seriously flawed in a number respects, especially in its treatment of language-learner variability. I will discuss this problem later on. First of all, I will take a look at sketchy view of the five central hypotheses.

(1) The acquisition learning hypothesis

The acquisition learning distinction is the most important and is the heart of Krashen's theory. Acquisitions occurs subconsciously as a result of participating in natural communication, whereas learning is knowing the rules, being conscious about grammar. Therefore, learning refers to explicit knowledge of rules, being aware of them and being able to talk about them.
The natural order hypothesis

Learners may follow a more or less invariant order in the acquisition of formal grammatical features. In other words, grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order. This certain grammatical structures tend to be acquired early and others to be late. For example, present progressive morpheme -ing tends to be acquired earlier than third person singular present -s or -ed, verb.

(The monitor hypothesis)

The conscious learning has an extremely limited function in adult second language performance. Here, the monitor is the device which learners use to edit their language performance. Thus, learners produce utterances in their second language, the utterance is initiated by the acquired system, and their conscious learning comes into play later. Kroch suggests three conditions for the monitor use; such as (1) there must be sufficient time, (2) the focus must be on form and not meaning, and (3) the user must know the rule. Importantly, this hypothesis is not saying that acquisition is mandatory for self-correction, but that conscious learning has only the function that it is not used to initiate production in a second language.

(The input hypothesis)

Input, here, means the language that learners hear or read. The input should be at a slightly higher level than their own capability of using, but it is rich in the target language.
3.4 Case 2: Plagiarism by a Proficient ESL Student

3.4.1 Summary of Case Details

In case 2, a student from Pakistan was discovered to have appropriated text in a course project. There had been previous complaints that he had replicated class handouts word-for-word in his exam responses, and with the discovery of substantial amounts of unacknowledged verbatim copying and borrowing of ideas in a course project, previous projects were examined for further instances of textual appropriation. It was discovered that another course project was heavily derivative. Thus there were two instances of textual appropriation by this particular student in his MSc course projects.

3.4.1.1 Instance 1

In the first instance of derivation/plagiarism it was discovered that this fairly proficient student (writing skills included) had written a course project on literary stylistics, and in this project he had appropriated from a source text without acknowledgment. This paper was an examination of the theory behind, and a stylistic analysis of, the "Stream of Consciousness" modern fiction genre. In his project the student had analysed texts from Virginia Woolf and James Joyce, and his project supervisor had lent him an analysis of Woolf's *To the Lighthouse* by Leaska (1970) entitled *Virginia Woolf's Lighthouse: A Study in Critical Method*. It was discovered by examiners (one of the examiners being the project supervisor) that the student had borrowed ideas and copied numerous phrases from Leaska's text without acknowledgement.

The student had appropriated a section of Leaska's text (pp 50-53) in which a particular passage from Woolf's *To the Lighthouse* had been analysed. For analysis of Woolf's text, Leaska had added numeration for convenience of reference, and the student had borrowed this numeration with no acknowledgment given to Leaska for
the analysis of the same Woolf text in his course project. In extract 1 the student project appendix is presented along with the unacknowledged borrowed numeration. The student acknowledges Woolf but not Leaska, leading readers to believe that the numeration is his own.93

Strangely enough, it seems that perhaps the student had not even read the original Woolf text, because he did not make any mention of himself having added the numeration, and the acknowledgement given in the student's appendix would imply to readers that the text is directly extracted, numeration and all, from Woolf's text, as if the numeration were part of her novel. Further, in analysing a passage from James Joyce's Ulysses (1968), the student added no numeration. It would seem that one would add numeration to both the Woolf and Joyce texts if one wished to conceal the fact that numeration in one text had been borrowed directly from another writer.

In reading the student's essay, it appears that the student may have relied solely on Leaska's work in analysing Woolf's text, rather than reading Woolf's text for himself and realising that her text did not contain the numbering. However, to give the page references to the Woolf text in his appendix, he would have had to refer to her novel, so the puzzle of why he did not use numeration for both the Woolf and the Joyce text remains. Additionally, Leaska made a note that the numeration had been added for "analytical convenience", so it should have been obvious to the student that the numeration was not part of Woolf's text.

Not only did the student borrow the numeration from Leaska without acknowledgement, but as is evident in extracts 2 and 3, the comment on and analysis of Woolf's text was also appropriated from Leaska for use in the student project. Paraphrase of Leaska's text is interspersed with synonym substitution and copying without acknowledgement.

In the paragraph presented in extract 2, it is evident that not only has Leaska's numeration been used, but his wording and text structure have also been

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93 This borrowing of Leaska's numeration represents the borrowing of an idea rather than linguistic borrowing.
appropriated by the student in referring to Woolf's text. The student has followed the original paragraphing of Leaska's text, ending the first paragraph with comment on phrases (7) and (8), as Leaska did. Extract 2 also reveals that synonym substitution has been employed by the student along with copying; for example, in beginning his paragraph the student substitutes "the opening sentence" for "The first sentence." Minor restructuring of Leaska's text is also evident. It is clear in extract 2 that the student has followed the same outline of the source text, copying some words and phrases, while changing the word order and employing synonym substitution in other phrases. In the next paragraph, shown in extract 3, this pattern of appropriation continues.

Because of the substantial amount of textual appropriation in this course project,\(^94\) it appeared that the student had not simply made an error, but had acted deceitfully in an attempt to make the examiners believe that the textual analysis was his own. This seemed to be a case of genuine plagiarism and not mere derivation. The subtle changes in wording and the synonym substitution interspersed with direct copying suggested that deliberate deceit was involved. Far more important was the fact that the student was quite capable of acknowledging sources properly and that he was aware of correct academic conventions regarding source attribution and acknowledgement.\(^95\)

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\(^94\) About 2 pages of this 18 page paper had been appropriated, not including the appendix with the numerated Woolf passage.

\(^95\) See for examples of correct source acknowledgement, page 1 in the original student text for case 2a (app 3.4.3, p A201), or page 5 in an earlier project of this student which is presented in the miscellaneous data section (app 3.4.7, p A261).
3.4.1.2 Instance 2

After discovery of this instance of textual appropriation, previous papers of the student were examined, and it was found that sections of another course project done earlier in the year on psycholinguistics were heavily derivative. The project was a critical analysis of Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis in regard to current psycholinguistic research, in which the wording was very similar to Levelt's chapter 12, "Self-Monitoring and Self-Repair." The student skipped back and forth in the source text in appropriating text from chapter 12 of Levelt. This was a more complex instance of derivation to unravel than the literary stylistics paper.

The first section of the student's psycholinguistics project, section 4.1 "Types of Monitoring Theories" was appropriated from Levelt, page 498. Again, as in the literary stylistics project, paraphrase and synonym substitution were interspersed with verbatim copying of words and phrases as presented in extract 4. It is interesting to note from extract 4 that the student does include inverted commas around direct quotes, with no other form of acknowledgement however. Also interesting is the mentioning of Mackay's node structure theory, with no date given, seemingly because the student was copying from Levelt, who had first mentioned Mackay's (1987)\textsuperscript{96} node structure theory on page 474 in chapter 12. Levelt gave the date in this first mention of Mackay, but not in succeeding references. However, in the student text no citation of MacKay's work is made here or in the bibliography.

A chart follows the material in extract 4, which is acknowledged, but no acknowledgement for the preceding text is given. However, as seen in the original student text the student does include a reference in the paragraph after the chart which refers to the editor and connectionist theories of monitoring which have been discussed in this section.\textsuperscript{97} The student writes

\textsuperscript{96} Cited by Levelt (1989) and copied by Student B.
\textsuperscript{97} See page 15 of the case 2b copy of the original student text (app 3.4.5, p A231).
Both the above mentioned theories of self-monitoring "have their strengths and weaknesses, and both are hard to disconfirm" (Levelt, 1989:498). Let us now consider both types of theories one by one.

Perhaps the student thought that this was sufficient reference for the text derived from Levelt. The next section of the student's project includes more derivative work. The section heading 4.1.1 "Editor Theories of Monitoring" is taken directly from Levelt's text (p467). The first part of the student's section 4.1.1 is taken directly from Levelt (pp 467-468) as presented in extract 5.

In extract 5 of the student's text more synonym substitution is evident as well as verbatim copying. One question that arose in analysing this section was "Why did the student put quotation marks around one phrase, 'the appropriateness of lexical access and the well-formedness of syntax', but not the other phrases which he has copied—phrases which are part of the same sentence?" The student has substituted synonyms here, (i.e. "planning" substituted for "construction"; "correctness" substituted for "flawlessness"), so perhaps he felt justified in changing these few words thinking that this equalled paraphrase. But as Fanning has suggested, simple synonym substitution is not a completely satisfactory avoidance of plagiarism or a full indication that a student has understood what he/she read. As will be seen shortly, reading comprehension may have been one reason the student's writing was so derivative in the instance of appropriation from Levelt's text, a more different to understand text than Leaska's text.98 He may have been used to simply copying difficult texts rather than persevering to fully understand what he was reading.

Also evident in extract 5 is the mentioning of authors (Laver; Wijk and Kempen; Motley, Camden, and Baars)99 who are not listed in the student's bibliography. The authors are cited as if the student had referred to their works, when actually, as seen

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98 But as has been suggested already, the student may have had difficulty with Woolf's text too, using Leaska's text for his analysis rather than working directly from Woolf's text. This may be evidence of a pattern of sidestepping difficult texts which Fanning (1992) has commented on.

99 These authors were cited by Levelt (1989) and copied by Student B.
above, they are mentioned by Levelt in the source text, and they have been copied by the student.

In extract 6, in the same paragraph still, a rather long one at just over a page of typed text, it is evident that the student has appropriated text from page 469, and then from page 474. In this extract are presented the student's lifting of phrases from Levelt's text without acknowledgment. The argument could be made however, that in writing on a certain subject, there may be only one way to say something, and specific words and phrases must be used so that clear communication is achieved. For example, coming up with another phrase for "language understanding system" or "double perceptual loop" seems unnecessary and confusing when an established authority has wide recognition for having coined such terms, or when discipline-specific terminology has become so widely used that the terms are seen as being common knowledge.

Next, in section 4.1.2 of the student text, as seen in the original student text, the student again borrows one of Levelt's section headings from page 474, and begins this section with a properly acknowledged quotation. The student text begins as follows:

4.1.2 Connectionist Theories of Monitoring

The main feature of the connectionist theories of monitoring is "that there are no mechanisms external to the speech production apparatus involved in the control of one's own speech."

(Levelt, 1989:474)

However, as seen in extract 7, the rest of this section is derived from pages 474-475 of Levelt's work. The student mentions MacKay's node structure theory again, giving the date this time. An instance of mis-copying is evident, the student writing "prepositional nodes" rather than "propositional nodes." An important point to note here is the fact that the inverted commas do not appear to be used by the student to

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100 See section 3.4.5 (p A233), p17 of the 2b text.
indicate direct quotation or use of another's text. Instead, the student has simply retained the quotation marks (changing them to inverted commas) because the phrases were used in the source text with quotation marks when the student copied them (i.e. "propositional nodes", "conceptual nodes"). Levelt used quotation marks, but the student used inverted commas. Another point to make is that Dell's (1986)\textsuperscript{101} theory is mentioned, which like MacKay's work, does not appear in the student bibliography. This section is concluded with a correctly acknowledged quotation from Levelt (p 475), followed by a brief paraphrased sentence.

Next, in extract 8 it is evident that the section 4.2 title has been adapted from Levelt (p478), and that section 4.2.1 is derived from pages 478-479 of Levelt. Here analysis of the student texts reveals more copying, quotations without proper reference, and synonym substitution.\textsuperscript{102}

Following extract 8, it is seen from the original student text that in discussing the "Main Interruption Rule", a moderately difficult but correct acknowledgement is given to attribute the rule to Nooteboom (1980)\textsuperscript{103}, who first suggested it. As shown below the student gives a reference to Nooteboom as quoted in Levelt:

\ldots Levelt mentions the following rule:

\textbf{Main Interruption Rule}

"Stop the flow of speech immediately upon detecting trouble" (Nootboom, 1980: as quoted in Levelt, 1989:478)

With this moderately difficult type of reference that the student has given comes the question "Why were similar references not given for other authors mentioned in Levelt's text?" More specifically, "Why were MacKay, Laver, Wijk and Kempen etc. not given similar references since they too were sources cited within a source?" The student was clearly aware of how to correctly document a source, even giving a

\textsuperscript{101} Cited by Levelt (1989) and copied by Student B.

\textsuperscript{102} i.e. "notices" instead of "detects"; "cannot be ignored" for "sufficiently alarming"; "interlocutor" in favor of "addressee."

\textsuperscript{103} Cited by Levelt (1989) and copied by Student B.
The conclusion that the student consciously chose to deceitfully appropriate text seems to be a logical one.

The rest of the section, as seen in extract 9, consists of paraphrase mixed with copying of some phrases and minor rewording, with the student correctly attributing the examples to explain the "Main Interruption Rule", but with no acknowledgement given for the borrowed phrases.

In extract 9 some clues are given as to why the student may have been lifting phrases and sentences from source texts. These clues lend additional support to the theory that he had developed appropriation patterns in his L2 writing as a strategy for dealing with difficult texts. From extract 9 it is evident that in rewording Levell's discussion of the first example, the student has revealed a slight misunderstanding of Levell's text, a possible indication that problems with comprehension may have resulted in paraphrase difficulty. Problems with comprehension result in paraphrase problems as Fanning (1992) has explained. Students may be used to their home culture and educational background in which they could deal with a difficult text by copying it or memorising it. It seems that this is one possible explanation here of the student's textual appropriation.

The student wrote "participants do not know what troublesome item was involved in that case" to explain why a covert repair is called such. This implies to the current author that the student understood Levell's text to mean a covert repair is called such because the speaker did not "know what troublesome item was involved" when actually Levell was explaining that a covert repair involves the listener not being aware of the troublesome item. Levell's text may have been a difficult one for someone not acquainted with the terminology used. If in fact the student did not understand parts of Levell's text, reading comprehension difficulty and perhaps a

104 Levell, as seen in extract 9, uses the editorial we in writing "We do not know in this case what the troublesome item was." It seems that the student did not understand this, and thought that the "troublesome item" applied to the speaker, when in fact the speaker, as Levell explains, is well aware of a pending linguistic error and initiates an interruption and a self-repair called a covert repair, because only the speaker knows what he/she was thinking during the interruption and repair.
cultural/educational background habit of copying difficult text may be the most important variables in case 2b (and possibly in case 2a as well).

3.4.1.3 Outcome of the Case

Of these 2 instances of plagiarism, it was the literary stylistics appropriation which was the most serious. The source text had not even been mentioned in the bibliography, and it seemed that deception was involved. The events leading up to a full scale investigation of the student's writing behavior happened at a hectic and busy time in the academic year, during weeks 9 and 10 of term 2. The project supervisor was especially angry that a student would plagiarise from a text which she herself had loaned to the student. At the first meeting between examiners and department members to discuss possible courses of action to deal with the student's derivation/plagiarism, there was a pervading sense of outrage and hostility at the apparent deception involved, and some present at the meeting felt very strongly that the student should not be allowed to continue to the dissertation stage and thus not be allowed to complete the MSc degree. Others were in favour of a more lenient penalty. This was obviously a case that needed referral to the external examiner.

The external examiner's conclusion was that there had been an attempt to obtain marks that were not deserved by presenting unacknowledged copied material as original work; more specifically, the student's presentation of another author's textual analysis as his own was interpreted as a plagiaristic form of appropriation. The student at first denied committing plagiarism, but at a later meeting he confessed to academic dishonesty. He was given very severe warnings about plagiarism and was asked to resubmit the project. The student revised and resubmitted the paper after giving proper acknowledgment of Leaska's work. A copy of the student's revised paper is given in the miscellaneous data section (app 3.4.6, ppA235-A260). After revision the student went on to successfully complete the MSc degree.
3.4.2 Textual Appropriation in Case 2a

On the following pages are presented the extracts from Student B's writing which illustrate his use of derivation as a writing strategy.
3.4.2.1 Case 2a: Extract 1

Student Text:

Appendix
Text-1

(1) 'It is a triumph,' said Mr Bankes,
(2) laying his knife down for a moment. (3) He had eaten attentively.
(4) It was rich; it was tender. It was perfectly cooked. (5) How did she
manage these things in the depths of the country? he asked her. (6) she was
a wonderful woman. (7) All his love, all his reverence, had returned; (8) and
she knew it.

(9) 'It is a French recipe of my grandmother's,' said Mrs Ramsay,
(10) speaking with a ring of great pleasure in her voice. (11) Of course it
was French. (12) What passes for cookery in England is an abomination
(they agreed). (13) It is putting cabbages in water. It is roasting meat
until it is like leather. It is cutting off the delicious skins of vegetables. (14)'
In which, ' said Mr Bankes, 'all the virtues of vegetable is contained!' (15)
And the wast, said Mrs Ramsay. A whole French family could live on what
an English cook throws away. (16) Spurred on by her sense that (17)
William's affection had come back to her, and that everything was right
again, and that her suspense was over, and that now she was free both to
triumph and to mock, (18) she laughed, she gesticulated, (19) till Lily thought,
(20) How childlike, how absurd she was, sitting up there with all her beauty
opened again in her, talking about the skin of vegetables. (21) There was
something frightening about her. She was irresistible. (22) Always got her
own way in the end, Lily thought.

(Woolf, V. To The Lighthouse: 93-94)

Source Text:

... Finally, because the points of view shift so
often and the direct and indirect interior
monologue alternate so frequently—all of this
executed with extraordinary perfection and
subtlety—the reader, if he is at all aware of the
techniques operating before him, may become
thoroughly baffled when he attempts to separate
one voice from another. Let us examine a typical
passage (the numeration is added for analytical
convenience):

(1) 'It is a triumph,' said Mr Bankes, (2) laying
his knife down for a moment. (3) he had eaten
attentively. (4) It was rich; it was tender. It was
perfectly cooked. (5) how did she manage these
things in the depths of the country? he asked her.
(6) She was a wonderful woman. (7) All his love,
all his reverence, had returned; (8) and she knew it.

(9) 'It is a French recipe of my grandmother's,' said Mrs Ramsay,
(10) speaking with a ring of great pleasure in her voice. (11) Of course it
was French. (12) What passes for cookery in England is an abomination
(they agreed). (13) It is putting cabbages in water. It is roasting meat
until it is like leather. It is cutting off the delicious skins of vegetables. (14)'
In which, ‘ said Mr Bankes, ‘all the virtues of vegetable is contained!' (15)
And the wast, said Mrs Ramsay. A whole French family could live on what
an English cook throws away. (16) Spurred on by her sense that (17)
William's affection had come back to her, and that everything was right
again, and that her suspense was over, and that now she was free both to
triumph and to mock, (18) she laughed, she gesticulated, (19) till Lily thought,
(20) How childlike, how absurd she was, sitting up there with all her beauty
opened again in her, talking about the skin of vegetables. (21) There was
something frightening about her. She was irresistible. (22) Always got her
own way in the end, Lily thought (151-51).
Student Text:

The opening sentence (1) of the passage is an example of direct discourse, but in (2), an extra dimension is added by the intrusion of the narrator thereby confirming narrational prescence. In (3), we are led to enter Mrs. Ramsey's thought without any apparant indication or direction. However, one can probably assume that it is Mrs. Ramsay's thought as we know from the preceding discourse that she is interested in pleasing Mr. Bankes at all cost. She is also encouraged to do so because Mr. Bankes appreciates the food. In (4), the tense shifts from past perfect to imperfect. The three short statements continue to engage our attention, as the mode of their presentation seems to be direct interior monologue. In (5), however, there is a shift in the mode of presentation and the monologue gives way to a free direct statement without quotation marks. In (6), the mode changes again to direct interior monologue and we are presented with Mr. Bankes' thought which probably would not verbalise. In (7), focalization shifts to Mrs. Ramsay who rejoices in winning back Mr. Bankes' love and affection. In (8), the omniscient narrator intervenes to confirm Mrs. Ramsay's thought and partly in order to conclude the passage. As the presentation of (8) suggests, we might take it as an indirect interior monologue because of the third person pronoun and the tense, but there is no way of being absolutely certain as the content of the (7) does not seem to support this view.

Source Text:

The first sentence is traditional enough in that at (1) the words are reported, and at (2) a 'stage direction' is given omnisciently. At (3) however, without any announcement, we are given Mrs Ramsay's thought: we can be certain of it here, because we know that she wishes to please Bankes and is, therefore, concerned with the attention he has given the food. At (4) the three short statements, now with the tense shifted from past perfect to imperfect, we continue in Mrs Ramsay's mind, now with even greater immediacy, because they are presented as pure direct interior monologue. At (5) the interior monologue changes to direct statement, with quotation marks omitted; but at (6) we are again presented, by direct interior monologue, Mr Bankes' thought—a thought which presumably he would never utter aloud. At (7) we are again sharing directly with Mrs Ramsay her pleasure in having succeeded in pleasing Bankes; and at (8), by way of confirmation, the Omniscient Narrator concludes the paragraph. Although the content of (7) would not seem to warrant it, it might be argued that (8) is presented as indirect interior monologue. But there is no way of being absolutely certain.
3.4.2.3 Case 2a: Extract 3

Student Text:

The opening of the second paragraph is almost similar in form to the opening sentence of the preceding paragraph. Mrs. Ramsay's response to the question is presented directly, and again the omniscient narrator makes a comment adding more information concerning Mrs. Ramsay's mood and tone of voice. The next sentence, marks the shift in focalization (11), as it presents Mr. Bankes' views. The mode of presentation changes as well and Mr. Bankes' thought is presented by means of direct interior monologue. It continues in the next sentence (12) with added mediation on the part of the omniscient narrator by the comment 'they agreed'. In the next three sentences (13), depiction of Bankes consciousness continues which is fairly obvious as his description of English food goes on unhindered until a link is established between Bankes' thought and direct speech in (14), but, (13) might remain ambiguous as far as its voice is concerned. In the next sentence (15), Mrs. Ramsay's thought is presented by means of indirect interior monologue as the presence of the omniscient narrator may be assumed by the occurrence of 'reporting verb'. The beginning of sentence (16) is marked by the narratorial comment, but a shift takes place as we move to (17), where Mrs. Ramsay's thoughts are presented through indirect interior monologue. This is indicated by the tense (past perfect and imperfect), the third person pronoun and the use of Bankes' name in an intimate (William) way. Sentence (18) adds another narratorial comment (omniscient) by pointing out Mrs. Ramsay's sense of accomplishment. But these two independent clauses also mark a shift in perspective by leading to the revelation of Lily Briscoe's consciousness. This transition is completed in (19) 'till Lily Thought', and Lily's consciousness (20) is revealed through indirect interior monologue. The mode of presentation changes again in (21), and it shifts towards direct interior monologue, which is followed by indirect interior monologue again.

Source Text:

The first sentence of the second paragraph is identical in form to the opening sentence of the preceding paragraph: (9) the 'audible' report, followed by (10) the Omniscient Narrator describing and interpreting the tone. The second sentence, (11), is clearly Mr Bankes' thought presented by means of direct interior monologue. The next sentence is likewise his; the '(they agreed)' is simply an economical touch of omniscience. The next three sentences, (13), are also filtered through Bankes' consciousness as evidenced by his manner of enumerating and his attention to detail—both characteristics belonging to a scientist and a food faddist. Further, Mrs Woolf finishes his sentence, a fragment though it is, with the traditional use of quotation marks and so connects (14) with (13) which might remain ambiguous in so far as voice is concerned. The next sentence, (15), though clearly Mrs Ramsay's utterance, appears visually as indirect interior monologue; and neither the content nor the conversational tone would indicate the necessity for Mrs Woolf's ignoring conventional punctuation. In sentence (16) we have an omniscient beginning, shifting at (17) to Mrs Ramsay's thoughts, now by means of indirect interior monologue— as the third-person pronoun, the past perfect and imperfect tenses, and the intimate use of Bankes' first name attest. The two independent clauses in (18) are omniscient statements in one sense. But they are also a very delicate shift towards Lily Briscoe's consciousness, a shift which is completed by (19) 'till Lily thought', after which, the content of her mind is presented through indirect interior monologue at (20), direct interior monologue at (21), and indirect again at (22).
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INTRODUCTION

This paper mainly deals with the different aspects of stream of consciousness in the modern novel. It particularly focuses on the work of the two major novelists in this tradition. They are Virginia Woolf and James Joyce. However, it does occasionally refer to other writers if it is deemed essential. The first half of this paper is mainly theory driven. But, the second concentrates on the analysis of two passages, one from Virginia Woolf's To The Lighthouse (Text-1), and one from James Joyce's Ulysses (Text-2).

1. The Historical Background

1.1 Stream of consciousness

The term "stream of consciousness" was first used by William James in his celebrated work Principles of Psychology. He coined this phrase to describe one of the most distinctive doctrines of his psychological teaching: the conception of thoughts as a stream or flow and the idea of free association and sensations in a person's mind at any given moment. According to his theories, the nondirected and associative thinking is the one to be preferred to all other kinds. Thoughts, as he understands, consist in large part of a series of images that are not easily rendered in conventional speech patterns and that the inexpressible movement of interior rhythms has an existence apart from the spoken word (James, W. 1904: chapt. 9). James' profound interest in the depths of subconscious is indicative of a growing interest in this area at the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century. He translates his interest by giving a theoretical basis to this psychological dictum, which was later exploited by different writers, and became a widely used term in the theory of novel in the twentieth century.
Although it is difficult to define stream of consciousness in precise terms, it is generally used to designate the meandering of the mind on the verge of dissolution into unconsciousness. It is generally marked by illogical, mainly associative thought patterns.

1.2 The psychological basis

William James describes the newly discovered domain of psychological notation in his highly expressive prose. He writes:

As we take, in fact, a general view of the wonderful stream of our consciousness, what strikes us first in this different pace of its parts. Like a bird's life, it seems to be made of an alternation of flights and perchings. The rhythm of language expresses this, where every thought is expressed in a sentence, and every sentence closed by a period.

(James, W. 1904:243)

James' is the first attempt to process and uncover this new dimension of time, that is, "different pace of its parts", and in this, he gives the theoretical basis in psychology to stream of consciousness in relation to individuals and the language that they use as a medium for expressing their internal, subjective sensations. Besides, if individuals speak objectively, it is the real relations that appear revealed; if they speak subjectively, it is the stream of consciousness that is uncovered.

After James, this subject was explored by the famous French philosopher Henry Bergson. While James' theory of stream of thought has a purely psychological significance, Bergson's notion of space and time has a distinctly philosophical bias. Bergson distinguishes between "spatial" time and "pure" time as a result of which he categorises the former as quantitative
which has magnitude, but he suggests that this is the result of the confusion by those who insist on discussing time in spatial terms. The second category, is the real (pure) time, variously labelled as "psychological time" or "duration". This category denotes succession instead of simultaneity, intensity instead of magnitude, moments melting into one another rather than being placed side by side. The idea Bergson is putting forward is that there is no real contact between the unextended (real) and extended (spatial); that is, the one can be interpreted by the other or one can be taken as the equivalent of the other; and sooner or later the assimilation of the two is inevitable. But, there is a danger that a confusion may arise when one is penetrating into the depths of consciousness. In other words, the further one descends into the depths of consciousness, the less one is able to treat psychological data as objects placed side by side. This leads one to the awareness that one can envisage reality in two possible ways: one is by making use of one's intelligence, which can view things in spatial terms. The other is the intuition, which, in order to interpret, views the operation of an object from inside. This particular faculty is capable of penetrating into the source of objects and viewing consciousness as an "unbroken psychic flux". Memory is equally important to Bergson's system and he terms it as the most important constituent of consciousness. Consciousness, according to Bergson, not only denotes memory, but it is memory that preserves and accumulates the past in the present. This aspect of Bergson's theory is rather pervasive in almost all stream of consciousness fiction (Bergson, H. 1910, 1911).

Freud and Jung built on the work of James and Bergson. Freud presented the concept of the unconscious when the chief interest of psychology was the study of consciousness. He penetrates the nature of the unconscious by his study of dreams and comes to regard it as the "real psyche". Freud's theory offers two guides to the psychological novel. His dream work suggests both the distortion of material beyond the traditional forms and its control by the timeless schema of the myth, that is, the unconscious is treated as a personal expression and as part of an archetypal framework at the same
time (Lawrence, D.H.1923). In addition, Freud's technique of psycho-analysis offers the novelist a convenient way of revealing consciousness in its less developed form. In this way, Freud contributed in changing techniques of the novel.

In Jung's system, the unconscious has a dual creative purpose. It performs the duties of dream work as well as recreates the dreamer or monologuere through whose consciousness the entire history of the race is siphoned. A similar kind of principle, as Jung has discovered, works in the "myths" and "fairy tales" of a people and the dreams and the fantasies of the individual mind. He further suggests that the individual when awake, with all his perceptive faculties focused on the margin of attention, is merely himself. On the other hand, the individual reduced to a state removed from complete awareness, is directed not only by his own unconscious but by "collective consciousness". The modern novel, it could be argued, depends on the "collective unconscious" more than any other literary genre. Its elements are expressed by two currents which rarely exist apart when stream of consciousness notation is employed: mythical parallels and psychic phenomena (Jung, C. 1916). The full development of this phenomena can be traced in the novels like Joyce's "Finnegans Wake", in which the dream of the race is the subject of the work. To sum up, in Jung, the expansion of the myth motive is a curious reconciliation of James' theory of "stream" with Freud's dream processes. And, this trio together with Bergson, have exercised tremendous influence on the modern novel with respect both to its technique and subject matter.

2. Stream of Consciousness in the Modern Novel

Stream of consciousness, as a new "literary genre" or technique, has gained considerable favour after the First World War. It has been especially reserved for indicating an approach to the presentation of psychological aspects of character in fiction. The stream of consciousness novel is identified particularly by the nature of its subject matter, rather than its techniques or themes. The essential subject matter of such novels, upon analysis, reveals the consciousness
of one or more characters which serves as a screen on which the material is freely depicted. Consciousness denotes the entire area of mental attention, ranging from preconscious to the highest one of rational awareness with which all psychological fiction is concerned. Psychologists, however, point up two levels of consciousness which can be rather simply distinguished: the "speech level" and the "prespeech level". These two levels are clearly separate, but there is a point at which they overlap. The stream of consciousness fiction is most significantly concerned with the prespeech level which involves no communicative basis as does the speech level. In other words, the prespeech levels of consciousness are beyond the rational control nor can they be censored or logically ordered. In short, consciousness encompasses the whole area of mental processes including the preverbal level of thought. Sometimes, the term psyche is also used as synonymous to consciousness. Therefore, the stream of consciousness fiction may be defined as a type of fiction in which the basic emphasis is laid on the investigation of the preverbal level of consciousness for the purpose of depicting the "psychic being" of the character involved. However, when one looks into stream of consciousness fiction, one finds that the techniques employed in one novel for the presentation of characters and the subjects, are palpably different from the ones used in the other. The cause of this variation lies in the availability of a huge number of techniques which can be exploited in different ways for presenting stream of consciousness.

Henry James is thought to be the initiator of psychological novel as his novels reveal the psychological processes in which a single point of view is maintained so that the whole novel is presented through the intelligence of a character. But he does not reveal the inner recesses or the prespeech levels of consciousness. Therefore, his novels does not fall in the category which we have defined as the stream of consciousness.

The twentieth century novelist who is comparatively ignored, but who, nevertheless, is the pioneer in a completely new
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direction, is Dorothy Richardson. Although she is indebted to Henry James and Joseph Conrad in more than one way, she goes a step ahead in inventing and effectively manipulating the fictional depiction of stream of consciousness. She is probably the first novelist in England to record the growth of consciousness in her Pilgrimage. Pilgrimage is aptly described as a psychological autobiography showing how sensitive the writer is in handling the subtleties of mental functioning and how she, in the end, is overwhelmed by an overflow of realistic detail. All this is delineated through the protagonist, Miriam's continuous search for a symbolic "little coloured garden". Miriam Henderson's pilgrimage goes on and on, that is, her stream of consciousness moves on unhindered. Richardson achieves the required effect by depicting Miriam's story of his mind in a third person narrative. But there is perfect identification between Miriam's point of view with her creator's.

Dorothy Richardson's path is followed by other novelists amongst whom two figures stand out. They are Virginia Woolf and James Joyce. And, now, we turn to them to briefly discuss their contribution to the stream of consciousness novel.

Virginia Woolf continues the same tradition (stream of consciousness) in the English novel. Her three stream of consciousness novels (Mrs. Dalloway, To the Lighthouse and The Waves), are a record of her characters' preparations for the final moment of insight. Clarissa Dalloway (Mrs. Dalloway), Mrs. Ramsay (To the Lighthouse), and Lily Briscoe (To The Lighthouse) all experience their moments of vision in their search for meaning and identity. Virginia woolf's artistry lies in the way she leads her characters to the final insight for which she makes preparations in the form of fleeting insights into other characters and synthesises the present and the past private symbols. She is mainly interested in the exploration of "psychic activity" of her characters that is why she chooses extraordinarily sensitive characters. Because, the psyche of such characters may occasionally be occupied with this search. And, for her, stream of consciousness is the best medium for the
effective presentation of this complex theme. This is true of her three novels, namely: Mrs. Dalloway and To the lighthouse and The Waves. However, the last is different from the two, particularly, in approach. In these novels, she depicts her characters' search for "unification". For example, the final part of Mrs. dalloway is suggestive of "the mystic's search for cosmic identification". In the The Waves, on the other hand, Virginia Woolf is more concerned with the presentation of the spontaneous psychic life. In its eloquence, this novel is unmatched by the other two, but it lacks the symbolic significance of the characters of the two earlier novels.

James Joyce's position, in the stream of consciousness tradition, is similar to the one Mallarmé occupies among the symbolists. Joyce's Ulysses falls clearly within the tradition of stream of consciousness. And, it is in this work that he achieves perfection in exploiting different techniques, like interior monologue, montage, mimesis etc. The dexterity and diversity of approach with which he handles his novels is something to marvel at. Joyce's other works like A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man and Finnegans Wake are equally impressive in their approach and subject matter. But, in Ulysses, Joyce touches the zenith of artistic achievement.

2.1 The use of interior monologue

The term interior monologue is used to refer to a fictional technique which is employed to represent the psychic content and direct thought processes of characters. There are two basic types of interior monologue: "direct" and "indirect".

2.1.1 Direct interior monologue

Interior monologue was first used by Edouard Dujardin, the French novelist, in his novel, Les Lauriers sont Coupé (1887), which describes the events in a day through the eyes and thoughts of a young man in love (King, C.D. 1953). In the modern novel, it is employed as a favourite tool for expressing the
subjective thoughts of characters. However, it differs from traditional monologue in that it is expounded by free direct thought, first person pronoun "I", with present orientation in tense and deictics and minimal narratorial presence, that is; absence of reporting verbs (e.g. "verba dicendi or sentiendi", i.e., "he said", "he thought", etc.). In addition, it is close to unspoken thought and it may also contain idiolectal markers, but they are optional. It is, therefore, a useful technique for the fictional representation of inchoate thought processes of characters at various levels of conscious control before they are actually formulated for deliberate speech.

This technique has been exploited in stream of consciousness novel in a number of different ways. Novelists modify it according to their stylistic requirements. For example, in T. O. The Lighthouse, direct and indirect interior monologue alternate in order to show the shift in points of view. However, in Joyce's Ulysses, it is mainly used to show the rambling associative thoughts of characters to produce the dramatic effect. For example, consider the following direct interior monologue which depicts the meandering of the consciousness of Molly Bloom:

Yes because he never did a thing like that before as ask to get his breakfast in bed with a couple of eggs since the City Arms hotel when he used to be pretending to be laid up with a sick voice doing his highness...

(Joyce, J. Ulysses:659)

The opening lines of this passage are suggestive of the fact that Molly Bloom is not speaking to the reader nor is she depicted as speaking to any other character. Instead, flow of her consciousness is represented directly which goes deeper and deeper as the monologue progresses.
2.1.2 Indirect interior monologue

Indirect interior monologue is a less striking method of representing thought. It is marked by the continuous presence of narratorial voice, which is indicated by the use of third person pronouns. The narrator's presence is also exhibited by the presence of the reporting verb. Further more, the narrator guides the reader through it by describing or commenting on it. In other words, unspoken thoughts are mediated to the reader by an omniscient author; that is, the omniscient author depicts the preverbal thought directly from the consciousness of a character, but the syntax and focalisation is that of the character. It is expounded also by direct discourse; free direct discourse and indirect discourse. In addition, idiolectal features may occur as well.

Indirect interior monologue is also one of the favourite techniques that is used in the stream of consciousness novel. In Virginia Woolf's work, for example, direct and indirect interior monologues are often combined with each other. Among all the stream of consciousness writers, she exploits indirect interior monologue with great dexterity. But, for a pure example of this technique, we must turn to Joyce again. The following example is taken from the "Nausicaa" episode of Ulysses. This episode depicts Gerty MacDowell's consciousness from whose point of view the episode is represented.

...she thought he might be watching but she never made a bigger mistake in all her life because Gerty could see without looking that he never took his eyes off her and then Canon O'Hanlon handed the thurible back to Father Conroy... and she just swung her foot in and out in time as the music rose....

(Joyce, J. 1968:357)

It is more than the representation of Gerty's consciousness, rather it is the mode of consciousness represented through language.
2.2 The use of other stylistic devices

2.2.1 Montage

There is another set of devices which is used to control the movement of stream of consciousness fiction. This group of devices is analogically referred to as "cenematic" devices. Montage is one of the basic devices for the cinema. It is normally applied to indicate association or interrelation of ideas, that is piling of images upon images. It is particularly effective for showing multiplicity of views. As critics suggest, there are two methods of representing the montage: one is in which the subject remains fixed in space while his consciousness can move in time which results in "time-montage". In time-montage images and ideas combine from one time to that of another. In the other case, time remains fixed but the spatial elements change which results in "space montage". This device is frequently used in stream of consciousness fiction. Its typical example is found in Joyce's Ulysses in which it expresses movement and coexistence. Molly Bloom's entire monologue in the closing part of the novel, epitomizes this device.

2.2.2 Sensory impressions

Sensory impression, as a device, is much closer to interior monologue. The main difference lies in the range or area that is covered; sensory impression is concerned with the region furthest from the focus of attention, whereas, interior monologue covers the entire consciousness. Sensory impression is a writer's means for recording pure feelings and sensations. It marks the transposition of musical and poetical effects into fiction. The user of sensory impressions tends to rebuild the entire texture of his work on an analogy with either music or poetry. The Sirens episode of Ulysses is a fine example of the effective use of sensory impressions in fiction. This episode is built upon an analogy with "musical fugue", with which James
Joyce seems to be fairly familiar. Among other novelists, Henry James also uses sensory impressions in his novels. The underlying intent of the sensory impressions is to reproduce impressions of so personal a nature that the language, in order to capture the sensation, is bound to rely on unusual word forms and usages. In this, it is certainly much closer to poetry.

2.2.3 Internal analysis

Internal analysis is employed to condense the impressions of the character in the words of the author. Consequently, it never deviates from the region closest to guided thinking and rational control. It approaches the psychological domain which is known as 'preconscious' or 'foreconscious'. This device is associated usually with producing 'an abstraction of consciousness', a kind of relieved canvas, in stream of consciousness fiction. Robert Humphrey aptly emphasizes the technical aspect of stream of consciousness fiction in the following words:

Stream of consciousness fiction is essentially a technical feat. Its successful working-out depended on technical resources exceeding those of any other type of fiction.

(Humphrey, R. 1954: 21).

3. Stylistic analysis

In the following sections, we shall analyse two passages; one from Virginia Woolf's To The Lighthouse and the other from James Joyce's Ulysses.

This passage is taken from the first part of To The Lighthouse labelled The Window (Woolf, 1977: 93-94). Mr Bankes, Mrs Ramsay, Lily Briscoe, and other characters are shown dining together. Mrs Ramsay chooses 'a specially tender piece' of meat for Mr Bankes with meticulous care (Appendix, Text-1).
The opening sentence (1) of the passage is an example of direct discourse, but in (2), an extra dimension is added by the intrusion of the narrator thereby confirming narratorial presence. In (3), we are led to enter Mrs Ramsay's thought without any apparent indication or direction. However, one can probably assume that it is Mrs Ramsay's thought as we know from the preceding discourse that she is interested in pleasing Mr Bankes at all cost. She is also encouraged to do so because Mr Bankes appreciates the food. In (4), the tense shifts from past perfect to imperfect. The three short statements continue to engage our attention, as the mode of their presentation seems to be direct interior monologue. In (5), however, there is a shift in the mode of presentation and the monologue gives way to a free direct statement without quotation marks. In (6), the mode changes again to direct interior monologue and we are presented with Mr Bankes' thought which probably would not verbalise. In (7), focalization shifts to Mrs Ramsay who rejoices in winning back Mr Bankes' love and affection. In (8), the omniscient narrator intervenes to confirm Mrs Ramsay's thought and partly in order to conclude the passage. As the presentation of (8) suggests, we might take it as an indirect interior monologue because of the third person pronoun and the tense, but there is no way of being absolutely certain as the content of the (7) does not seem to support this view.

The opening sentence of the second paragraph is almost similar in form to the opening sentence of the preceding paragraph. Mrs Ramsay's response to the question is presented directly, and again the omniscient narrator makes a (10) comment adding more information concerning Mrs Ramsay's mood and tone of voice. The next sentence marks the shift in focalization (11), as it presents Mr Bankes' views. The mode of presentation changes as well and Mr Bankes' thought is presented by means of direct interior monologue. It continues in the next sentence (12) with added mediation on the part of the omniscient narrator by the comment 'they agreed'. In the next three sentences (13), depiction of Bankes consciousness continues which is fairly obvious as his description of English food goes on unhindered
until a link is established between Bankes' thought and direct speech in (14), but, (13) might remain ambiguous as far as its voice is concerned. In the next sentence (15), Mrs Ramsay's thought is presented by means of indirect interior monologue as the presence of the omniscient narrator may be assumed by the occurrence of 'reporting verb'. The beginning of sentence (16) is marked by the narratorial comment, but a shift takes place as we move to (17), where Mrs Ramsay's thoughts are presented through indirect interior monologue. This is indicated by the tense (past perfect and imperfect), the third person pronoun and the use of Bankes' name in an intimate (William) way. Sentence (18) adds another narratorial comment (omniscient) by pointing out Mrs Ramsay's sense of accomplishment. But these two independent clauses also mark a shift in perspective by leading to the revelation of Lily Briscoe's consciousness. This transition is completed in (19) 'till Lily Thought', and Lily's consciousness (20) is revealed through indirect interior monologue. The mode of presentation changes again in (21), and it shifts towards direct interior monologue, which is followed by indirect interior monologue again.

The pattern that emerges from the preceding analysis testifies to the fact that Virginia Woolf exploits the stream of consciousness mode fully well and the complexity of the content partly explains the need for constantly shifting viewpoints. This idea is supported by Roger Fowler in his discussion of the stream of consciousness writers, he notes:

...surface structure syntax is used to dramatize the structure of characters' and narrator's conscious thoughts, different syntaxes resulting in different impressions of flow of thought.

(Fowler, R. 1977:104)

In this excerpt, different characters use language in different ways. In other words, language is manipulated to produce the required effect. For example, notice a string of short sentences (4), depicting Mrs Ramsay's stream of thought:
each beginning with 'it was'. This repetition of the parallel structure with copula verbs followed by adjectives enhances the effect of the narrative on the one hand, and, on the other, conveys a sense of urgency on the part of Mrs Ramsay who is so anxious to please Bankes. Similarly, structural parallelism is evident in (13), when Bankes' consciousness is expressed through the repetition of 'It is putting', 'It is roasting', 'It is cutting', which is characteristic of the flow of thought of each character in this passage, and throughout the novel.

The narration, in this passage, as throughout the novel, seems to be making a series of little moves 'like the waves breaking on the rocks.' It moves from determinate attribution to indeterminate attribution, and then shifts to determinate attribution again. For example, the second passage begins by determinate attribution (9) 'said Mrs Ramsay' and moves on to indeterminate attribution, and towards the end returns to determinate attribution (22), 'Lily thought'. This cyclical movement is indicative of the natural cycles which is one of recurring theme in Virginia Woolf's novels.

Mrs Ramsay, through her concern for Mr Bankes, brings out the companionable qualities in her guest. Mr Bankes is equally encouraging in his response and shows a great deal of interest in what concerns her. Mrs Ramsay rejoices in the fact that she has won Mr Bankes' affection. Mrs Ramsay, like most of Woolf's characters, moves from one vision to another; always in search of something essential which she lacks or she has lost. She is delighted to have experienced such an ecstatic moment of love and fulfilment. Lily Briscoe, on the contrary, is disgusted at Mrs Ramsay's bizarre conversation.

Now we turn to the analysis of the second passage which is taken from James Joice's Ulysses (Text-2).

This passage is taken from the closing part of the novel. Molly Bloom is on the edge of sleep, lying in the bed when the reader meets her. Molly who has played very little direct part in the
novel after 'Calypso' is given the 'last word' of the novel. The monologue is spread over sixty pages, but we shall analyse the last passage (last page) that marks the close of the novel.

We have here a striking but typical passage of Joyce's stream of consciousness technique. Throughout the novel this is the only episode in which interior monologue continues with no intervention from the narratorial voice. The focus remains on the internal, associative thoughts of Molly. The voice and the focalisation are perfectly identical. The language of the monologue is predominantly assocative. Molly's recollections has an abundance of details of places, contexts, and conversations. Bloom is the subject of Molly's final thought.

The sentences of the passage are quite short, sometimes, consisting of clauses connected by 'and'. The lack of punctuation points out the intricately interwoven thoughts of Molly Bloom. She from the very first sentence, jumps off from topic to topic. The opening sentence 'I say stoop' is followed by a continuous chain of clauses piling upon other clauses like 'washing up dishes', 'they called it', coordinated by 'and'; creating a montage of images.

The connections between the sentences, here in this passage, are mainly associational, and these associations spring from Molly's memory. There are two types of associational connections involved here and they function in different ways. The first functions by the use of an associational connection between elements in the monologue and the second by a spatial unification of elements deployed throughout the novel. Besides, prepositional phrases frequently occur throughout the passage, for example:

'..on the pier...
'..in front of the governor house...
'..with the thing round...'
'...in the morning..' 
'...from all the ...' 
'...in the shade...' 
'...on the steps...' 

The excessive use of locative as well as temporal prepositional phrases stresses the importance of these two aspects which are equally important to Molly Bloom. The 'temporal' and 'spatial' aspects intermingle in the passage and throughout the novel. The former focuses on the subjective experience in the novel. The latter stresses the schematic aspects of the novels' construction. This is a salient characteristic of this passage as well.

Molly's stream of consciousness goes on with little external stimulus to interrupt it. Her thoughts are highly verbalised anyway, due to the absence of the need for 'symbolised perception'. It is the meandering of a relaxed mind after experiencing sweet, bitter and sour tastes of life. The repetition of 'yes' throughout the lower half of the passage points out her resignation to the external realities of life. She is, in a way, centre of her own attention. She has plunged into the sea of internal realities.

Molly's torrent of words contains some instances of figurative language as well. For example, consider the following instances:

(a) 
'...turbans like kings...' 

'...sea the sea crimson sometimes like fire...' 

(b) 
'...with old windows of posadas glancing eyes...'
In example (a), the use of similes is indicative of Molly's creative imagination. In (b), the use of metaphor 'old windows' and personification 'Flower' suggest that if one focuses too much attention to subjective sensations, one might possibly become a poet or at least creative in the use of language.

In this passage the recurring occurrence of 'he' is not a reference with indeterminate attribution. It certainly refers to Bloom, with whom Molly has spent her most memorable days and, probably, to whom she might finally return. Peake's suggestion, in this respect, is worth considering. While discussing Bloom's return to his matrimonial bed, he writes:

'...but no such information is explicitly given, although the final yes might well suggest the symbolic obliteration of the men she has known in favour of Bloom.'

(Peake, 1977:173)

4. Conclusion

The development of novel, as we have discussed, since Henry James shows an inwardness of vision. After James, the theory of novel has been influenced by the new developments in the field of Linguistics as well as Stylistics. The main thrust, in the twentieth century, remains towards the linguistic analysis. This shift in emphasis has contributed towards popularising the stream of consciousness fiction, because the linguistic and stylistic tools have equipped both the students and teachers of Language and Literature to delve deep in the maze of language. When one touches upon the illusive, and highly ambiguous works, like the stream of consciousness novels, one is all the more
inclined to form one's own personal approach to tackle the problems of description, interpretation and evaluation.

This paper has approached the stream of consciousness novel from both theoretical and analytical perspectives. As far as theory is concerned, it has close affinity with psychology, however, it is equally linked to the theory of novel. This marriage between psychology and literature is realised through the medium of language. The stream of consciousness novel is complex because its linguistic content has to express subjective reality. However, both as a genre and technique, it has exercised remarkable influence on the modern novel.

Similarly, the connection between a literary genre and evaluation is traditional one, nevertheless, the shift in focus from literary criticism to stylistic analysis, has contributed a great deal in forming different approaches to text analysis.

To sum up, the stylistic analyses of the two texts not only reveal the stylistic and linguistic differences between the two writers, but also point out the marked difference in the approach of Virginia Woolf and James Joyce. Although they follow the same tradition, the subject matter of their novels, and the techniques that they employ are entirely different. In fact, they are highly innovative and tend to modify their techniques according to the requirements of their individual styles.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


"It is a triumph," said Mr Bankes, laying his knife down for a moment. He had eaten attentively. It was rich; it was tender. It was perfectly cooked. How did she manage these things in the depths of the country? he asked her. "She was a wonderful woman. All his love, all his reverence, had returned; and she knew it.

"It is a French receipe of my grandmother's," said Mrs Ramsay, speaking with a ring of great pleasure in her voice. Of course it was French. What passes for cookery in England is an abomination (they agreed). It is putting cabbages in water. It is roasting meat until it is like leather. It is cutting off the delicious skins of vegetables. 'In which,' said Mr Bankes, 'all the virtues of vegetable is contained.' And the waste, said Mrs Ramsay. A whole French family could live on what an English cook throws away. Spurred on by her sense that William's affection had come back to her, and that everything was right again, and that her suspense was over, and that now she was free both to triumph and to mock, she laughed, she gesticulated, till Lily thought, How childlike, how absurd she was, sitting up there with all her beauty opened again in her, talking about the skin of vegetables. There was something frightening about her. She was irresistible. Always she got her own way in the end, Lily thought.

(Woolf, V. To the Lighthouse: 93-94)
I say stoop and washing up dishes they called it on the pier and
the sentry in front of the governors house with the thing round
his white helmet poor devil half roasted and the Spanish girls
laughing in their shawls and their tall combs and the auctions
in the morning the Greeks and the jews and the Arabs and the
devil knows who else from all the ends of Europe and Duke street
and the fowl market all clucking outside Larby Sharons and the
poor donkeys slipping half asleep and the vague fellows in the
cloaks asleep in the shade on the steps and the big wheels of the
carts of the bulls and the old castle thousands of years old yes
and those handsome Moors allin white and turbans like kings
asking you to sit down in their little bit of a shop and Ronda
with the old windows of posadas glancing eyes a lattice hid for
her lover to kiss the iron and the wineshops half open at night
and the castanets and the night we missed the boat at Algeciras
the watchman going about serene with his lamp and O that aweful
deep down torrent O and the sea the sea crimson sometimes like
fire ad glorious sunsets and the figtrees in the Alameda gardens
yes and all the queer little streets and pink and blue and yellow
and the rose gardens and the jessamine and geraniums and
cactuses and Gibraltar as a girl where I was a Flower of the
mountain yes when I put the rose in my hair like the Andalusian
girls used or shall I wear a red yes and how he kissed me under
the Moorish wall and I thought well as well him as another then I
asked him with my eyes to ask again yes and then he asked me
would I yes to say yes my mountain flower and first I put my arms
around him yes and drew him down to me so he could feel my
breasts all perfume yes and his heart was going like mad and yes
I said yes I will Yes

( James, J. 1968:704)
3.4.4 Textual Appropriation in Case 2b

On the following pages are presented the extracts which illustrate Student B's use of derivation as a writing strategy in Case 2b.
4.1. Types of Monitoring Theories

Monitoring theories are usually divided into two classes: the editing and the connectionist theories. In the editing theories, the monitor is external to the production system. Whereas in the connectionist theories, it is put inside the production system. The perceptual-loop theory embodies the most "parsimonious version" of the editing theories. According to this theory, the monitor is related to the language user's comprehension (speech-understanding) system. This theory has the provision for the speaker to 'monitor both his internal speech and overt speech'. But monitoring is not accessible to "intermediary results of formulating". The most notable version of connectionist theory is embodied in MacKay's node-structure theory. It assumes that the systems for language production and language understanding are largely coincident networks of connected nodes. Bottom-up priming, within the proposed network, facilitates error detection.

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1 Title has been appropriated from a section title of Levelt's text
3.4.4.2 Case 2b: Extract 5

**Student Text:**

4.1.1 Editor Theories of Monitoring

The main characteristic of the editor theories is that they allow the production results to be fed back. The device that receives this feedback is external to the production system. Such a device functions as an editor or a monitor. This device can indulge in distributive editing and can edit at different levels of processing, ranging from the planning of preverbal message to the correctness of phonological-form access. It also involves "the appropriateness of lexical access and the well-formedness of syntax". But with this kind of editing, the problem of "reduplication" creeps in. The idea of distributive editing has been put forward by Laver (1973, 1980), Wijk and Kempen (1987). Another editing device was proposed by Motley, Camden, and Baar (1982). It cannot scan at all levels, but it can check the troublesome output at the prearticulatory level. The problem with this type of editor is that, unlike distributive editor it is not present at all levels.

**Source Text:**

12.1.3 Editor Theories of Monitoring

The major feature of editor theories is that production results are fed back through a device that is external to the production system. Such a device is called an editor or a monitor. This device can be distributed in the sense that it can check in-between results at different levels of processing. The editor may, for instance, monitor the construction of the preverbal message, the appropriateness of lexical access, the well-formedness of syntax, or the flawlessness of phonological-form access. There is, so to speak, a watchful little homunculus connected to each processor. Distributed editing has been proposed by Laver (1973, 1980), De Smedt and Kempen (1987), and van Wijk and Kempen (1987).

A major problem with distributed editing is reduplication. The editor that evaluates the output of a particular processing component must incorporate the same kind of knowledge as the component it monitors; how else could it evaluate the component's output? Hence, for each level of processing there is a reduplication of knowledge: the processor's and the monitor's. Distributed editors are, moreover, not on speaking terms with the notion of components as autonomous specialists. Section 1.3 proposed a partitioning of the system such that a component's mode of operation is minimally affected by the output of other components. This principle is undermined when each processing component is controlled by some monitoring agent.

A more restricted editing device was proposed by Motley, Camden, and Baars (1982). It cannot inspect all intermediary output in the generation of speech, but only the prearticulatory output. Editing follows phonological encoding, according to these authors. The editor can intercept or veto troublesome output before it becomes articulated—hence the notion of "prearticulatory editing." (pp467-68)
3.4.4.3 Case 2b: Extract 6

**Student Text:**

In view of the these problems, the only solution seems to relate the editor with the language understanding system. The perceptual loop theory provides the best solution. There is a double perceptual loop involved in this system; whereby a speaker can attend to both his internal speech and overt speech. Pre-articulatory monitoring can be an entirely conceptual activity when it is done at the very initial stage of production.

**Source Texts:**

Text 1:

... In Levelt 1983 I elaborated this proposal by supposing that there is a double "perceptual loop" in the system--that a speaker can attend to his own internal speech before it is uttered and can also attend to his self-produced overt speech. In both cases the speech is perceived and parsed by the normal language-understanding system.(p 469)

Text 2:

... Speakers can also monitor their messages before they are formulated. They can attend to the appropriateness, the instrumentality, and the politeness of the speech act they are planning. This is an entirely conceptual activity; it need not involve any formulation or parsing. (p474)
3.4.4.4 Case 2b: Extract 7

**Student Text:**

In McKay's (1987) node structure theory, the system operates on the basis of feedback that is inherent anyhow in the activation of speech. The bottom-up priming works from the lower nodes to the higher nodes in the network. This theory postulates that language production and language comprehension are dependent on the same node structure. The whole system consists of multiple nodes that are layered and they are shared by both the production and the comprehension system. The upper-level nodes are associated with production and comprehension. The lower-level nodes are involved in 'articulation' and 'audition'. The language nodes are multi-layered. For example there are 'prepositional nodes', [sic] 'conceptual nodes', 'Syllable nodes' and 'phonological nodes'. The structurally required node becomes activated. Error detection is also done in this way, that is, through backward priming. The theory implies that, due to bottom-up priming, errors are immediately detected. Mackay's node structure theory is quite similar to Dell's (1986) theory. In Dell's theory, a node could assume the role of "current node". For example, if a "syllable-onset phoneme was required at some moment in time, the most strongly primed onset phoneme would become the current node" (Levelt, 1989:475). This is also true of the node-structure theory.

**Source Text:**

...The most far-reaching network account of monitoring is that of MacKay (1987). His node structure theory explains error detection along the following lines.

Language production and language understanding are largely subserved by one and the same node structure, a layered network of mental nodes. This is schematically represented in figure 12.4, which pictures a very small part of the network. The three mental nodes represented in the upper portion of the figure are common to production and perception. The two node types in the bottom part of the figure are specific. They are respectively, "muscle-movement nodes" and "sensory-analysis nodes". These nodes are involved in articulation and audition, respectively.

The network for language has several layers of mental nodes. There are layers of "propositional nodes," of "conceptual nodes," of "lexical nodes," of "syllable nodes," of "phonological nodes," and of (distinctive) "feature nodes." All these layers of mental nodes are shared by the production system and the comprehension system. An activated mental node primes all nodes connected to it. These, in turn, prime—to some lesser extent—the nodes connected to them, and so on. The theory is quite similar to Dell's (1986) in that it assumes bidirectional priming between layers of mental nodes. It is also similar in another respect. In Dell's theory, a node could become "current node," which would boost its activation level. When, for instance, a syllable-onset phoneme was structurally required at some moment in time, the most strongly primed onset phoneme would become the current node. The same principle is used in the node-structure theory. The most primed node in a particular domain (e.g., the domain of onset phonemes) will become the "activated" node at the moment it is structurally required. An "activated" node in the node-structure theory is equivalent to a "current" node in Dell's spreading activation theory. (pp 474-76)
3.4.4.5 Case 2b: Extract 8

Student Text:

4.2 Interruptions and Editing Expressions

4.2.1 Making the repair

Whenever a speaker notices trouble that cannot be ignored, the speaker takes the decision to interrupt speech and initiate repair. There are two issues involved, before taking the decision. The first one is temporal and it influences the speaker in taking the decision. It is "the temporal relation between detection and interruption"; that is, "Does a speaker complete certain parts of speech before halting, or is interruption immediate?" The second is how to signal to the interlocuter that "trouble is at hand" and the speaker is about to make a repair. Levelt mentions the following rule:

Source Text:

12.2 Interrupting and the Use of Editing Expressions

When a speaker detects trouble that is sufficiently alarming according to the speaker's current standards, the decision will be taken to interrupt speech and to initiate a repair. There are two issues to be considered here. The first one is the temporal relation between detection and interruption: Does a speaker complete certain parts of speech before halting, or is interruption immediate? The second is whether and how the speaker signals to the addressee that trouble is at hand and that some repair is about to be made.
3.4.4.6 Case 2b: Extract 9

Student Text:

The following example explains the rule:

(1) Here is a-er a vertical line
(Levelt, 1989:478)

This is an example of covert repair because participants do not know what troublesome item was involved in that case. In overt repair, the interruption can take place either during the utterance of the troublesome item or after its utterance. For instance, consider the following utterance in which the repair occurs after the troublesome item:

(2) straight on to green-to red
(Levelt, 1989:479)

Source Text:

12.2.1 Interrupting the Utterance

The present evident on spontaneous self-interruptions allows us to maintain the following Main Interruption Rule. (One minor but interesting exception to the rule will be discussed below.)

Main Interruption Rule:
Stop the flow of speech immediately upon detecting trouble.

This rule was first suggested and discussed by Nooteboom (1980) in his analysis of the repairs in the Meringer (1908) corpus. A detailed empirical analysis of the rule on the basis of almost 1,000 tape-recorded spontaneous self-repairs in the visual-pattern descriptions discussed above was presented in Levelt 1983. Some of the main findings of that analysis will be summarized here.

There is a variable distance between the troublesome item and the point of self-interruption. The speaker may discover trouble and interrupt himself before the trouble item is uttered. That is probably the case in a covert repair, such as the following:

(19) Here is a -er a vertical line
We do not know in this case what the troublesome item was. Maybe the speaker was about to say horizontal. At any rate, there was some reason to interrupt and restart. The repair is called "covert" because we don't know what was being repaired; 25 percent of the repairs in the corpus were of this kind. Not knowing the source of trouble, we cannot be sure about the delay between the source of the trouble and the moment of interruption. In the following we will, therefore, ignore these covert repairs and limit ourselves to overt repairs. The troublesome items will be italicized.

In overt repairs, interruption can take place during the utterance of the troublesome item, or right after it, or one or more syllables later. Figure 12.5 shows the distribution of interruption moments in the overt repairs of the pattern-description data. If indeed interruption follows on the heels of detection, the curve in figure 12.5 also reflects the distribution of error detection.

Let us begin with the immediate within-word interruptions. The following repair is an example:

(20) We can go straight on the ye-, to the orangenode
About 18 percent of the overt repairs in this corpus were of this type. Interruption can also occur just after the troublesome item, as in the following:

(21) Straight on to green-to red
This is, in fact, very common. It is the most frequent place of interruption, occurring in 51 percent of all self-repairs.

(pp478-79)
of what Morrison and Low (1983) refer to as the 'critical faculty'. Ellis, commenting on the limitations of Krashen's version of the Monitor, points out:

Krashen does not give any consideration to Monitoring as a collaborative activity involving both the learner and his interlocuter... I would also draw attention to the fact that Krashen tends to conflate Monitoring and 'learning', although the former refers to performance and latter to rule internalisation'.

(Ellis, 1985:265)

4. Current Theories of Monitoring

Speech production involves different stages consisting of conceptualization of a message, the planning of an utterance, and the production (articulation) of the planned utterance. Planning is a kind of preparatory stage that concerns "the activation and retrieval of knowledge about linguistic forms and their meanings, stored in the speaker's memory" (Hulstijn and Hulstijn, 1984:24). From planning to production, as psycholinguists suggest, several phases are involved and speakers tend to reconsider their "utterance plans" with a view to assessing the accuracy and appropriateness of their message. This reviewing process may end up in changing the entire utterance. This kind of reviewing is referred to as monitoring. Speakers usually monitor both "what they are saying and how they say it". They can extend the domain of monitoring to capture any aspect of their speech. It may involve content, syntax, lexical choices, or 'properties of phonological form'. Levelt points to some other intricate processes that speakers follow in the course of their speech. He writes:

But they do not continuously attend to all of these things simultaneously. Attention is on the one hand selective, and on the other fluctuating. Which aspects of speech are
attended to is highly dependent on the context and on the task. A speaker can be set to attend to certain kinds of errors or disfluencies, and to ignore others. Also, the detection rate fluctuates with the developing phrase structure of the current utterance; monitoring is more intense at ends of phrases.

(Levelt, 1989: 498)

4.1. Types of Monitoring Theories

Monitoring theories are usually divided into two classes: the editing and the connectionist theories. In the editing theories, the monitor is external to the production system. Whereas in the connectionist theories, it is put inside the production system. The perceptual-loop theory embodies the most "parsimonious version" of the editing theories. According to this theory, the monitor is related to the language user's comprehension (speech-understanding) system. This theory has the provision for the speaker to monitor both his internal speech and overt speech. But monitoring is not accessible to "intermediary results of formulating". The most notable version of connectionist theory is embodied in MacKay's node-structure theory. The basic assumption of this theory is that language production and language understanding systems are 'largely coincident networks of connected nodes'. Bottom-up priming, within the proposed network, facilitates error detection.

Let us look at figure 2. The (perceptual loop) view of self-monitoring is depicted in it.
Both the above mentioned theories of self-monitoring 'have their strengths and weaknesses, and both are hard to disconfirm' (Levelt, 1989: 498). Let us now consider both types of theories one by one.

4.1.1 Editor Theories of Monitoring

The main characteristic of the editor theories is that they allow the production results to be fed back. The device that receives this feedback is external to the production system. Such a device functions as an editor or a monitor. This device can indulge in distributive editing and can edit at different levels of processing, ranging from the planning of preverbal message to the correctness of phonological-form access. It also involves "the appropriateness of lexical access and the well-formedness of syntax". But with this kind of editing, the problem of "reduplication" creeps in. The idea of distributive
editing has been put forward by Laver (1973, 1980), and Wijk and Kempen (1987). Another editing device was proposed by Motley, Camden, and Baar (1982). It cannot scan at all levels, but it can check the troublesome output at the prearticulatory level. The problem with this type of editor is that, unlike a distributive editor it is not present at all levels. In view of these problems, the only solution seems to relate the editor with the language understanding system. The perceptual loop theory provides the best solution. There is a double perceptual loop involved in this system; whereby a speaker can attend to both his internal speech and overt speech. Pre-articulatory monitoring can be an entirely conceptual activity when it is done at the very initial stage of production. Alternatively, it can happen after the phonological coding of the message at this point in the process of production, the speaker can attend to his own 'inner speech' in the same way as he can attend to the speech of others (Internal Loop). In both cases the speech is perceived and parsed by the normal language comprehension system. Therefore, there is no need to postulate an independent editing device. This theory implies that only the final (pre-articulatory) plan (or inner speech) is accessible to the language comprehension system. The intermediate stages (lexical access, syntactic framing, phonological-form access) are not accessible to monitoring. Post-articulatory monitoring involves the speaker's perception of his own overt speech (External Loop). This type of monitoring is longer than the internal loop, because it requires both articulation and acoustic analysis. Both the internal and the external loop are involved in normal speech. While the external loop cannot intercept errors before the articulation begins, the internal loop can, but its effectiveness depends on how far phonetic planning is ahead of articulation. In the flow of conversation, the internal monitoring is less effective. Now we turn to connectionist theories of monitoring.
4.1.2 Connectionist Theories of Monitoring

The main feature of the connectionist theories of monitoring is "that there are no mechanisms external to the speech production apparatus involved in the control of one's own speech".

(Levitt, 1989: 474)

In McKay's (1987) node structure theory, the system operates on the basis of feedback that is inherent anyhow in the activation of speech. The bottom-up priming works from the lower nodes to the higher nodes in the network. This theory postulates that language production and language comprehension are dependent on the same node structure. The whole system consists of multiple nodes that are layered and they are shared by both the production and the comprehension system. The upper-level nodes are associated with production and comprehension. The lower-level nodes are involved in 'articulation' and 'audition'. The language nodes are multi-layered. For example there are 'prepositional nodes', 'conceptual nodes', 'Syllable nodes' and 'phonological nodes'. The structurally required node becomes activated. Error detection is also done in this way, that is, through backward priming. The theory implies that, due to bottom-up priming, errors are immediately detected. MacKay's node structure theory is quite similar to Dell's (1986) theory. In Dell's theory, a node could assume the role of "current node". For example, if a "syllable-onset phoneme" was required at some moment in time, the most strongly primed onset phoneme would become the current node" (Levitt, 1989: 475). This is also true of the node-structure theory.

4.2 Interruptions and Editing Expressions

4.2.1 Making the repair

Whenever a speaker notices trouble that cannot be ignored, the speaker takes the decision to interrupt speech and initiate repair. There are two issues involved, before taking the
decision. The first one is temporal and it influences the speaker in taking the decision. It is "the temporal relation between detection and interruption"; that is, "Does a speaker complete certain parts of speech before halting, or is interruption immediate?" The second is how to signal to the interlocuter that "trouble is at hand" and the speaker is about to make a repair. Levelt mentions the following rule:

Main Interruption Rule

'Stop the flow of speech immediately upon detecting trouble' (Nootboom, 1980: as quoted in Levelt, 1989: 478)

The following example explains the rule:

(1) Here is a--er a vertical line--
    (Levelt, 1989: 478)

This is an example of covert repair because participants do not know what troublesome item was involved in that case. In overt repair, the interruption can take place either during the utterance of the troublesome item or after its utterance. For instance, consider the following utterance in which the repair occurs after the troublesome item:

(2) Straight on to green-to red
    (Levelt, 1989: 479)

Editing expressions occur when the speaker usually halts after self-interruption. These expression fill in the pause that follows self-interruption. Some of them are: er, that is, sorry, I mean, etc.

Some major targets of monitoring relate to the form of the message, way of expressing the message, the manner of speech, the social standards, lexical error, syntactic or morphological error, sound-form error and speed, loudness and fluency.
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INTRODUCTION

This paper attempts to explore the different aspects of stream of consciousness in the modern English novel. It mainly focuses on the works of Virginia Woolf and James Joyce, the two major novelists who have exploited this tradition by using various techniques which are identified with the stream of consciousness fiction and reveal some of the most striking features of this type of fiction. In discussing the genesis of the stream of consciousness fiction, it also occasionally refers to other writers if it is deemed essential because of their contribution to this type of genre in fiction. As the first part of this paper is theory driven, it mainly concentrates on tracing the historical background and the psychological basis on which the Stream of consciousness fiction depends for its origination and later orientation. It also briefly discusses the use of different techniques which are usually associated with the stream of consciousness fiction. The second part centres on the stylistic analysis of two passages, one taken from Virginia Woolf's To The Lighthouse (Text-1), and one from James Joyce's Ulysses (Text-2).

1. The Historical Perspective

1.1 Stream of consciousness

William James, the American psychologist, first used the term "stream of consciousness" in his epoch-making work Principles of Psychology (1904. Chapt. 8, 9). He employed this metaphorical expression to delineate the surge of thoughts as a "stream" or "flux of the mind" (Edel, L. 1955: 19). James uses this phrase in quite an extensive sense as it also captures the changing nature of thoughts and sensations in a person's mind at any given moment. In his theories, he attaches special importance to "the nondirected and associative thinking" and terms it as the single most important kind of thinking. Further he asserts that this kind of thinking is one of the most important of its kind, and should be preferred to all other
kinds. Thoughts, according to him, are formed largely as a combination of succeeding images which are placed side by side in such an intricate way that their true rendition is beyond the domain of ordinary speech patterns. This assertion concerning the inexpressibility of inner thoughts springs from his belief that because thoughts and feelings consist of a chain of images, it is therefore almost impossible to encompass them by means of the "spoken word" (Friedman, M. 1955: 74). James' profound interest in the inner recesses of thoughts is indicative of a growing interest in this area at the end of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century. He translates his interest by giving a theoretical basis to this psychological principle, which was later exploited by different writers in psychological writings, as a result of which, stream of consciousness became a widely used term in the theory of novel in the twentieth century.

Although it is difficult to define stream of consciousness in precise terms, it is commonly used to designate the drifting of the mind on the verge of collapsing into unconsciousness. In fiction, it is generally marked by illogical, mainly associative thought patterns which are rendered through constantly changing syntactic patterns and focalisation (Black, E. 1994).

1.2 The psychological basis

William James tries to concretise the newly discovered sphere of psychological notation in his highly illuminating prose. While describing this domain, he writes:

As we take, in fact, a general view of the wonderful stream of our consciousness, what strikes us first in this different pace of its parts. Like a bird's life, it seems to be made of an alternation of flights and perchings. The rhythm of language expresses this, where every thought is expressed in a sentence, and every sentence closed by a period. (James, 1904: 243)
James advances his introspective theory by attempting to process and uncover this new aspect of time, that is, "different pace of its parts", and in this, he gives the psychological basis to stream of consciousness in relation to individuals and the language that they use as a medium for expressing their internal, subjective thoughts and sensations. Besides, as he asserts, if individuals speak objectively, it is the underlying "relations that appear revealed"; if they speak subjectively, it is the stream of consciousness or flow of thought that is unveiled (James, W. 1904: 245). Therefore, the crucial distinction between objective and subjective thinking is of paramount importance as it ultimately determines the nature of a given revelation.

After James, this subject was explored by the famous French philosopher Henry Bergson. While James' theory of stream of thought has a purely psychological tint, Bergson's notion of space and time has a distinctly philosophical bias. Bergson divides time into two categories, that of; "spatial" time and "pure" time. On the basis of this distinction, he categorises the former as quantitative which has "magnitude", but he warns against discussing time in spatial terms and suggests that this kind of thinking is the result of erroneous thinking on the part of those who insist on treating time in strictly "spatial terms". The second category, the "real" (pure) time, is also labelled as "psychological time" or "duration". This category deals with time as a succession of nows instead of capturing moments as being juxtaposed. In this category, moments tend to merge into one another (Kumar, S. K. 1952: 21, 118). The idea Bergson is putting forward is that there is no real contact between the real and the spatial time, that is, one can be understood by means of the other or one can be taken as the equivalent of the other; and sooner or later the assimilation of the two is inevitable. But, this assimilation entails the danger that may lead to a confusion when one is penetrating into the inner core of consciousness. In other words, the act of descending into the depths of consciousness precludes the possibility of treating psychological data as objects placed
side by side. This leads one to the awareness that one can envisage reality in two possible ways: one is by making use of one's intelligence, which can view things in spatial terms. The other is the intuition, which, in order to interpret, views the movement of an object from inside. This particular faculty is capable of penetrating into the source of objects and viewing consciousness as an "unbroken psychic flux". The role of memory is equally important in Bergson's system and he terms it as the most important constituent of consciousness. Consciousness, according to Bergson, not only denotes memory, but it is memory that preserves and accumulates the past in the present. This aspect of Bergson's theory is pervasive in almost all stream of consciousness fiction (Bergson, H. 1910, 1911).

Freud and Jung built on the work of James and Bergson. Freud makes a major breakthrough by putting forward the idea of the "unconscious" when the main focus of psychology was on explicating the nature of consciousness together with the boundaries of conscious knowledge. Freud touched upon this subject through his indepth analysis of dreams and consequently enhanced the importance of unconscious by regarding it as the "real psyche", or "the larger circle which includes the smaller circle of the conscious" (Freud, s. 1938: 542). Freud's theory, particularly his dream work is highly significant as it opens up new vistas for the psychological novel. Friedman describes his theory in the following words:

Freud's theory offers two guides to the modern novel. His dream work suggests both the distortion of material beyond the traditional forms and its control by the timeless schema of the myth. The unconscious is treated as a personal expression and as part of an archetypal framework at the same time.

( Friedman, M. 1955: 105)

In addition, Freud's technique of psycho-analysis offers the
novelist a convenient way of unveiling consciousness in its less developed form. To sum up, one can say that Freud's work in the field of psychology has tremendously influenced the modern novel and this influence has led to the modification of different techniques employed in the modern psychological novel.

Although Jung follows in the footsteps of Freud, he definitely takes a leap forward by presenting his own system regarding the unconscious and by also replenishing it with a creative purpose. In his system, the unconscious has two roles. It allows one to dream and also describes the dreamer. In addition, through the projection of the dreamer, the past of the entire race can be traced and understood. It may, therefore, be assumed that the dual role assigned to the unconscious in Jung's system is doubly creative. It is important to note that Jung emphasises the role of "collective unconscious" (Jung, C. 1916), which in his view, is inalienably linked with the individual unconscious. In other words, the self-conscious and attentive or highly perceptive individual is nothing more than himself. On the contrary, the individual who is in a state of limbo; the degree of whose awareness is much less, is influenced and guided not by his own unconscious but by the collective unconscious. Jung's contribution to introspective psychology can be described as a replenishing surge of life for the psychological novel as it enriched the range of such fiction by making the unconscious or collective unconscious the major subject of the modern novel.

The stream of consciousness fiction makes excessive use of the two most important elements of Jung's theory, namely: 'mythical parallels and psychic phenomena' (Friedman, M. 1955: 111-113). The stream of consciousness literature is fraught with these two elements and these two components combined with other similar elements provide the psychological basis to the modern novel. To sum up, in Jung's theory in general and the myth motive in particular, one finds a curious rapport between James' theory of "Stream" and Freud's theories of dreams. This trio together with Bergson, have exerted tremendous influence on the modern novel both with respect to its technique and subject matter.
2. Stream of Consciousness in the Modern Novel

Stream of consciousness, as a new genre in fiction, has become increasingly popular after the First World War. It is basically indicative of a novel approach which has been exploited for the presentation of various psychological aspects of different characters in this type of fiction. The most salient feature of this type of fiction which distinguishes it from other types, has most commonly been the nature of its subject-matter and the way it is treated by employing a number of different techniques by the novelists concerned. If one analyses the subject matter of such novels, one is led to discover the inwardness of vision of different characters whose inner lives make up the subject matter of a particular piece of fiction. In other words the main concern of the writer has almost always been to reveal the consciousness of different characters. Consciousness, in this type of fiction, is often depicted as covering the entire range of "mental attention" (Humphry, R. 1954: 2), ranging from the preconscious stage to the one of complete awareness. According to Robert Humphry, there are two levels of consciousness; "the speech level and the prespeech level". Though, apparently, they have no affinity but at certain point they can converge. Humphry further points up that the "prespeech level" is the focus of attention in the stream of consciousness fiction mainly because it "involves no communicative basis as does the speech level..." (Humphry, R. 1954: 2-3). An explanation, for exposing delicate thoughts and sensations of characters in such novels, can be sought in the fact that they mainly deal with the different levels and degrees of consciousness. On the basis of this assumption, the stream of consciousness fiction can be designated as a particular type of fiction which is essentially concerned with exploring the psychic currents and cross-currents which find a freplay in a given situation in the psyche of the characters involved. In order to depict this kind of mental flux, novelists make use of a set of different techniques depending on the subject of the novel. If one studies stream of consciousness fiction, one finds that the novelists employ a variety of such techniques which are closely associated with this type of fiction. In addition they use them...
in a highly innovative way. As a result, the techniques employed in one novel may be strikingly different from the ones used in the other. Moreover, the availability of a large variety of techniques is also partly responsible for the variation in the use of such techniques in the stream of consciousness fiction. As such techniques offer a number of different flexible ways in which the writers can exhibit the mental meanderings of their fictional characters.

The twentieth century novelist who is comparatively ignored, but who, nevertheless, pioneered the shift in focus from external to internal reality as a subject in the modern English novel, was Dorothy Richardson. Although she is indebted to Henry James and Joseph Conrad in more than one way, she goes a step ahead in inventing and effectively manipulating the fictional rendition of stream of consciousness. She is probably the first English novelist who has attempted to show the different developmental stages of consciousness of the protagonist in her Pilgrimage. Pilgrimage is aptly described as an autobiography in which showing the psychic growth of the protagonist is Richardson's main concern. The handling of the subject shows how sensitive the writer is in recording the intricacies of the "mental functioning" and how she, in the end, is overwhelmed by the amorphous torrent of "realistic detail". All this is delineated through the protagonist's (Miriam) unending search for a symbolic "little coloured garden" (Humphry, R. 1954: 10). Richardson accomplishes this feat by employing a third person narrative in order to delineate the story of Miriam's mind. But, it is interesting to note that there is perfect identification between the points of view of both, the protagonist as well as the novelist. Although Dorothy Richardson could not exhaust all the possibilities in her single piece of this type of fiction, she certainly opened up new vistas for posterity.

After Dorothy Richardson, Virginia Woolf continues to follow the tradition (stream of consciousness) handed down to her by Richardson. In her three stream of consciousness novels (Mrs. Dalloway, To the Lighthouse and The Waves), she is mainly
concerned with exploring the nature of human relationship
together with their emotions, thoughts and feelings at various
stages of their development. She also shows how her characters
grope their way to the final moment of self-realization for the
achievement of which they endeavour throughout their fictional
lives. Almost all her characters like, Clarissa Dalloway
(Mrs. Dalloway), Mrs. Ramsay (To the Lighthouse), and Lily
Briscoe (To The Lighthouse), bring considerable insight to bear
on increasingly perplexing inner problems in their quest for
meaning and recognition. Virginia woolf's artistry lies in the
way she creates a situation and then exploits it by exposing the
subjective feelings and emotions of the characters involved in
order to achieve the desired effect. She is mainly interested in
the exploration of psychic being of her characters and her
highly sensitive nature of her characters serve this purpose
very well. For her, the best medium for the effective
representation of stream of consciousness remains to be
interior monologue. She handles the complex themes which run
through her three novels, namely: Mrs. Dalloway, To the
lighthouse The Waves, with great deal of skill and ingenuity.
Robert Humphry describes Virginia Woolf's novels in the
following words:

The fulfilment of her characters is therefore
achieved when Virginia Woolf feels they are ready to
receive the vision. The novels are a record of their
preparations for the final insight. The preparations
are in the form of fleeting insights into other
characters and syntheses of present and past private
symbols ( Humphry, R. 1954: 13).

James Joyce's position, in the stream of consciousness
tradition, is similar to the one Mallarmé occupies among the
symbolists. Joyce's Ulysses falls clearly within the stream of
consciousness tradition. And, it is in this work that he
achieves perfection in exploiting different techniques, like
interior monologue, montage, mimesis etc. The dexterity and
diversity of approach with which he handles his novels is something to marvel at. Joyce's other works like *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* and *Finnegans Wake* are equally impressive in their approach and subject matter. But, in *Ulysses*, Joyce exhausts almost all the possibilities as far as linguistic and narrative techniques are concerned. And, it is in this work that he touches the zenith of artistic achievement.

2.1 The use of interior monologue

The term interior monologue is used to refer to a fictional technique which is employed to represent the consciousness of characters. This technique is usually associated with stream of-consciousness fiction. It is considered to be an extended form of Browning's dramatic monologue. But it is more close to another technique known as soliloquy. There are two basic types of interior monologue: "direct" and "indirect" (Black, E. 1994).

2.1.1 Direct interior monologue

Interior monologue was first used by Edouard Dujardin, the French novelist, in his novel, *Les Lauriers sont Coupe* (1887), which describes the events in a day through the eyes and thoughts of a young man in love (King, C.D. 1953). In the modern novel, it is employed as a favourite tool for expressing the subjective unspoken thoughts of characters. However, it differs from traditional monologue in that it is expounded by free direct thought, first person pronoun "I", with present orientation in tense and deictics, and, minimal narratorial presence, that is; absence of reporting verbs (e.g. "verba dicendi or sentiendi", i.e., "he said", "he thought", etc.). In addition, it is close to unspoken thought and it may also contain idiolectal markers, but they are generally optional. It is, therefore, a useful technique for the fictional representation of preverbal thought processes, functioning at various levels of consciousness in the psyche of the characters involved, before they are actually transformed into speech.
This technique has been exploited in stream of consciousness novel in a number of different ways. Novelists modify it according to their stylistic requirements. For example, in To the Lighthouse, direct and indirect interior monologue alternate in order to show the shift in points of view. However, in Joyce's Ulysses, it is mainly used to show the rambling associative thoughts of characters to produce the dramatic effect. For example, consider the following direct interior monologue which depicts the flow of consciousness of Molly Bloom:

Yes because he never did a thing like that before as ask to get his breakfast in bed with a couple of eggs since the City Arms hotel when he used to be pretending to be laid up with a sick voice doing his highness...

(Joyce, J. Ulysses: 559)

The opening lines of this passage are suggestive of the fact that Molly Bloom is not speaking to the reader nor is she depicted as speaking to any other character. Instead, flow of her consciousness is represented directly which goes deeper and deeper as the monologue progresses.

2.1.2 Indirect interior monologue

Indirect interior monologue is a less striking method of representing thought. It is marked by the overt presence of narratorial voice, which is indicated by the use of third person pronouns. The narrator's intervention is exhibited by the presence of the reporting verb. Furthermore, the narrator guides the reader through it by describing or commenting on it. In other words, unspoken thoughts are mediated to the reader by an omniscient narrator; that is, the omniscient narrator depicts the preverbal thought directly from the consciousness of a character, but the syntax and focalisation is that of the character. It is expounded also by direct discourse; free direct discourse and indirect discourse. In addition,
Idiolectal features may occur as well.

Indirect interior monologue is also one of the favourite techniques used in the stream of consciousness novel. In Virginia Woolf's work, for example, direct and indirect interior monologues are often combined with each other. Among all the stream of consciousness writers, she exploits indirect interior monologue with great dexterity. But, for a pure example of this technique, we must turn to Joyce again. The following example is taken from the "Nausicaa" episode of Ulysses. This episode depicts Gerty MacDowell's consciousness from whose point of view the episode is represented.

...she thought he might be watching but she never made a bigger mistake in all her life because Gerty could see without looking that he never took his eyes off her and then Canon O'Hanlon handed the thurible back to Father Conroy... and she just swung her foot in and out in time as the music rose....

(Joyce, J. 1968: 357)

It is more than the representation of Gerty's consciousness, rather it is the entire mode of consciousness represented by means of language.

2.2 The use of other stylistic devices

2.2.1 Montage

Montage is another important technique which has become a handy device for the stream of consciousness writers. It originally belongs to a set of devices commonly associated with techniques related to cinema. Montage is usually applied to a subject in order to denote a chain of ideas by piling up images upon images. It is especially effective in projecting different strands of characters' inner thoughts or their subjective views. According to David Daiches, there are two distinct ways of
building up a montage. In the first, the character concerned remains static within the boudaries of "space", but his "consciousness" can keep vacillating "in time" breaking all the existing temporal boundaries and mixing past and present. This is referred to as "time montage". In the second, on the other hand; space is to be in a state of flux while time can be treated as static. This is designated as "space montage" (Daiches, D. 1942: 66). This device is frequently used in stream of consciousness fiction. Virginia Woolf and James Joyce have made excessive use of it in their works. Its typical example is found in Joyce's Ulysses in which Molly Bloom's closing monologue is a fine specimen of the appropriate use of this technique, rather it epitomizes this device.

2.2.2 Sensory impression

Sensory impression, as a technical device, is another way of presenting a character's feelings and sensations. Seemingly, it is much closer to interior monologue, nevertheless, there are some points of difference. One of the main concerns of sensory impression is to bring into focus the remote regions that lie beyond the realm of attention. On the contrary, interior monologue is concerned with encompassing the whole area of consciousness. Sensory impression, as a mode of rendering delicate feelings, makes the writer choose some unusual linguistic expressions which could truly capture and convey the essence of those sensations. It is through this device that writers sometimes bring musical and poetic effects into fiction. It is best exemplified in the Sirens episode of Ulysses which Joyce has modelled on musical fugue with which Joyce seems to be fairly familiar. Among other novelists, Henry James also uses sensory impression in his novels to good effect. The use of sensory impression by the stream of consciousness writers indicates the complex nature of the subject-matter which they have to handle through different means. Therefore, in order to capture highly personal impressions, sensations and feelings, they are bound to rely on unusual linguistic means. Probably, this is why they employ sensory impression,
and, possibly, this is why the language they use, sometimes, appears to be much closer to poetry. They achieve poetic effect in fiction by using sensory impression.

2.2.3 Internal analysis

Internal analysis is also a widely used fictional device. It has been a favourite technique with the stream of consciousness writers. It provides another mode for the presentation of the subject's immediate impressions. These impressions are rendered through the language of the narrator. Internal analysis mostly covers that region of the character's mind which is usually associated with language. The mode employed to render the character's impressions is generally indirect and narrative with the added presence of the narratorial voice. The most interesting point to note about this device is that it can be extended, through narrative, to cover the entire piece of fiction.

There are a number of other techniques such as mimesis, diagesis, prose soliloquy etc., which are available for use, and, which also add to the resourcefulness of this type of novel as far as techniques are concerned. Robert Humphry aptly emphasizes the richness of "technical resources" of the stream of consciousness fiction. He writes:

Stream of consciousness fiction is essentially a technical feat. Its successful working-out depended on technical resources exceeding those of any other type of fiction.

(Humphrey, R. 1954: 21).
3. Stylistic Analysis

Stylistic analysis involves the linguistic description, analysis and interpretation of a given text. It is a systematic way of picking out the recurring linguistic and stylistic features which distinguish one text from the other and one writer from the other. In the following section, we shall analyse two passages; one from Virginia Woolf's To the Lighthouse and the other from James Joyce's Ulysses.

This passage is taken from the first section of To the Lighthouse labelled The Window, section 17 (Woolf, V. 1992: 109, 110). In this scene a number of characters share a meal. Mr Ramsay occupies the central position in this scene because she is responsible for arranging the whole event. In this particular text, Mrs Ramsay is shown conversing with Mr Bankes. Their conversation, however, is interposed between the unspoken reflections of both Mrs Ramsay and Mr Bankes throughout the text, and Lily Briscoe's in the final part of the second passage (Appendix, Text-1).

The first passage opens with Mr Bankes' Direct Speech (DS). It is a direct quotation from Mr Bankes' conversation as it is presented within commas with the addition of reporting verb. The mode of presentation of the opening sentence (1), therefore, is Direct Speech. In (2), an extra dimension is added by the presence of the narratorial voice in the form of a comment on Mr Bankes' preceding movement. In (3), Mrs Ramsay's unspoken reflections are revealed through Free Indirect Thought (FIT). In (4), Mrs Ramsay's consciousness is projected by means of narrated monologue. One notices change in the mode in (3), in which Mrs Ramsay's Free Indirect Thought (FIT) is projected, the same mode continues in (4). The past perfect tense in (3) and the past imperfect in (4), indicate that Mrs Ramsay's thoughts are represented by means of psycho-narration. In (5), Mr Bankes' utterance is recorded by means of Indirect Speech as is indicated by the third person pronoun (she), and the past tense but the deictic (these) is anchored to the speaker. In (6), we are again led to peep into Mr Bankes' mind where his unspoken
thoughts find a free play. The mode appears to be Free Indirect Thought as is indicated by the past tense with the absence of reporting clause. In (7), focalization shifts to Mrs Ramsay who is joyous over her winning Mr Bankes' approval and affection. The narratorial comment at this juncture sheds more light on Mrs Ramsay's inner feelings and impressions. The third person pronouns and the past perfect tense are suggestive of the mode being Free Indirect Thought (FID). In (8), the narratorial comment is added to confirm Mrs Ramsay's burgeoning hopes.

The next paragraph opens with an instance (9) of Direct Speech. The inverted commas give clear indication that it is a direct quotation attributed to Mrs Ramsay. The narratorial comment in (10), brings out the tenor of Mrs Ramsay's utterance. In (11), the shift in focalization is marked by foregrounding Mr Bankes' reflections. The chain of Mr Bankes' thoughts is rendered by means of Free Indirect Thought (FIT) in (11). But, in (12), the mode switches to Free Direct Thought with the terse comment on the part of the omniscient narrator '(they agreed)', which signifies the existence of harmony between the views of both the characters involved. In (13), throughout the string of three short sentences, Mr Bankes' ideas are presented through Free Direct Speech. Mr Bankes' speech culminates in (14), in the direct quotation from conversation about food (DS). It is given within inverted commas and the mode appears to be Direct Speech. However, it is split by the insertion of the reporting clause (said Mr Bankes). In (15), Mrs Ramsay's thoughts are foregrounded by means of Indirect Speech (ID). The narrator's presence is marked by the presence of the reporting verb, and perhaps, her speech is reported in the narrator's words. In (16), the narratorial voice adds an extra dimension to the ensuing Free Indirect Thought in (17), by means of which Mrs Ramsay's consciousness is projected. In (18), the omniscient narrator's comments, (she laughed, she gesticulated), point to Mrs Ramsay's sense of accomplishment and pride and also mark the shift in focus. In (19), through the narratorial mediation, Lily Briscoe's deliberation is brought into focus. This revelation of Lily's consciousness is completed in (20). The mode employed for representing Lily's feelings and sensations
is Indirect Thought (IT). In (21), the style switches to Free Indirect Thought (FIT) and it changes to Indirect Thought again in (22) as 'Lily thought' indicates.


The pattern that emerges from the preceding analysis, testifies to the fact that Woolf exploits the techniques associated with the stream of consciousness literature fully well by using different modes for representing the consciousness of the characters involved. Her shifting style also suggests that the complexity of the subject matter explains the need for constantly changing viewpoints. The link between the different shades of consciousness and the resulting syntaxes is noted by Roger Fowler in his discussion of the SOC writers, he writes:

... surface structure syntax is used to dramatize the structure of characters' and narrator's conscious thoughts, different syntaxes resulting in different impressions of flow thought.

( Fowler, R. 1977: 104 )

In this excerpt, different modes are employed for representing the thoughts and feelings of different characters. In other words, the writer manipulates the mode of representation in order to produce the required stylistic effect. For example, notice a string of short sentences in (4), through which Mrs Ramsay's flow of thoughts is represented, each beginning with 'it was'. This repetition of the parallel structure with copula verbs followed by adjectives, enhances the effect of the narrated thoughts, on the one hand, and, on the other, conveys the prevailing sense of urgency on the part of Mrs Ramsay who is so anxious to please Mr Bankes. Similarly, structural parallelism is evident in (13), where Mr Bankes' consciousness is projected through the repetition of 'It is putting...', 'It is roasting...', 'It is cutting...', which is characteristic of the flow of Mr Bankes' thoughts in the extract. Virginia Woolf's
way of handling the narrative is remarkable. For example, consider the first sentence of the passage, which opens with Direct Speech (DS) with clear attribution to Mr Bankes, and is followed by a narratorial note, but the next sentence gives no hint as to whose reflections are being shown through it. But from the context, it appears that Mrs Ramsay's reflections are being revealed through 'direct interior monologue' (Leaska, M. A. 1970: 51). As the narrative progresses, Direct Speech gives way to Indirect Speech or Thought and then the mode shifts to Free Indirect Thought. Similarly direct interior monologue slips into indirect interior monologue. For example, notice the presentation of Mrs Ramsay's unspoken thoughts in (17), where her thoughts are uncovered through 'indirect interior monologue' (Leaska, M. A. 1970: 52). This alternation between direct and indirect interior monologue for revealing the thought processes of different characters mirrors the intricate nature of feelings and sensations which are involved at different levels of awareness. This sense of movement, and constant shifts in orientation on the part of the characters, and the way Woolf exploits them to serve her stylistic requirements, is the hallmark of Woolf's commendable but complex style. Another important point to be mentioned is the presence of a small lexical set in (13) to (15), where Mr Banks comments about the food are presented. (cabbages, meat, vegetables) belong to a set which can be labelled 'Food'.

Mrs Ramsay, in this piece of text, is the centre round whom the entire narrative moves. She being the central figure, controls or seems to control the events; little events which largely consist of non-verbalised reactions or responses and sometimes do get translated into words. Mrs Ramsay, through her concern for Mr Bankes, touches good sense and candour in him. Mr Bankes, on the other hand, does show resilience and involvement and reciprocates with great deal of concern for her. On the contrary, Lily Briscoe's consciousness is shown through her utter disgust at Mrs Ramsay's bizarre conversation.

Now we turn to the analysis of the second passage which is taken from James Joice's Ulysses (Text-2).
This passage is taken from the closing part of Ulysses. Molly Bloom is on the verge of sleep, lying in the bed when the reader meets her. Although she has played very little direct part in the novel after Calypso, she is given the opportunity to mark the close of the novel by unveiling her consciousness through the longest interior monologue in the entire novel. The monologue is spread over sixty pages, but we shall attempt to analyse the short extract taken from the closing part of the novel.

In this short extract we have a prime and typical example of Joyce's stream of consciousness technique. Throughout the novel this is the only episode in which interior monologue continues unhindered with no intervention from the narratorial voice. The focus remains on Molly's internal, associative thoughts. The voice and the focalization are perfectly identical. The language of the monologue is predominantly colloquial. Molly's recollections contain abundance of details of places, contexts, and conversations. And Bloom is the centre round whom Molly's final thoughts revolve.

The most striking feature of the passage is the total absence of graphemics like punctuation and paragraphing. One also notices that other graphological markers such as apostrophes in contractions and in the possessive case (kings instead of kings') are missing as well. The absence of punctuation marks, on the one hand, makes the extract more complex as it is difficult to pinpoint pauses, on the other, it reflects the intricately interwoven texture of Molly's reflections. However, the intonation patterns, that may indicate the mood of the monologuer, cannot be easily determined without the presence of punctuation. The capitalization of some lexical items is another notable graphological feature, for example 'Flower' in (22), and 'Yes' in (29). This is one of the recurring features of Joyce's style.

The opening (1) of the passage with the first person pronoun 'I', immediately establishes the mode of representation of
Molly's consciousness. The use of first person pronoun combined with the present tense, denote the subjective orientations. All these markers indicate that the mode employed is interior monologue. The words are lumped together as they occur in Molly's mind. The main binding principle seems to be the principle of free association which covertly guides her rambling thoughts. In the first (5) lines, Molly's consciousness is projected through the juxtaposition of a string of clauses (I say stoop, they called it, etc.), Noun Phrases (washing up dishes, Spanish girls laughing, etc.), prepositional phrases (on the pier, in front of the governor house, etc.), adjective phrases (half roasted), mostly linked by coordination, that is by the use of 'and', or, 'with' in (2). The occurrence of third person plural pronoun (they) in (1), may be taken as an anaphoric reference which is a vital aspect of cohesion. Throughout these (5) lines, and probably throughout the whole passage, Molly's meandering mind slips from one topic to another, giving no indication of change in the topic.

From (5) to (10), one notices another set of Noun and Prepositional phrases put together by means of coordinating conjunctions (and). But these phrases have premodifiers or postmodifiers which make them dense. For example consider in (4), (the auctions in the morning), here (the auctions) is modified by the Prepositional Phrase (in the morning), which follows the noun phrase, and therefore, can be termed as a postmodifier. Similarly, one can pick out, (the vague fellows in the cloaks asleep in the shades...), as an example of premodification and postmodification as well. In this instance (8), (fellows) has the determiner (the) and the adjective (vague), which occur before it (NP). Their occurrence modifies the meaning of the head NP (fellows). (fellows) is also postmodified by (in the cloaks asleep in the shade...). This phenomena continues throughout the entire passage. In (10) to (15), the same conglomerate of Noun Phrases and clauses like (to sit down... Non-finite Cl.) in (12) and (to kiss... Non-finite Cl.) in (14) continue to represent Molly's flow of thoughts. There may be a hint of irony in (12), in (their little bit of a shop), if we compare it with (11), (the handsome Moors...).
the phrase, (little bit of a shop), (little bit of a...) is a colloquial expression rather a cliche, often used in mundane conversation. In (12), the use of second person pronoun (you), which is usually used to refer to an addressee in face to face conversation, may be referring to an imagined addressee. In this particular context, the addressee can be no one except Bloom. From (15) onwards, Molly, through her memory, conjures up a chain of images, images pile upon images building up a montage of images. In (16) and (17), with phrases such as (O that awful deepdown torrent) and repetition of (O the sea the sea crimson ...) produce almost poetic effect. There are some instances of the use of figurative language as well, for example, (glorious sunsets) may be taken as a metaphorical expression. Similarly, (the sea crimson sometimes like fire), is an example of a broken simile. In (19), we have another string of premodified Noun Phrases like (all the queer little streets), in addition to (the glorious sunsets) in (18). In (20), images of colours (pink and blue and yellow houses) are lumped together with the images of gardens, plants and mountain (the rosegardens and geraniums and cactuses and Gibraltar). The first two Plants are usually associated with gardens or more specifically home gardens, whereas, the last one (cactuses) grows in deserts. Moreover, all these plants make a lexical set. In (22), Molly is personified as the (Flower of the mountain) through the figurative use of flower. From (2) until (22), we find that the first person pronoun 'I' is conspicuously absent, however, there is one instance (15) where the first person plural pronoun (we) occurs. In (22), (I) reappears and becomes the centre of attention. The language appears to be self-reflective, and with the intrusion of the personal pronoun, Molly plunges into the depths of consciousness, recollecting her past sweet experiences which she had shared with Bloom. We can note the use of verbs here, verbs like (put, wear, kissed, thought, drew, feel, asked, said ); signify her activities and responses in different situations. It is also interesting to note that the verbs deployed from (25) to (30) are more in number than those used in the whole extract. The verbs like 'put' as in (I put my arms...), and (drew him down...), denote action, and, therefore assertion on the part
of Molly Bloom.

The whole passage is knit by the associational connections that spring from Molly's memory. These associational links function throughout the passage. They mainly function to connect diverse elements which are scattered in Molly's monologue by the use of past associations to persons and places. Besides, the excessive use of locative and temporal Prepositional Phrases underscores the importance of these two aspects which are equally important to Molly. The intermingling of these two aspects sheds light on the intensity of her subjective experience. Molly's stream flows without a moment's interruption from anything external. It is the meandering of a relaxed, liberated mind after going through sweet, bitter and sour experiences of life. Molly shows total resignation to external realities and recognizes herself as the centre of her own attention. Gottfried's comments on Molly's language are worth-considering, he writes:

The reply, Molly's repeated and impassioned yes, is the language of unlimited possibilities. Her language disdains all constraints and limits: punctuation, grammar, syntax. The reply is the affirmation of the spirit behind language, and of language which frees the spirit.

( Gottfried, R. K. 1980: 147 ).

By analysing this short extract, we have accumulated some of the recurring linguistic and stylistic features which make Joyce's style so complex. He is adept at manipulating his language and style to suit the subject matter. The complexity of his style mainly lies in the fact that the subject matter of the extract is also complex as it deals with the internal mainly associative thought processes of Molly Bloom. The excessive use of premodifiers and postmodifiers with Nominal Phrases indicate how difficult it is to capture such experiences through language. Joyce, as we have seen, succeeds in skilfully handling and translating the highly illusive content of Molly's rambling thoughts by the medium of language. The pace of the
progression of her monologue necessitates the use of locative and temporal prepositional phrases because the language must show the uninterrupted flow of her thoughts. In achieving this effect, Joyce employs devices like montage, and sometimes uses figurative expressions like (half roasted) for the sentry in (3). Joyce's perfection in manipulating the colloquial language, in order to show truly subjective realities, is something to marvel at.

4. Conclusion

The main thrust, in the twentieth century, has been towards the linguistic analysis of literary texts. This shift in emphasis has popularised the stream of consciousness fiction, because the linguistic and stylistic tools have equipped both the students and teachers of Language and Literature to delve deep into the maze of language. When one touches upon the illusive, and highly ambiguous works, like the stream of consciousness novels, one is all the more inclined to form one's own personal approach to tackle the problems of description, analysis and interpretation.

This paper has approached the stream of consciousness novel from both theoretical and analytical perspectives. As far as theory is concerned, it has close affinity with psychology, however, it is equally linked to the theory of novel. This marriage between psychology and literature is realised through the medium of language. The stream of consciousness novel is complex because its linguistic content has to express subjective reality. However, both as a genre and technique, it has exercised remarkable influence on the modern novel. The shift in focus from literary criticism to stylistic analysis, has contributed a great deal in forming different approaches to text analysis.

To sum up, the stylistic analysis of the two texts not only reveal the stylistic and linguistic differences between the two writers, but also point out the marked difference in the
approach of Virginia Woolf and James Joyce. Although they follow the same tradition, the subject matter of their novels, and the techniques they employ, are entirely different. In fact, they are highly innovative and tend to modify their techniques according to the requirements of their individual styles.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


3.1 THE THREE CONDITIONS

3.1.1 Time

The first prerequisite for the use of Monitor, as the hypothesis states, is that the performer must have enough time to think about his utterance. This is usually not possible when one is engaged in face to face conversation as it may cause disruption in communication. The excessive use of conscious rules, as Krashen suggests, 'can lead to trouble, i.e. a hesitant style of talking and inattention to what the conversational partner is saying' (1987:16).

To support his claim Krashen refers to the case study conducted by Krashen and Pon (1975). In this study the subject was 'P' a native speaker of Chinese who had graduated with an 'A' grade. 'P' committed quite a few errors in her casual speech. But when those errors were presented to her she was able to correct almost all the errors. Krashen attributes these errors to her careless speech or the time constraint or her preoccupation "with the message" in that communicative situation. This leads us to the consideration of the second constraint.

3.1.2 Focus on Form

The hypothesis postulates that when the performer has enough time to produce an utterance even then he is unable to correct the errors he commits because he focuses on what he says and not how he says it. In other words, his attention is on the meaning and not on the form of the message. For effective Monitor use, the focus must be on the form of the communicative act. Dulay, Burt, and Krashen illustrate this point, as follows:

Whenever conscious processing takes place, the learner is said to be using the monitor. Similarly, when a learner performs a drill that requires conscious attention to linguistic form, or when he memorises a dialogue, conscious processing is taking place and the monitor
3.5 Case 3: Extensive Unacknowledged Verbatim Copying from Multiple Sources in a Take-Home Exam

3.5.1 Summary of Case Details

In case 3 a student from the Near East\(^{105}\) had copied from various sources in response to a take home exam question. The student had copied word for word from published sources in writing an exam essay on the linguistic topic of markedness. When confronted, as one of the examiners explained, the student would not say much, and gave the bewildering reply "I am a Muslim!" several times, as if to imply that he would not do anything wrong. For the examinations, students had been required to turn in 3 handwritten answers in 3 days, with 5 questions to choose from. It seems likely that the student ran out of time and gave a hurried response in writing his last exam essay. The student had collected relevant sources together, including a dictionary definition of markedness, as well as other articles on the topic, and he had copied lengthy sections from each source into the exam booklet.

One of the examiners later recalled during an interview with the current researcher, that the exam had been over a religious holy day when work is not allowed, a Friday (\textit{Jum'a}) when Muslims go to the mosque. The examiner remembered other students, such as a Yemeni student, who had received permission from the Imam to work on take-home exams over a Friday, which would explain the student's bewildering reply, "I am a Muslim!" Perhaps he was trying to say that he did not have enough time to satisfactorily complete the exam because it conflicted with his religious commitments.

"Mad! Baffling! Uninterpretable!" were the reactions to this instance of textual appropriation. The sheer volume of copied material was hard to believe. A committee was formed to deal with this case, and one committee member's reaction was as follows:

\[^{105}\text{Nationality of student has been omitted for reasons of confidentiality and anonymity.}\]
I just find it hard to believe that he thought he could get away with this, and I think you are right in saying that his occasional use of quotation marks makes it even worse. I would strongly object to giving him a pass mark for a paper that is 99% not written by him, and I'll make a strong con at the examiners' meeting if necessary.

Prior to a department meeting to discuss this particular case, one of the examiners wrote up a summary of the textual appropriation and gave a recommended course of action. The examiner's analysis was that the majority of the student's exam essay consisted of copied material. 71% of the essay content was discovered to be verbatim copying from published texts, and the rest was suspected to also be verbatim copying, but this was not conclusively proven by identification of source texts. Judging from the essay itself, it seemed that the student knew how to give correct acknowledgement but chose not to do so in an attempt to deceive examiners into believing that the copied text was his own, when he knew all along that he was deceitfully and untruthfully presenting copied text as if it were composed by himself. The examiner did point out, however, that the student had "peppered" his text "with reminders of the works which had been consulted (but with no page references, quotation marks or any other sign to indicate that the candidate had copied the chosen sentences and paragraphs verbatim)."

In extract 1 it is evident that the student's essay on markedness begins with a copied definition of the term from Crystal's (1985) Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. Perhaps he began the writing task by referring to his personal dictionary. In the first paragraph the student gives a reference to Crystal, and then continues copying. No quotation marks or any other indications are given that direct copying has been done. Hence the examiner's conclusion that "the candidate wished the examiners to believe that the text presented to them was the work of the candidate himself when he was well aware that this was not the case."

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106 This summary is given in the miscellaneous data for this case (app 3.5.4, p 295).
107 In the essay, several correctly acknowledged quotations are followed by unacknowledged copying. The format of certain sections of the essay gives the appearance that quotation is followed by original student wording, when in actuality the copying continues after the quotation.
There is also apparent mis-copying from the source text which gives an indication of the mechanical nature of the copying, and perhaps this copying mistake is also a sign of the student's hurried attempt to construct an exam response in a shorter period of time after writing the other responses. Near the end of the second paragraph in extract 1 the student has skipped nearly a line of the source text. It appears that as he was copying from the text, he used the word "unmarked" as a reference word to return to the source text after copying a phrase into the exam booklet. Then, returning to his reference word in the source text, he continued copying. However, he had returned to the wrong reference word, the wrong "unmarked" in continuation of his copying. The next line of the source text also contained the word "unmarked" and the student continued his copying after the wrong reference word.

The next confirmed instance of copying is presented in extract 2. It was a "failed attempt to modify White (1989:129)" as one examiner put it. This failed attempt begins with a correctly acknowledged quotation from White, followed by copied material from White which is not acknowledged. However, as seen in the extract the student introduces the quotation from White using White's phrasing, he then gives the quotation, and then he presents some more of White's text followed by Greenberg's universal. So the quotation is basically an incorrectly acknowledged one since all of the quotation has not been included in the inverted commas. It is this type of appropriation which indicates that deceit was involved.

Continuation of the student's attempt to modify White is given in extract 3. Presumably the student's use of White's article was labelled a "failed attempt" because it appears that the student did make an effort to paraphrase portions of the source text. He gave quotation marks to enclose a direct quotation, but after the quotation he continued paraphrasing mixed with verbatim copying. The citation of Jakobson (as cited in White) demonstrates that the student was capable of correctly citing a source that is referenced within another source, a moderately difficult task which many students find to be troublesome.
More serious than the failed attempt to modify White is the verbatim copying which occurs next and which is introduced with the student's own wording. As shown in extract 4, the student begins with his own wording, followed by direct copying in which the original wording of the source text has been slightly rearranged. The order of acquisition summary seems to be the student's own, and the student has acknowledged Hawkins (as cited in White), again demonstrating that the student is capable of referencing sources mentioned within another source.

Presented in extract 5 are two paragraphs. The first, in the view of one examiner (also the instructor for the course) was "taken more or less verbatim from . . . class handouts." The second is a properly acknowledged direct quotation from Eckman et al (1988), introduced in the student's own words, another indication of ability to correctly acknowledge direct quotations.

This is followed by another introduction to a lengthy direct quote partly in the student's own words, and partly in Eckman's words, as presented in extract 6. In this extract it is evident that the student has copied material from Eckman et al which he had paraphrased earlier in his text. The lengthy direct quotation is not acknowledged at the end as the others are, but it is slightly indented from the rest of the text.

Next, as presented in extract 7, the student skips 5 lines in Eckman's text which he has just quoted, and he copies nearly a whole paragraph with no indentation and with a deceitful form of acknowledgement. As seen in the extract, the only part of this paragraph which is not copied is the inserted reference "as Eckman (op cit) argues" which strongly suggests that the student contrived to convince examiners that the copied text was his own paraphrase or summary.

From extract 8 it is clear that the verbatim copying continues with no indication whatsoever that copying has been done except for another token reference to

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108 The fact that the student was able to paraphrase a passage in one instance, but then chose to copy it without acknowledgment in another instance, demonstrates that the student was capable of properly handling source text. It could be that the limited time factor played a significant role in his unacknowledged appropriation of source material.

109 Refer to copy of handwritten original (app 3.5.3, p A285, p A289 for the Eckman indentation).
Next, as shown in extract 9, another paragraph has been copied from Eckman, and it has been introduced in the student's own words. A crucial observation is made from the texts in this extract. It has already been demonstrated that the student knew how to give a correct citation for an author who is mentioned in another author's text. In extract 9, Gass (1982) and Krohn (1971), who have been mentioned in Eckman's text, are not acknowledged as having been cited by Eckman, when in actuality the student has used the very wording of Eckman in his summary of Gass (1982) and Krohn (1971). Consequently, the examiner's conclusion that "the candidate (a) knows how to acknowledge a quotation in the proper manner and (b) consciously chose not to do so" is a justifiable deduction.

Next in his essay, as presented in extract 10, the student gives a correctly acknowledged direct quotation from Kellerman which he had introduced in his own wording. Interestingly there is another minute error in copying here in which the student, either consciously or subconsciously, corrected a grammatical error in Kellerman's text. Instead of writing "that lexical structures" the student wrote "that lexical structure." The student dropped the s off of the plural structures to form a singular structure required for grammatical agreement.

As seen in extract 11, the student copies next from White (1989), introducing his copying with the non-native-like expression "so far so much." One examiner who knew the student well said of the comment "This is definitely [student]'s name!!" It would seem that this phrase is an instance of poor transition between the student's English, and the language of the published text, a poor recontextualisation of the source material. Or perhaps it would be better to say in this case that it is an obvious and awkward contextualisation of the student's language since most of the essay consists of lifted text.
It is also seen in extract 11 that the student has again inserted token references in the middle of his copied text, as if he were summarising from White's text. For example, he inserted "as White (op cit) points out" and "As White (op cit) explains" right in the middle of unacknowledged copied text. In extract 12 it is clear that the copying from White continues. White is again given as a reference, but no indication is given that the material is a direct quotation, leaving the reader to assume that the material is summarised or paraphrased. In extract 13 the same token reference to White is given with unacknowledged copying from pages 134-135 of White's text. And again in extract 14, the student text is copied verbatim from White page 137. As is evident in extract 14, the student has copied from White's text, omitting the reference made to Hawkins (1987) and Wexler and Manzini (1987). Finally, in extract 15, it is interesting to see that the student has inserted a sentence of his own before summarising White's "two L2 acquisition situations where the nonoperation of the Subset Principle might be relevant" from pages 135-136. The student then concludes the exam response by giving a brief paragraph, apparently of his own construction:

To sum up, the application of markedness theory to second language acquisition has been sparse and the most serious works in this area are recent. The strongest explanatory power of markedness theory for language acquisition is seen at the levels of phonology, morphology and syntax (to my knowledge). The notion of markedness within UG has helped us to explain the projectional problem, interlanguage as "natural" grammar, and the directionality of transfer.
Because of the uncertainty surrounding the student's intent and because of the bewildering student responses when questioned, it seems that the reaction of examiners was not as strong as the examiners' reactions in Case 2 involving the project on literary stylistics. The student could obviously not receive credit for such work, and the end result was a mark of zero for that particular exam essay, with the effect that his overall average on exam performance was lowered. He did go on to complete the MSc degree, but only barely so, and his course grade average was not high enough for him to proceed to do PhD research in his particular department as he had hoped to do. The examining committee felt that this was sufficient penalty for the plagiarism. The student was accepted however, for PhD research at another university in the UK.
3.5.2 Textual Appropriation in Case 3

On the following pages, extracts of Student C's writing are presented. These extracts illustrate the derivative composing strategies employed by Student C in Case 3.
3.5.2.1 Case 3: Extract 1

**Student Text:**

By definition, markedness is an analytic principle in Linguistics whereby pairs of linguistic features, seen as oppositions, are given different values of positive (marked) and neutral or negative (unmarked). In its most general sense, this distinction refers to the presence versus the absence of a particular linguistic feature (Crystal, 1985). There is a formal feature marking plural in most English nouns, for example; the plural is therefore 'marked', and the singular is 'unmarked'.

[9 lines of Crystal's text omitted]

One of the earliest uses of the notion was in Prague School Phonology, where a sound would be said to be marked if it possessed a certain distinctive feature (e.g. voice), and unmarked if it lacked it. (2 lines of Crystal's text skipped) As Crystal (op cit) argues, in Generative phonology, the notion has developed into a central criterion for formalising the relative naturalness of alternative solutions to phonological problems. Here, evidence from frequency of occurrence, Historical Linguistics and language acquisition is used to support the view that marking is a basic principle for assigning Universal, and possibly innate, values to phonetic features (by contrast with the language specific phonological approach of the Prague School).

The distinctive features are each assigned marking values, e.g. [+ voice] is seen as marked, [-voice] as unmarked [appear to be unintentionally omitted words here, copying error] features, and thus be compared with each other, e.g. /a/ is the maximally unmarked vowel because it is [-high], [-back] and [-round]; /i/ is more complex because it is [+low] and [+round], and so on. (Crystal op cit).

In recent generative linguistics, a more general Theory of markedness has emerged; here, an unmarked property is one which accords with the general tendencies found in all languages; a marked property is one which goes against these general tendencies—in other words, it is exceptional (Crystal. op cit). (This last paragraph is not in Crystal 1980, but presumably it has been copied from Crystal, 1985).

**Source Text:**

markedness (mark-ing, -ed) An analytic principle in LINGUISTICS whereby pairs of linguistic FEATURES, seen as OPPOSITIONS, are given different values of POSITIVE (marked) and NEUTRAL or NEGATIVE (unmarked). In its most general sense, this distinction refers to the presence versus the absence of a particular linguistic feature. There is a formal feature marking plural in most English nouns, for example; the plural is therefore 'marked', and the singular is 'unmarked'. The reason for postulating such a relationship becomes clear when one considers the alternative, which would be to say that the opposed features simply operate in parallel, lacking any directionality. Intuitively, however, one prefers an analysis whereby dogs is derived from dog rather than the other way round—in other words, to say that 'dogs is the plural of dog', rather than 'dog is the singular of dogs'.

Most of the theoretical discussion of markedness, then, centres on the question of how far there is intuitive justification for applying this notion to other areas of language (cf. prince/princess, happy/unhappy, walk/walked, etc.).

One of the earliest uses of the notion was in PRAGUE SCHOOL PHONOLOGY, where a sound would be said to be marked, if it possessed a certain DISTINCTIVE FEATURE (e.g. VOICE), and unmarked if it lacked it (this unmarked member being the one which would be used in cases of NEUTRALISATION). In GENERATIVE phonology, the notion has developed into a central criterion for formalising the relative NATURALNESS of alternative solutions to phonological problems. Here, evidence from frequency of occurrence, HISTORICAL LINGUISTICS, and language ACQUISITION is used to support the view that marking is a basic principle for assigning UNIVERSAL (and possibly innate) values to PHONETIC features (by contrast with the language-specific, phonological approach of the Prague School). The distinctive features are each assigned marking values, e.g. [+ voice] is seen as marked, [-voice] as unmarked. SEGMENTS, in this view, can then be seen as combinations of marked or unmarked features, and thus be compared with each other, e.g. /a/ is the maximally unmarked vowel because it is [-high], [-back] and [-round]; /i/ is more complex because it is [+low] and [+round], and so on. (Crystal, 1985. Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics)
3.5.2.2 Case 3: Extract 2

The typological approach, as White (1989) explains, can be characterized as follows: "universals are arrived at from the data (bottom-up) by looking at many of the world's languages, comparing them and making universal generalizations on the basis of these data" (p. 127). On the basis of these generalizations, one can make predictions for L1 & L2 acquisition. An example of a typological universal is Greenberg's (1966, cited in White op cit) Universal 3; 'languages with dominant VSO order are always prepositional'.

Source Text:

The typological approach can be loosely characterized as follows: universals are arrived at from the data (bottom-up, so to speak) by looking at many of the world's languages, comparing them and making universal generalizations of the basis of these data. As a result of these generalizations, further predictions can be made and tested. On the face of it, this is very attractive; what better way to find out what is universal than to look and see what shows up again and again? An example of a typological universal is Greenberg's (1966) Universal 3; 'languages with dominant VSO order are always prepositional', a universal arrived at by detailed scrutiny of word order correlations in many different languages. (pp127-128)
3.5.2.3 Case 3: Extract 3

Student Text:

Given the predictions for L1 and L2 acquisition that can be made on the basis of typological universals, Hawkins (1987) proposes a particular kind of universals called implicational universals. An implicational universal takes a form of If P then Q, meaning that "languages that show some property P will also show some other property Q, but not necessarily vice versa" (White op cit; p. 129). This allows the following logical possibilities: (i) both P and Q, (ii) neither P nor Q, (iii) Q but not P. The only possibility which is disallowed is P without Q. P is said to be marked and Q to be unmarked. Hawkins gives a phonological universal example as in the following:

1) Across languages the existence of fricative consonants implies the co-occurrence of a series of stops. (Jakobson, 1968: 51-52 as cited in White op cit; p. 129)

Source Text:

II Typological universals and markedness

In a recent paper, Hawkins (1987) discusses predictions for L1 and L2 acquisition that can be made on the basis of typological universals of a particular kind, namely the so-called implicational universals. Although Hawkins appears to believe that similar predictions could not be made on the basis of principles of UG, I shall suggest that his is not the case.

An implicational universal is a statement of the form If P then Q, meaning that languages that show some property P will also show some other property Q, but not necessarily vice versa. This allows languages with both P and Q, or with neither P nor Q, and languages with Q but not P. It prohibits languages which have P without Q. The presence of P implies Q: P is said to be marked and Q unmarked. Thus, markedness is determined by observing co-occurrences in the world's languages. As an example Hawkins gives a phonological universal, as in (1):

1) Across languages the existence of fricative consonants implies the co-occurrence of a series of stops. (Jakobson, 1968: 51-52)
3.5.2.4 Case 3: Extract 4

Student Text:

According to the above universal, fricatives are P and stops Q. There are many languages with only stops (Q but not P), and languages with both stops and fricatives (P and Q), but no languages with fricatives but not stops (P without Q).

Based on these implicational universals, Hawkins makes a number of acquisition predictions for both L1 and L2 acquisition. His predictions concerning the state of the interlanguage at any point in time, and the order of acquisition predictions are as follows:

(i) State of the interlanguage
ILS will be consistent with implicational universals. Therefore, one does not expect to find an IL with P but not Q. Any of the following will be possible in the IL: both P and Q, neither P nor Q, Q but not P.

(ii) order of acquisition
Either Q before P or Q and P together
NOT P before Q

(Hawkins, op cit cited in White op cit; p129)

The above order of acquisition is summarized as in the following where in (i) & (ii) progressions are permitted but disallowed in (iii):

(i) -P & -Q > -P & Q > P & Q
(ii) -P & -Q > P&Q
(iii) -P & -Q > *P & -Q > P & Q

Source Text:

Here, fricatives are P and stops Q. There are many languages with only stops (Q but not P), and languages with both stops and fricatives (P and Q), but no languages with fricatives but not stops (P without Q).

Hawkins makes a number of acquisition predictions for both L1 and L2 acquisition based on these implicational universals, for the case where the language being acquired contains both P and Q. Here, we shall only be concerned with his predictions regarding the state of the interlanguage (IL) at any point in time, and with his order of acquisition predictions:

(i) State of the interlanguage
ILs will be consistent with implicational universals. Therefore, one does not expect to find an IL with P but not Q. Any of the following will be possible in the IL: both P and Q, neither P nor Q, Q but not P.

(ii) Order of acquisition
Either Q before P or Q and P together
NOT P before Q
Eckman (1977) proposes to revitalize the strong form of the contrastive analysis hypothesis through the incorporation of "typological markedness," which, it is claimed, can then predict not only areas of difficulty in the target language but also relative degrees of difficulty. The notion of typological markedness is defined as in the following:

"A phenomenon, X, in some language is relatively more marked than some other phenomena, Y, if, cross-linguistically, the presence of X in some language necessarily implies the presence Y, but the presence of Y in a language does not necessarily imply the presence of X" (Eckman et al 1988; p.4).
3.5.2.6 Case 3: Extract 6

**Student Text:**

According to Eckman (op cit) the above notion of typological markedness can be correlated with the notion of degree of difficulty in second language acquisition. This idea is contained in the Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH) which is formulated below:

The areas of difficulty that a learner will have with a given TL can be predicted on the basis of a systematic comparison of the NL and TL, such that:

(a) Those areas of the TL which are different from the NL and relatively more marked than in the NL will be difficult;

(b) the degree of difficulty of any aspect of the TL which is different from the NL and relatively more marked than in the NL will correspond to the native degree of markedness of that aspect;

(c) those aspects of the TL which are different from the NL, but which are not more marked than in the NL will not be difficult.

**Source Text:**

Moreover, although it seems that few, if any, current ESL texts presume any systematic generalization of learning (but see note 2), there have been some recent proposals in the area of second language acquisition theory which could have a bearing on the questions raised in 1. For example, it is proposed in Eckman (1977) that the notion of typological markedness, defined as in 2, can be correlated with the notion of degree of difficulty in second language acquisition. This idea is contained in the Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH), which is formulated in 3.

2 A phenomenon, X, in some language is relatively more marked than some other phenomenon, Y, if, cross-linguistically, the presence of X in some language necessarily implies the presence of Y, but the presence of Y in a language does not necessarily imply the presence of X.

3**Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH)**

The areas of difficulty that a learner will have with a given TL can be predicted on the basis of a systematic comparison of the NL and TL, such that:

(a) those areas of the TL which are different from the NL and relatively more marked than in the NL will be difficult;

(b) the degree of difficulty of any aspect of the TL which is different from the NL and relatively more marked than in the NL will correspond to the relative degree of markedness of that aspect;

(c) those aspects of the TL which are different from the NL, but which are not more marked than in the NL will not be difficult.
3.5.2.7 Case 3: Extract 7

Student Text:

The MDH would predict that those aspects of TL which are least marked relative to a learner's NL will be the easiest to learn. Conversely, those aspects of the TL which are most marked relative to the NL will be the most difficult to learn. More importantly, however, the MDH suggests that it is the most marked aspects of a TL from which it should be possible for a learner to gain maximal generalization of his/her learning. This, as Eckman (op cit) argues, would follow from the above assumption that the learners would be able to do easier (i.e. less marked) things by virtue of having learned to do more difficult (i.e. more marked) things.

Source Text:

If we make the assumption that human beings will learn to do things which are less difficult before they learn to do related things which are more difficult, or relatedly, if we assume that by virtue of being able to do something which is more difficult a person has learned to do the related things which are less difficult, then it is possible to formulate some hypotheses about the questions in 1. The MDH would predict that those aspects of the TL which are least marked relative to a learner's NL will be the easiest to learn. Conversely, those aspects of the TL which are most marked relative to the NL will be the most difficult to learn. More importantly, however, the MDH suggests that it is the most marked aspects of a TL from which it should be possible for a learner to gain maximal generalization of his/her learning. This would follow from the above assumption that the learners would be able to do easier (i.e. less marked) things by virtue of having learned to do more difficult (i.e. more marked) things.
From the point of view of relative clause formulation and according to the Keenan and Comrie (1977, cited in Eckman op cit) Accessibility Hierarchy shown below, the easiest position to relativize should be the subject, while the most difficult should be the object of a comparative particle. The position of relativization which, if learned, will result in maximal generalization of learning to all other positions is the object of a comparative particle (Eckman, op cit).

Accessibility Hierarchy

SU>DO>IO>OPREP>GEN>OCOMP
Subject (least marked)
Direct object
Indirect object
Object of a preposition
Possessive
Object of a comparative particle (most marked)
In her study of relative clause formation, Gass (1982) found out that generalization of learning proceeds from more marked structures to less marked structures. She found that an experimental group, which was instructed on relative clauses where only the object of preposition was relativized, generalized this instruction more than did the control group, which was taught relative clauses using a standard text, namely Krohn (1971).

The purpose of this paper is to replicate and extend some research conducted by Gass (1982). . .

The results from Gass (1982) suggest that generalization of learning proceeds from more marked structures to less marked structures. She found that an experimental group, which was instructed on relative clauses where only the object of preposition was relativized, generalized this instruction more than did the control group, which was taught relative clauses using a standard text, namely Krohn (1971). In this study, we used four groups rather than two: three experimental groups and one control group. . . (pp4-5)
3.5.2.11 Case 3: Extract 11

Student Text:

So far so much. Universal principles in generative grammar [lines skipped] explain how children can acquire certain complex properties of language. UG, as White (op cit) points out, assumed to include parameters, or options, with a limited range of settings. One parameter setting will often account for a cluster of syntactic properties. The assumption is that the child will not have to learn all of these properties separately if in fact they are related by a parameter. [skips to page 13] Current formulations of markedness within generative grammar assume a learning principle known as the subset principle. [lines skipped] As White (op cit) explains, to see how the subset principle works, one must consider two or more grammars which happen to yield languages which are in a subset/superset relation, i.e., the grammars generate the same subset of sentences, and one of the grammars generates additional ones. Grammars in this kind of relationship meet the subset conditions, as shown below:

\[
P \\
Q
\]

The grammar that generates the sentences of P also generates the sentences Q. Q is a proper subset of P. The learnability problem is as follows: Q sentences are compatible with two grammars, the grammar that generates Q & the grammar that generates P. Suppose that the L1 learner is learning a language which only contains sentences like Q. For this language, the appropriate grammar will be the one which generates Q but not P. If, on hearing a Q sentence, the learner hypothesizes the grammar that generates P, this will result in overgeneralizations that cannot be disconfirmed on the basis of positive evidence. The subset principle stipulates that the learner's initial hypothesis, or unmarked case, is that the narrower grammar applies to any language being learned.

Source Text:

III Generative universals and markedness

1 Parameters

Universal principles in generative grammar are arrived at very differently from implicational ones. They are proposed as innate principles, necessarily present in the human mind, to explain how children can acquire certain complex properties of language. UG is assumed to include parameters, or options, with a limited range of settings. One parameter setting will often account for a cluster of syntactic properties. The assumption is that the child will not have to learn all of these properties separately if in fact they are related by a parameter.

(p130)

To see how the Subset Principle works, one must consider two or more grammars which happen to yield languages which are in a subset/superset relation, i.e., the grammars generate the same subset of sentences, and one of the grammars generates additional ones. Grammars in this kind of relationship meet the Subset Condition, as shown in (2):

\[
P \\
Q
\]

Here, the grammar that generates the sentences P also generates the sentences Q. Q is a proper subset of P. The learnability problem is as follows: Q sentences are compatible with two grammars, the grammar that generates Q and the grammar that generates P. Suppose that the L1 learner is learning a language which only contains sentences like Q. For this language, the appropriate grammar will be the one which generates Q but not P. If, on hearing a Q sentence, the learner hypothesizes the grammar that generates P, this will result in overgeneralizations (i.e., P sentences) that cannot be disconfirmed on the basis of positive evidence. They simply do not occur in the language being learned.
The subset principle for L1 acquisition makes its most crucial claim for cases where the target language contains only Q. It is here that the learner must be prevented from trying the grammar that generates P before the grammar that generates Q, because negative evidence will be required to retreat from P in just these circumstances (White op cit).

The Subset Principle for L1 acquisition makes its most crucial claim for cases where the target language contains only Q. It is here that the learner must be prevented from trying the grammar that generates P before the grammar that generates Q, because negative evidence will be required to retreat from P in just these circumstances. For example, as we saw above, the Japanese child will run into difficulties if he or she assumes that Japanese allows value (b) of the PAP. (p133)
The subset principle would yield the same prediction for L2 acquisition as they do for L1. That is to say, if the L2 is a language containing only Q, a grammar yielding P should not be hypothesized; on the other hand, if a language containing P and Q is being acquired, either Q should emerge first or the two should emerge together (White op cit).

So far, then, we appear to have parallel claims being made by the two different approaches to markedness and universals. Let us now consider second language acquisition. If the Subset Principle were to operate, then the Subset Principle and the implicational universals would yield the same predictions for L2 acquisition as they do for L1. That is to say, if the L2 is a language containing only Q, a grammar yielding P should not be hypothesized; on the other hand, if a language containing P and Q is being acquired, either Q should emerge first or the two should emerge together. In other words, in the L2 acquisition context, one would predict that English learners of Japanese would not assume that objects can bind reflexives, whereas Japanese learners of English would either assume that only subjects can bind, or than any NP can bind, depending on whether they had been exposed to sentences like (4).

(ppl34-35)
3.5.2.14 Case 3: Extract 14

**Student Text:**

The implicational definition of markedness and the learnability definition of markedness yield identical predictions about acquisition. As far as the state of the interlanguage is concerned, both of them predict that if the IL contains the marked forms (P), then the unmarked (Q) will also be present. As far as order is concerned, neither requires that Q emerge before P when P is present in the language being learned. Both of them make only one strong prediction about acquisition order, namely that P should not emerge before Q, or that a marked value should not be adopted as an initial hypothesis for data which are consistent with the unmarked.

**Source Text:**

V Some differences between typological and generative approaches

So far, it has been suggested that the implicational definition of markedness, as presented in Hawkins (1987), and the learnability definition of markedness (Wexler and Manzini, 1987) yield identical predictions about acquisition. As far as the state of the interlanguage is concerned, both of them predict that if the IL contains the marked forms (P), then the unmarked (Q) will also be present, or if the marked value of a parameter is instantiated, then the sentences allowed by the unmarked value will also be found. As far as order is concerned, neither requires that Q emerge before P when P is present in the language being learned. Both of them make only one strong prediction about acquisition order, namely that P should not emerge before Q, or that a marked value should not be adopted as an initial hypothesis for data which are consistent with the unmarked. These predictions apparently have to be further weakened in the L2 acquisition context when language transfer is taken into consideration. (p 137)
There are of course differences between the two approaches which are beyond the scope of this essay, however. One more point is warranted. And that is, the non-operation of the Subset Principle in second language acquisition predicts that:

a) if the L2 contains both P and Q, then both (i) Q before P and (ii) P and Q together are possible hypotheses;

b) if the L2 contains only q, P (P&Q) can be assumed by the learner as an initial hypothesis on the basis of transfer from the L1 (and is likely to be maintained in the lack of disconfirming evidence) (White op cit).

Thus, the nonoperation of the Subset Principle in L2 acquisition simply removes the requirement to start out by trying the most restrictive grammar consistent with the input. There are two L2 acquisition situations where the nonoperation of the Subset Principle might be relevant:

(i) For the case where the L2 contains both P and Q, the nonoperation of the Subset Principle means that there is nothing to prevent the grammar which generates P from forming the initial hypothesis about the L2, so that P and Q sentences could emerge together. For example, Japanese learners of English, on the basis of positive evidence like (4), may realize early on that antecedents for reflexives in English do not have to be subjects. In that case, they would adopt value (b) for the PAP, a value which includes the sentences generated by value (a). An interlanguage grammar (ILG) of this kind is consistent with Hawkins's claims about implicational universals, since it contains both P and Q.

(ii) It was pointed out above that the Subset Principle's crucial claims for L1 acquisition concern the situation where the target language contains only Q. In cases where the L2 contains only Q, the nonoperation of the Subset Principle may allow a grammar or parameter setting generating P to be transferred from the L1, i.e., the Subset Principle is no longer available to prevent this from happening (White, 1989). Thus, the ILG may contain P sentences (which include Q), even though the L2 contains only Q. For example, the English learner of Japanese may assume incorrectly that any NP can serve as the antecedent to a reflexive. An ILG containing both P and Q is consistent with implicational universals, regardless of how P came to be in the interlanguage.

(p135-136)
By definition, marking is an analytic principle in linguistics whereby pairs of linguistic features, seen as oppositions, are given different values of positive (marked) and neutral or negative (unmarked). In its most general sense, this distinction refers to the presence versus the absence of a particular linguistic feature (Crystal, 1995). There is a formal feature marking plural in most English nouns, for example: The plural is 'marked' and the singular is 'unmarked'.

One of the earliest uses of the notion was in Prague school phonology, where a sound would be said to be marked if it possessed a certain distinctive feature (e.g., voice), and unmarked if it lacked it. As Crystal (op. cit.) argues, in Generative phonology, the notion has developed into a central criterion for formulating the relative naturalness of alternative solutions to phonological problems. Here, evidence for frequency of occurrence, historical linguistics, and language acquisition is used to support the view that marking is a basic principle for assigning universal (and possibly innate) values to phonetic features (by contrast with the language-specific phonological approach of the Prague school). The distinctive features are each assigned marking values: e.g., [+ voice] is seen a marked [- voice] as unmarked features, and thus be compared with each other, e.g., /a/ is the maximally unmarked vowel because it is [- high], [- back] and [- round]; /ɔ/ is more complex because it is [+ low] and [+ round], and so on (Crystal, op. cit.).
In recent generative linguistics, a more general image of markedness has emerged. Here, a marked property is one which accords with the general tendencies found in all languages; a marked property is one which goes against these general tendencies; in other words, it is exceptional (crystal spirit).

Recently, the concept of markedness and its relevance for explaining certain aspects of second language (L2) acquisition, including potential transfer, has received much interest. Within current linguistic theories, there have been two definitions of markedness which make a number of predictions for L1 and L2 acquisition. One stems from Typological Universals approach, and the other from Chomskyan Universal Grammar, currently formulated in terms of Government-Binding Theory (Chomsky, 1981).

The Typological approach, as White (1982) explains, can be characterized as follows: "universals are arrived at from the data (bottom-up) by looking at many of the world's languages, comparing them, and making universal generalizations on the basis of these data" (p. 127). On the basis of these generalizations, one can make predictions for L1 & L2 acquisition. An example of a typological universal is Greenberg's (1966, cited in White op. cit.) Universal 3: "languages with dominant VSO order are always prepositional."

Given the predictions for L1 and L2 acquisition that can be made on the basis of typological universals, Hawkins (1987) proposes a particular kind of universals called implicated universal, an imp...
(iii) order of acquisition

Either Q before P or Q and P together

NOT P before Q

(Hawkins, op. cit., cited in shade op. cit., p. 129)

The above order of acquisition is summarized as in the following where in (iii) & (vii) progressions are permitted but disallowed in (iii):

(i) \( P & Q \rightarrow P & Q \rightarrow P & Q \)

(ii) \( P & Q \rightarrow P & Q \)

(iii) \( P & Q \rightarrow P & Q \rightarrow P & Q \)

As Scase (class discussion and handouts) has argued, the consequent property of an implicational universal will be acquired either prior to or simultaneously with its antecedent property but the antecedent property cannot be acquired before its consequent property. The quantity of successful production instances of property Q will be greater than or equal to the quantity of property P. As to the predictions for the directionality of substitutions, Scase argues that in any inter-language stage in which there are systematic comprehension or production errors involving P and Q, whereby one of these properties regularly substitutes for the other, Q will substitute for P, rather than vice versa.

Eckman (1977) proposes to revitalize the story form of the contrastive analysis hypothesis. Through the incorporation of "typological markedness," which it is claimed, can then predict not only areas of
difficulty in the target language, but also relatively high difficulty. The notion of typological markedness is defined as in the following:

"A phenomenon, \( x \), in some language is relatively more marked than some other phenomenon, \( y \), if, ... linguistically, the presence of \( x \) in some language necessarily implies the presence of \( y \), but the presence of \( y \) in a language does not necessarily imply the presence of \( x \)." (Eckman et al. 1988: p. 47)

According to Eckman (op. cit.) the above notion of typological markedness can be correlated with the notion of degree of difficulty in second language acquisition. This idea is contained in the Markedness Differential Hypothesis (MDH) which is formulated below:

The areas of difficulty that a learner will have with a given TL can be predicted on the basis of a systematic comparison of the NL and the TL, such that:

(a) Those areas of the TL which are different from the NL and relatively more marked than in the NL will be difficult;

(b) the degree of difficulty of any aspect of the TL which is different from the NL and relatively more marked than in the NL will correspond to the native degree of markedness of the TL aspect;

(c) those aspects of the TL which are different from the NL, but which are not more marked than in the NL will not be difficult.

The MDH would predict that these aspects of TL which are least marked relative to a learner...
All will be the easiest to learn. Conversely, the aspects of the TL which are most marked relative to the NL will be the most difficult to learn. More importantly, however, the NDR suggests that it is the most marked aspects of a TL from which it should be possible for a learner to gain maximal generalization of his/her learning. This, as Eckman (op. cit.) again would follow from the above assumption that the learner would be able to do easier (i.e., less marked) things by virtue of having learned to do more difficult (i.e., more marked) things.

From the point of view of relative clause formation and according to Keenan and Comrie (1977, cited in Eckman, op. cit.), accessibility hierarchy shown below, the easiest position to relativize should be the subject, while the most difficult should be the object of a comparative particle. The position of relativization, if learned, will result in maximal generalization of learning to all other positions of the object of a comparative particle (Eckman, op. cit.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Accessibility Hierarchy</th>
<th>SUB &gt; DO &gt; O/PREP &gt; GEN &gt; O/COP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>(least marked)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct Object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect Object</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object of a preposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object of a comparative particle</td>
<td>(most marked)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the study of relative clause formation, Gass (1982) found out that generalization of learning proceeds from
more marked structures to less marked structures. Shepherd
found that an experimental group, which was instructed on relative
clauses where only the object of preposition was relativized,
generalized this instruction more than did the control group,
which was taught relative clauses using a standard text,
namely Kohn (1971).

Kellerman views the relationship of markedness to
learning difficulty in a different way. The learner has a
"strategy of transfer" in which markedness in both L1 &
L2 plays the following role:

a. Where a message (or part of a message) can be ex-
pressively well expressed by two or more related syntactic
structures, the less marked the structure the more
likely it will be preferred as the basis for transfer.
b. Where one lexical structure (such as a word) can
represent two or more related meanings (polysemy),
the more marked the meaning the more likely the
learner is to avoid that lexical structure.

(Kellerman 1979:38)

So far we have universal principles in generative gram-
mars have explained how children can acquire certain complex
properties of language. UC is, as White (1986) points
out, assumed to include parameters or options with
a limited range of settings. One parameter setting will
often account for a cluster of syntactic properties.
The assumption is that the child will not have to
learn all of these properties separately if in fact
they are related by a parameter. Current formulation
of markedness within generative grammar assumes a
learning principle known as the subset principle as

White (op. cit.) explains: to see how the subset principle works, one must consider two or more grammars which happen to yield languages which are in a subset/superset relationship. The grammars generate the same set of sentences, and one of the grammars generates a subset of those. Grammars in this kind of relationship meet the subset conditions, as shown below:

The grammar that generates the sentences $p$ also generates the sentences $q$. $q$ is a proper subset of $p$. The learnability problem is as follows: $q$ sentences are compatible with two grammars. The grammar that generates $q$ is the grammar that generates $p$. Suppose that the L1 learner is learning a language which only contains sentences like $q$. For this language, the appropriate grammar will be the one which generates $q$ but not $p$. If, on hearing a $q$ sentence, the learner hypothesizes the grammar that generates $p$, this will result in overgeneralization. That cannot be disconfirmed on the basis of positive evidence. The subset principle stipulates that the learner's initial hypothesis, or unmarked case, is that the narrower grammar applies to any language being learned.

The subset principle for L1 acquisition makes its most crucial claim for cases where the target language contains only $q$. It is here that the learner must be prevented from trying the grammar that generates $p$ before the grammar that generates $q$, because negative evidence will be required to retreat from $p$ in just these circumstances (White, op. cit.).
The subset principle would yield the same prediction for L2 acquisition as they do for L1. That is to say, if the L2 is a language containing only $Q$, a grammar yielding $P$ should not be hypothesized; on the other hand, if a language containing $P$ and $Q$ is being acquired, either $Q$ should emerge first or the two should emerge together (white op cit).

The implications definition of markedness and the learnability definition of markedness yield identical predictions about acquisition. As far as the state of the inter-language is concerned, both of them predict that if the IL contains the marked forms ($P$), then the unmarked ($Q$) will also be present. As far as order is concerned, neither requires that $Q$ emerge before $P$ when $P$ is present in the language being learned. Both of them make only one strong prediction about acquisition order, namely that $P$ should not emerge before $Q$, or that a marked value circle not be accepted as an initial hypothesis for data which are consistent with the unmarked. There are, of course, differences between the two approaches which are beyond the scope of this essay, however. One more point is warranted. And that is, the non-observation of the subset principle in second language acquisition predicts that:

a) if the L2 contains both $P$ and $Q$, then both ($i$) $Q$ before $P$ and ($ii$) $P$ and $Q$ together are possible hypotheses.

b) if the L2 contains only $Q$, $P$ ($P & Q$) can be assumed by the learner as an initial hypothesis on the basis of transfer from the L1 (and is likely to be maintained in the lack of disconfirming evidence) (white op cit).
To sum up, the application of markedness theory to second language acquisition has been sparse and the most serious works in this area are recent. The strongest explanatory power of markedness theory for language acquisition is seen at the levels of phonology, morphology, and syntax (to my knowledge). The notion of markedness within UG has helped us to explain the projection problem, inter-language as 'natural' grammar, and the directionality of transfer.
Examiner's Summary and Recommendations

[student's name]'s answer to the SLA 2 question in the [take-home exam] consists of 252 handwritten lines of which 185 lines (71%) have been identified as having been copied without any attempt to acknowledge the selected passages (some of which are of considerable length) as quotations. The remaining 29% of his text includes a number of passages which the examiners have not been able to identify but have reason to suspect have also been copied, and more significantly, there are short quotations which are very clearly identified as such with appropriate punctuation and page-referenced acknowledgement. It seems that the candidate (a) knows how to acknowledge a quotation in the proper manner and (b) consciously chose not to do so in the 185 lines already mentioned. In fairness, it should be pointed out that the text is peppered with reminders of the works which have been consulted (but with no page references, quotation marks or any other sign to indicate that the candidate had copied the chosen sentences and paragraphs verbatim). It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that the candidate wished the examiners to believe that the text presented to them was the work of the candidate himself when he was well aware that this was not the case. In addition, it should be pointed out that candidates were reminded specifically in the instructions issued with the [exam essay questions] that verbatim quotation must be accompanied by page references.

In view of the above it is suggested that the Board of Examiners at its meeting on [date of meeting] should resolve that:

(i) The examiners should return a mark of zero for this answer;
(ii) The candidate should be made aware, in writing, of the reasons for this decision and the seriousness with which the Board regards the action which prompted it.

Chairman
3.6 Case 4: Confused Source Acknowledgement and Derivative Writing by a Student of Limited English Proficiency

3.6.1 Summary of Case Details

In case 4 an Indonesian student who was a government employee from Jakarta, had serious difficulties in coping with the academic writing demands of his particular MSc course. The student had—in one examiners' view—plagiarised in one course project, and his other projects showed problems with source acknowledgement. His written exam responses further substantiated the language difficulties and English academic writing difficulties which became obvious soon into the academic year. The department head at the time remarked that because of the student's limited English proficiency, he should never have been admitted to do a taught MSc degree in the department. But students of low English proficiency are not always easy to identify, especially when applications are made from overseas, and furthermore, because test results (TOEFL, IELTS) are not always a reliable means of guaranteeing that a student possesses the linguistic proficiency to undertake an English medium of instruction postgraduate taught course.

In a course project on Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), the student had allegedly appropriated text from a published article with the result that his project was returned to be rewritten and resubmitted, and a letter of warning was written to the student by the department head. In the letter the student was asked to review his text "line by line and acknowledge each quotation from an outside source." He was warned that his unacknowledged quotation was an "extremely serious matter." In his first course project the student had paraphrased and summarised portions of Cook's (1985) article on CALL, and in analysing the student's work (projects and exam essays) it was apparent that the student was of borderline English language proficiency. His academic writing was of poor quality. It did not appear, however, that the textual appropriation was as serious as the letter from the

110 A copy of this letter is presented in the miscellaneous data section (app 3.6.6, p 325).
department head suggested. Perhaps this stems from the fact that the department head wrote the letter and not either of the two examiners. It also seems that the department head wanted to make sure that the student knew the serious consequences of plagiarism since there had been "scenes" in which the student had expressed misunderstanding of academic convention in academic writing. For example, in a contrary manner the student would express an extreme point of view in saying that no one could write anything if every quotation had to be acknowledged. Or he would say something like "We're not allowed to quote", as if he had a chip on his shoulder.

The student was a fairly high ranking government official in his home country and he had held responsibilities including the publication of government reports. However, it seems that he did not write the reports himself, but had the responsibility for assigning sections of reports to subordinates, and he would then collate these separate sections together for the final report. It seems that this method of working on a project may have been carried over to his postgraduate pursuits. He may not have had the capability to write a government report (or an academic essay) on his own, but he had the skill to compile information, to assign tasks to others and to collate these various writing task components into a complete report/writing project. In the MSc course he was often of a contrary nature toward explanations of conventions for source acknowledgment, and according to MSc staff, he was generally unpleasant and hard to get along with.

His writing projects throughout the course were a result of constant input from supervisors and writing tutors, and supervisors spoke of being exhausted by supervision demands. The student would have been happy for the writing tutors and supervisors to do his writing for him, but even with constant input and writing tutelage there were still serious problems with his academic writing.

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111 This professional background influence bears similarities to instructional background influences.
3.6.1.1 Instance 1

The student's first project in which there were problems of textual appropriation, was an essay on computer assisted language learning (CALL). The particular problem was with a summary of Cook's (1985) discussion of types of language teaching. In extract 1 it is evident that the student did preface his summary/paraphrase with a reference to Cook and the four types of language teaching she discussed in her article, and he then went on to elaborate on each type of language teaching.

The first type of language teaching discussed was audiolingual. From the student and source texts in extract 1, it is clear that the student has not yet directly copied strings of words into his own text. The student does use several words from Cook's article, for example "automatic" for "automatically", and "computer by nature" for "the nature of the computer itself" and "deal only with restricted language forms" for "can only deal with language in a highly restricted form." So far however, the student has not engaged in derivation or plagiarism. He has not lifted more than three words in a row, he has acknowledged his source, and from the student's introductory paragraph, readers know that he is going to summarise the four types of language teaching discussed by Cook.

In summarising cognitive code methodology, the second type of language teaching, the student again refers to Cook, as shown in extract 2. Although the wording of the student's text is close to Cook's, especially in the first paragraph of the cognitive code section, it is not wholesale verbatim copying as one would have expected from reading the department head letter. Verbatim copying is what the current author expected after reading the letter to the student prior to analysing the texts, but it became clear during textual analysis that only synonym substitution\textsuperscript{112} and relatively minor instances of copying had occurred rather than plagiarism.

\textsuperscript{112} For example, the student substituted "As long as" for "provided" and "acquire" for "learn."
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\textsuperscript{112} For example, the student substituted "As long as" for "provided" and "acquire" for "learn."
In extract 3 it is evident that the student has paraphrased again from Cook, and that he has borrowed several words and phrases—not at all a very serious instance of textual appropriation. In extract 4 there is more of the same pattern of paraphrase and borrowing of words and phrases, still not very serious instances of derivation/plagiarism. The student introduces a quotation of Cook with Cook's own words writing "The aim of the teaching is..." He then attempts to rephrase Cook's quotation, but this paraphrase contains some of Cook's phraseology.

3.6.1.2 Instance 2

In extract 5 is presented further indication of the student's writing difficulty in an example of confused source acknowledgement. In copying a phrase from a Krashen text, the student mistakenly attributed the idea, but not the words, to Krashen by introducing his derivation with the phrase "According to Krashen."

However, as seen in the source text, this unacknowledged brief quotation is from Lawler and Selinker (1971), and the brief quotation should be acknowledged as a source within a source.113

3.6.1.3 Outcome of the Case

Minor instances of unacknowledged copying and synonym substitution were the main features of this student's writing. It would not be a serious problem if the writing difficulties stopped here, but the main problem was that such writing represented the result of much input and painstaking supervision from course staff, supervisors, and writing tutors. It is interesting to speculate what the writing would have been like without any such input at all. Unfortunately no earlier drafts of this student's work were available. However, comments by one of the student's writing tutors give some clues as to what type of L2 writing the student was capable of generating on his own. The student was directed to a writing tutor at the university's language institute for assistance in re-submitting his first project. The tutor's

113 i.e. Lawler and Selinker quoted in Krashen.
comments provide a useful evaluation of this student's writing ability, shedding some light on the English academic writing difficulties he faced. Her comments on the first session with the student are given in the miscellaneous data section (app 3.6.7, p 326).

In the first session with a writing tutor at the university language centre, the tutor discussed academic conventions of source acknowledgement, but the student "seemed baffled, anxious and unconvinced." After the student had revised his first paper, the tutor's evaluation was that "The new version consisted of more or less copied material, i.e. he had used a synonymous word or phrase in most sentences rather than copy verbatim." In a subsequent meeting with the tutor (see session 2 tutor comments, app 3.6.8, p 327), the student was unable to verbally summarise the "main points of the chapter he had used as a first source." This inability to summarise indicates a lack of reading comprehension and reveals the extremely limited English proficiency of the student. In helping the student to reformulate his writing, the tutor gave guidance on source acknowledgement, and the student expressed "surprise and maybe even a little disbelief that so much acknowledgement was necessary." He also defended "his position in that he had to 'take things out of books' as he had no previous experience of CALL", and there was also a "refusal to reduce the number of acknowledgements by heading the sections 'A Summary of X's Views,' 'A Summary of Y'S Proposals,' etc."

Interestingly the student gave "repeated assertions that he thought his English was a problem rather than acknowledgements or content."114 The writing tutor agreed that "His English was not good" but she did not yet "think it such a problem that he would have an assignment returned or failed on that account." The student also made "requests that [the writing tutor] should correct his whole assignment in detail, and that [she] should look at it again on Friday morning (the day of submission) to tell him 'if it is all right.'" The student also made "complaints that he was not getting enough supervision. His supervisors, he said, simply told him to rewrite his assignment. He knew of other students (unnamed) whose supervisors sat 114 The student may have been more correct in his assertion than the writing tutor at first realised.
with them and went through every sentence with a red pen, correcting their English and helping them with what to say." The student wanted the tutor to assist him to "rewrite the assignment."

Later in the term the student again came to see the tutor for writing assistance (see session 3 tutor comments, app 3.6.9, p 329). As seen again from the tutor comments, the student was still having serious difficulty. The tutor made the following observation: "His writing was in fact conceptually incoherent, and the English correction had to include clarifying arguments." The student was "resistant" to these clarifying arguments, believing himself to be experienced in the topic of the project.

In addition to struggling with his course projects, the student also struggled with the course exams. His writing was of low quality and the exam responses were short and weak. He wrote essays that in the view of examiners did not address the questions, and it seemed that the student had drawn on previous course projects rather than developing appropriate responses to the exam questions. One examiner felt that the student "did not really address" the exam questions. In the take home exam component, the student claimed that time was a factor in his poor response. As one examiner put it:

The student wrote just two sides of paper, prefacing the answer with an explanation that (s)he had only 10 minutes to write it. This made it difficult to assess - particularly as it is not possible to verify whether shortage of time was in fact the problem.

The student did not receive the MSc degree. He was awarded the lower qualification of a diploma only, which was a great disappointment considering the pressure from his home country's government which had sent him to obtain the degree. Complicating the matter was another student from Africa in the same taught

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115 Here it seems that the writing tutor begins to realise just how serious of a problem she is dealing with as far as the student's limited English proficiency is concerned.

116 Refer to examiner's comments given in the miscellaneous data section for this case (app 3.6.10, p 330).
course who had exhibited even greater problems with limited English proficiency. She also was awarded a diploma only. She had also had problems with derivation/plagiarism, and she had admitted using a jigsaw approach to writing, putting together chunks of texts from other sources in composing. The Indonesian student complained that since he was obviously "better" than she, "Why had they both received a diploma?" He felt that he had deserved the MSc degree. The view of senior department staff was that neither of these students should have been admitted to the course in the first place because of their limited English proficiency.
3.6.2 Textual Appropriation in Case 4a

The extracts on the following pages illustrate the derivative composing strategies employed by Student D in Case 4a.
This section is concerned with the question of how computers can be used in language teaching. Cook (1985) identified four types of language teaching, namely audiolingual, cognitive code, communicative, and humanistic types.

In the audio-lingual type, students are allowed to practice syntactic structures and lexical items recurrently so that they will become automatic in using them when necessary. It is for this reason much of drill technique has been employed.

The use of computers for this type is quite reasonable since a computer by nature tend to deal only with restricted language forms. The type of programmes that suit this type would be drill-and-practice. It is a typical programme where students are presented with a structured set of exercises related to particular facts or items, for which may be drawn from the item bank stored in the computer memory. In this programme problems may be graded according to difficulty thus the student can choose from different levels and work according to his or her capability.
The second type of language teaching described by Cook is the cognitive-code aiming towards student's conscious knowledge of the language as subject, namely rules and facts of the language. The language in this type, to some extent, is treated as other content subjects. As long as you know the rules and facts of the language, you acquire the language.

The software which suit to this type may be a tutorial programme. It is a programme consisting of text with explanation, followed by a drill and practice set of questions related to the text. The rest of the activity will be an interaction on question- and- answer basis.

However, in a tutorial programme, the computer can only respond to the anticipated answers. The programme can give praise if the correct answers are given; if you give a wrong answer, it will allow you to make another attempt. However, the programme may not be able to do anything if you respond beyond its expectations. Those two types above, as Cook pointed out, had been greatly adopted for computer-assisted language teaching. However, most teachers had started to refrain from using them due to the lack of communicativeness.

But the computer use of drills has in fact shaded over into another model, that of cognitive-code learning. For the advantage of the computer over the language laboratory is that it can analyse what the student writes, see if it conforms to the expected answer and tell the student minimally if he is right or wrong, maximally the nature of his mistake (Pusak, 1983). . . . the aim of cognitive code teaching is to give a conscious knowledge of the language which the student can apply to his later use. While the audiolingual method emphasizes habits and mechanical practice, cognitive code learning stresses rules and conscious attention. In some ways it is the model which treats language most like a content subject on the curriculum--provided you know these facts, understand these rules, you will learn a second language.

. . .

Within language teaching these models still have some support, and they are indeed reflected to some extent in any language teaching lesson. But unquestionably most language teachers today accept models of teaching that are far removed from these.
3.6.2.3 Case 4a: Extract 3

**Student Text:**

Recently most teachers have adopted a communicative type of language teaching. In this type, students are expected to be able to communicate using the target language in real life. In order to achieve the objective, they are asked to practice communication during the process of learning and teaching. The techniques frequently employed are role-play simulation and communication games. In the simulation technique students are asked to act out some situations which they may encounter. The latter technique is concerned with communication practice where students build a dialogue one person has the information in relation to situation and the other does not (and vice versa).

The suitable programme for this type of teaching is a simulation. In this programme, communicative situations can be created to allow let students participate in communication. Another possible programme is communication game which is based on the principles of information gap, where again students make a dialogue.

**Source Text:**

3. *The communicative model*

Perhaps the model most favoured at present among language teachers is the communicative, which not only takes communication as the goal of teaching but also tries to attain this through the use of communication in the classroom; people learn to communicate by communicating. Hence the typical teaching techniques are role-play simulations in which the students act out some situation they are likely to encounter in the target language, communication games where the students exchange pre-selected information or exercises on the discourse structure of texts. Since both the overall aim and the specific techniques are concerned with communication, many communicative techniques do not break language down into specific skills or areas but concentrate on the act of communication as a whole . . . Most are based on the information gap principle, in which one person knows information that the other does not; the purpose of the game is to transfer the information from one player to another or to pool it . . . (p16)
Another popular type of teaching is a humanistic type. It gives emphasis on the individual's own development in terms of cognitive, emotional, social, and other human aspects. The aim of the teaching is not to relate students to the use of language in the external world but to develop the internal world of his own personality and mind. (Cook, 1985: 17).

To put it another way, the communicative model aims to relate the student to the world outside while the humanistic tries to relate the world to the inner life of the student.

This model of teaching requires programmes which is flexible and responsive to student input because it will deviate from the aim of the teaching if the computer requires a restricted language from the student. In principle, this programme can be explored but many techniques also need to be developed.

The last two types of teaching have been hardly adopted for computer-assisted language teaching. However, Cook expected that these would have great potential for development, owing to the recent development in technology.

The other popular model of language teaching is the humanistic, a collective name covering the somewhat different methods of Suggestopediea, the Silent Way, Community Language Learning and probably Confluent Language Teaching, united by their emphasis on the value of second language learning to the individual's own development, whether cognitive, emotional, social, or whatever. The aim of humanistic teaching is not to relate the student to the use of language in the external world but to develop the internal world of his own personality and mind, an aim that is connected on the one hand with the popular self-development groups of the 1960s. While in a sense the communicative model has an extrovert goal relating the student to the world, the humanistic model has an introvert goal relating the world to the learner's inner life. This is then at the opposite pole from the audiovisual method; what the student says, goes. A program would need to be immensely flexible and responsive to the student's input; to tie the student down in advance to particular forms of language or particular ways of working would deny the goals of the model. (p 17)

So far, these techniques have not been explored on any scale in computer foreign language teaching rather than mother-tongue teaching... (p 16)
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I. Introduction

In recent years computers have become an important feature of modern life. They are no longer large, expensive machines used exclusively by certain institutions such as major industrial cooperations, governments and the military. In fact, many of us use computers in daily life.

The use of this technology is applied to banking, traffic control, word processing, social management, entertainment, variable hobbies -- these are merely a few of the applications. The computer revolution is more than just a technological development. It has the capacity to change society radically as did the Industrial Revolution.

Over the last fifteen years the price of computers has continued to fall while simultaneously they have become much more powerful. As a result, the computer has evolved into a small, flexible, and easy to use tool that has been utilized by many schools, colleges, and universities. A good example of this is Computer Assisted Learning (CAL) which has been in existence for some thirty years.

CAL is applicable to several fields such as mathematics, science, medicine, history even though language is the latest subject to be absorbed into the computer assisted learning environment, lagging well behind the other subjects. In the field of language teaching, it has been popularly called CALL for Computer Assisted Language Learning.

Due to the spread of computers and the increased demand for language learning,

CALL has become a reality and can no longer be regarded as an esoteric methodological eccentricity. It is true to say that this is an age of rapid technological change which is now beginning to permeate educational technology (Phillips, 1985:99).
However, computers, as other technological aids for education, cannot fulfil all human aspects. We, as the creators and users of the machine, therefore should be able to make intelligent and wise use of the educational technology and be capable of taking informed decisions about its desirability. We must avoid a repetition of the experience of early days when the introduction of language laboratories was not very successful.

This paper attempts to describe computers in relation to theoretical backgrounds of language teaching, the classification of CALL materials, the advantages and disadvantages, and the future prospect of CALL. Nonetheless, I will not attempt to describe all the details of every aspect of the problems, but, instead touch more upon the global scope of the field.

c.II. Computers and types of language teaching

This section is concerned with the question of how computers can be used in language teaching. Cook (1985) identified four types of language teaching, namely audiolingual, cognitive-code, communicative, and humanistic types.

In the audio-lingual type, students are allowed to practice syntactic structures and lexical items recurrently so that they will become automatic in using them when necessary. It is for this reason much of drill technique has been employed.

The use of computers for this type is quite reasonable since a computer by nature tend to deal only with restricted language forms. The type of programmes that suit this type would be drill-and-practice. It is a typical programme where students are presented with a structured set of exercises related to particular facts or items, for which may be drawn from the item bank stored in the computer memory. In this programme problems may be graded according to difficulty thus the student can choose from different levels and work according to his or her capability.
The second type of language teaching described by Cook is the cognitive-code, aiming towards student's conscious knowledge of the language as subject, namely rules and facts of the language. The language in this type, to some extent, is treated as other content subjects. As long as you know the rules and facts of language, you acquire the language.

The software which suit to this type may be a tutorial programme. It is a programme consisting of text with explanation, followed by a drill and practice set of questions related to the text. The rest of the activity will be an interaction on question-and-answer basis.

However, in a tutorial programme, the computer can only respond to the anticipated answers. The programme can give praise if the correct answers are given; if you give a wrong answer, it will allow you to make another attempt. However, the programme may not be able to do anything if you respond beyond its expectations. Those two types above, as Cook pointed out, had been greatly adopted for computer-assisted language teaching. However, most teachers had started to refrain from using them due to the lack of communicativeness.

Recently most teachers have adopted a communicative type of language teaching. In this type, students are expected to be able to communicate using the target language in real life. In order to achieve the objective, they are asked to practice communication during the process of learning and teaching. The techniques frequently employed are role-play simulation and communication games. In the simulation technique, students are asked to act out some situations which they may encounter. The latter technique is concerned with communication practice where students build a dialogue, one person has the information in relation to situation and the other does not (and vice versa).

The suitable programme for this type of teaching is a simulation. In this programme, communicative situations can be created to allow the students participate in communication. Another possible programme is communication game which is based on the principles of
information gap, where again students make a dialogue.

Another popular type of teaching is a humanistic type. It gives emphasis on the individual's own development in terms of cognitive, emotional, social, and other human aspects. The aim of the teaching is not to relate students to the use of language in the external world but to develop the internal world of his own personality and mind... (Cook, 1985:17).

To put it in another way, the communicative model aims to relate the student to the world outside while the humanistic tries to relate the world to the inner life of the student.

This model of teaching requires programmes which is flexible and responsive to student input because it will deviate from the aim of the teaching if the computer requires a restricted language from the student. In principle, this programme can be explored but many techniques also need to be developed.

The last two types of teaching have been hardly adopted for computer-assisted language teaching. However, Cook expected that these would have great potential for development, owing to the recent development in technology.

III. Classification of CALL materials

There are many different kinds of CALL materials. This paper classifies them in terms of learning focus. As Watt's (1986) pointed out the focus of learning CALL materials will be on three categories namely category focusing on mastery and accuracy, and evaluation; category on linguistic creativity, enrichment, and interaction; and category on interaction, communicative competence.

The first category focuses on the mastery, accuracy, and evaluation of language learning. The linguistic applications of CALL materials for
this category include language teaching areas such as grammar, vocabulary, testing, translation, and spelling. In the areas of grammar and vocabulary, the computer presents the learning points, allows practice through drills and gives feedbacks. While in language testing, the computer functions as an item bank: items are presented, the tests are marked; then the computer grades student and determines appropriate entry points.

Watts also indicated that the computer could be used for translation practice. In this case, the computer has storage of as many as possible correct translation. The learners translate on their own and compare the results with the computer's version. The computer will give feedbacks to the students. The last function of this category is for spelling practice. The student can practice spelling by writing as many words as he or she likes then the computer will respond with feedbacks and corrections. The example of the material of this kind is WORDSPIN by Tim Johns (see the appendices).

The above teaching points can be presented clearly, particularly with animation and colour to prolong the student's interest. Furthermore, because of the algorithmic nature of these programmes, teaching points can be repeated many times without losing patience on the part of the computer. This is good particularly for the slow learner who, in ordinary class, would feel embarrassed to ask the teacher to repeat parts of the lesson.

However, as Watts indicated, these programmes strongly emphasise passive learning. They do not enhance the practice of high level skills, such as concept and hypothesis formation. Mostly the teaching methods tend to be prescriptive thus leading to passive absorption.

The focus of the second category, as Watts described, is on linguistic creativity, enrichment, and interaction. This can be achieved by providing students with open-ended discovery learning requiring active participation of the students. In this case, high level skills are well developed since a top-down approach is employed.

Linguistic applications of CALL materials for this category include any area where emphasis is placed upon the development of high level
skills through the process of hypothesis formulation, testing and refinement. The development of synthetic skills is another application, as is linguistic creativity in creative writing. Examples of materials of this kind are LETTERS by T. Crispin and LOAN, by T. John (see the appendices).

Materials of this category are useful for the development of high level skills such as inferencing techniques, hypothesis formulation and refinement. The learner is required to participate actively since the role of the computer is mainly as a demonstrator, or a tool. Students are thus given considerable freedom of choice in learning style. Natural and authentic language models are presented well in this type of software, providing excellent practice material for the development of higher level skills.

The last category of Watts' classification focuses on interaction and communicative competence. The materials are to encourage students to communicate through the language on topics relevant to the learner's life and interests. By the materials of this category, the degree of prescriptiveness can be reduced and students are encouraged to participate actively.

Linguistic applications of CALL relating to interaction and communicative competence include any area where emphasis is placed on communication and not on structure, especially in conversational and situational practice. Materials of this kind are TOWNPLAN by C. Bell, HAMBURG by P. Kershaw. (see the appendices).

IV. The advantages and disadvantages of CALL

CALL offers the following advantages and disadvantages viewed from different perspectives. Watts (1985), Ahmad (1985) pointed out that computers had some advantages and disadvantages as described below.
4.1. Advantages

The computer can keep the confidentiality of the individual student, thus the student need not be afraid of making mistakes unlike when learning with other students in the classroom. Watts (1985) found this to be true particularly when CALL is implemented on a one-to-one basis between student and computer. In addition, the computer can also be more patient than a human teacher. This is very important particularly for remedial and consolidation work.

In drill-and-practice and tutorial materials, as Watts pointed out, the use of a computer can encourage the student by giving him or her praise when they do the exercises well and allow the students to try again when they make mistakes. While a human teacher in contrast may sometimes forget to encourage students or get upset when she is physically or psychologically tired.

CALL may provide strong motivation to students to study as programmes such as drill-and-practice, tutorial and games commonly provide students with challenges whereas programmes such as simulations and demonstrations, involve the students' personal participation.

In CALL materials focusing on mastery and accuracy the computer can be programmed to detect a student's particular areas of weakness. A human teacher might not be able to do this since she has to take care of the whole class (as opposed to the individual), as Ahmad et al. (1985) pointed out that:

Computer can handle a very large volume of interaction and can deliver to the student feedback of some subtlety, at more frequent intervals, than would be possible for a human teacher in all but individual tuition sessions.

(Ahmad et al., 1985:4).

Apart from this, the CALL mastery/accuracy materials can be programmed to make allowance for individual student differences, unlike books, worksheets, video and tape/slide. Even human teachers
find it difficult to achieve this standard of personal attention.

The computer can give feedback immediately: likewise with evaluation in testing. The speed with which CALL provides feedback in these instances is often not comparable with other teaching media. Since the computer can also act as a "bank" for CALL materials, great flexibility of use is possible. For example, further practice material can be given to those students who finish early when class work has been assigned.

The computer offers large storage facilities for teaching resources, together with powerful re-ordering routines. With this combination, a more flexible presentation of materials and tests can be achieved. If the computer can mark students' exercises and produce feedback, the teacher can be freed for other work. The computer can also make longitudinal records of students' performance. This will allow the teacher more time to develop other teaching materials to cater for the needs of her students.

4.2. Disadvantages

However, as Watts further pointed out, compared with a human teacher, the computer is less flexible in terms of pedagogical style. In other words, the computer can be highly prescriptive in its teaching methodology, particularly in CALL mastery/accuracy materials which give too strong an emphasis on the development of low level skills.

There is also the danger for material writers to overemploy the microcomputer's features of graphics, colour, animation and sound effects. This can reduce the valuable pedagogical benefits and the effectiveness of learning.

In many cases, the computer programme cannot handle deviant language. The tendency is for programmes simply to reject any unpredicted language, even when the linguistic content may be correct. However, in future computers might developed so that they are powerful enough for that purpose. This will be discussed in more details in later V.
As a result of the spread of computers throughout homes, students often have more computer awareness and experience than their teachers. Consequently many teachers are wary of utilising CALL materials because of their feelings of inadequacy.

Furthermore, many teachers get frustrated by the limited number of microcomputers in a school (generally one or two), as this shortage of computers restricts the amount of access time for each student and hence the amount of CALL work which can be performed.

Computers quite often are not friendly in the sense that they sometimes do not give sufficient explanation or instruction to the users. This often makes the users upset or worried. Besides, some computers with design restrictions may sometimes cause long delays in response, frustrating the users. This may disrupt the interaction between computers and the users. On the other hand, other design inadequacies can cause information to be displayed for too short a time to be absorbed by slow readers.

V. Future Prospect of CALL

As development in computer technology continue to take place it is expected that computers will play a greater role in life. This will also have a great impact on the development of language teaching. The development includes the enhancement of storage capacity, the increases in computational processing power, and the enhancement in data storage capabilities. This development will directly or indirectly affect the development of CALL.

With the increase in capacity of power nowadays, the computer can be used for sophisticated personalised learning programmes. as Phillips (1985) predicted

The combination of increased processing power and the ability to directly address much larger amounts of memory will mean that sophisticated computer-managed learning (CML) will become feasible. (Phillips, 1985:115).
The computer has a large amount of data concerning learning materials which have been grouped in terms of different category and graded according to difficulty. The data can be accessed using those categories and levels. In this case the computer can play the role of "expert". The computer can diagnose weaknesses and strengths of individual student; it can detect students' needs and wants and if it can fulfill them. Students can also do exercises and the computer can be used to give feedbacks and suggestions for further learning activities. This will indeed apply to language teaching as well.

Due to increase in the storage capacity of computers, database facilities such as linguistic corpora are now available. An example of such corpus is the Cobuild Project of Birmingham University. This contains a corpus of lexical items with statistical data relating to word frequency. The computer can also store authentic texts which are collected and grouped into different categories and graded according to difficulty. These texts can be accessed at any time. These are particularly useful for teachers as well as textbook writers.

New software which integrates sound and vision have now been developed. Moreover, the capacity to process natural language is under research. With the convergence of all these developments computers may offer simulated communicative situations where student can "interact and dialogue" with the computers. With this sophistication, as Phillips has pointed out, the computer will be able to provide students with "microworld" to be explored. Furthermore, this could be also used for testing purposes. It can provide testing system which is more communicative but still objective and accurate in marking.

There is no doubt that computers are now widely used for communication. Communication over distance can now be done through computers. This function has good prospect for distance learning. There will be no need for student and teacher to meet at the same place and time. Access to learning can be carried out through computers. As Phillips further points out, messages can even be sent when the recipient is not at home because the computer can save it for later inspection.
There are many possibilities for utilizing computers for language teaching developments. It is only a matter of our preparedness to think creatively, to consider their implications of possible developments, and to exploit them for the need of language student.
References


Appendices
Description of softwares

1. WORDSPIN by Tim Johns
Dynamic spelling game including a routine in which a word appears to "spin" on a drum and must be "trapped" when it is facing the user. For EFL.

2. LOAN by Tim Johns
Exploratory programme in which the computer, given a sum of money and a relationship (friend, bank manager for example) will display a request for a loan. The user's task is to discover the principle for selecting different styles of request. For EFL.

3. TOWNPLAN by Gavin Bell
Designed to explore the computer's possible role as a device to reinforce and enrich a particular language learning area, in this case, the giving of directions. This is achieved with the aid of graphics and simple animation where the computer (represented visually by a pair of "feet") reacts to the direction's input by the user. For German.

4. LETTER by Tony Crispin
The user's data (from a question and answer dialogue) is collated into a coherent letter which can optionally be printed. Can be used with an optional cloze procedure for comprehension practice. For German and French.

5. HAMBURG by Peter Kershaw
Role-play simulation with the computer as tourist guide and the student as tourist. Simulated "posters" are displayed on the screen. The user's task is to find out what he/she can do about these by asking questions.
3.6.4 Textual Appropriation in Case 4b

The extract presented on the following page illustrates the derivation employed by Student D in Case 4b.
However, this argument has been criticized to the effect that it is not an effective way of teaching second or foreign languages. It has been argued in the Monitor theory developed by Krashen et al. (1983) that this strategy does not enable students to produce the language they have learned; it only helps students learn language system or rules that can be used to monitor the utterances they are going to produce or have produced. In other words, he maintains that with this strategy, students do not actually acquire the language, they only learn. According to Krashen, acquisition is a subconscious process of acquiring language which can be used through a **mechanism that guide automatic performance**. The concept is illustrated in the following diagram:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{learned system} \\
\text{(Monitor)} \\
\vdash \\
V \\
\text{acquired} \rightarrow \text{utterance system}
\end{align*}
\]

Monitor model (Krashen, 1981:2)

We make these changes to improve accuracy, and the use of the Monitor often has this effect. Figure 1 illustrates the interaction of acquisition and learning in adult second language production.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{learned system} \\
\vdash \\
V \\
\text{acquired system} \rightarrow \text{utterance system}
\end{align*}
\]

Fig. 1. Model for adult second language performance

The acquisition-learning distinction, as I have outlined it, is not new: Lawler and Selinker (1971) propose that for rule internalization one can "postulate two distinct types of cognitive structures: (1) those mechanisms that guide 'automatic' language performance... that is, performance... where speed and spontaneity are crucial and the learner has no time to consciously apply linguistic mechanisms... and (2) those mechanisms that guide puzzle- or problem-solving performance..." (p. 35).

(Krashen, 1981. *Second Language Learning*)
In short, according to the theory of behaviourism, in order to be able to use language for communication, students should learn the language system first then practise the knowledge in the context of use until it enters their repertoire.

However, this argument has been criticised to the effect that it is not an effective way of teaching second or foreign languages. It has been argued in the Monitor theory developed by Krashen et al. (1983) that this strategy does not enable students to produce the language they have learned; it only helps students learn language system or rules that can be used to monitor the utterances they are going to produce or have produced. In other words, he maintains that with this strategy, students do not actually acquire the language, they only learn. According to Krashen, acquisition is a subconscious process of acquiring language which can be used through a mechanism that guide automatic performance. The concept is illustrated in the following diagram:

![Monitor model diagram](image)

Krashen further points out that even those learned system can only function as a monitor under the following conditions:

1) the performer has to have enough time: in rapid conversation, taking time to think about rules will just disrupt communication; 2) the performer has to be thinking about correctness, or be focused on form: even when we have time, we may not be concerned with
3.6.6 Case 4: Miscellaneous Data

Letter from Department Head

Dear Mr. [student's name]

Your core project has been marked by Prof. [examiner ] and Mr. [ examiner]. They have drawn my attention to the fact that substantial use has been made in your text of extended unacknowledged quotation from at least one published source, namely V.J. Cook's Computers in English Language Teaching. (see pages 14/15). Can I point out that including a reference in a bibliography is not a sufficient acknowledgement of material which has been taken from that source and used verbatim in your own text. This is what you have done and it is quite unacceptable. I am therefore returning your project to you with the request that you go through your text line by line and acknowledge each quotation from an outside source by putting the quotation in quotation marks and by adding in each case the source and page reference. You are asked to hand in the amended project not later than 5pm on Friday [date].

I must further warn you that unacknowledged quotation on the scale that you have used it in this project is an extremely serious matter. Can I draw your attention specifically to the [department academic writing policy statement] the section headed "Plagiarism." I hope that this will not occur again, but it is only fair to you to say that if there were a recurrence of this activity the department would not accept the written work concerned and the whole matter would be referred to the External Examiner in June. What would happen next would depend on his advice at that time.

Yours sincerely,

Head of Dept
3.6.7 Writing Tutor Comments

Session 1

He said he had been asked to resubmit his first assignment (on CALL), which had been returned to him with the comment that he had not given sufficient acknowledgement of his sources. He asked if I would look at his new version and say if it was all right. He was worried in that he had taken most of his material from three different authors and felt it would be ridiculous to acknowledge them in every sentence. I spoke to him a little about academic conventions and what is expected in written assignments, but he seemed baffled, anxious and unconvinced. I took his assignment and the book which was his main source, and arranged to meet him the next day [date]. His deadline for resubmission was [date].
3.6.8 Writing Tutor Comments

Session 2

The new version consisted of more or less copied material, i.e. he had used a synonymous word or phrase in most sentences rather than copy verbatim, and he had, necessarily, had to select what text to use. Acknowledgements were given here and there. On our second meeting I asked him to summarise verbally the main points of the chapter he had used as his first source, but he was unable to do this. We went through the chapter together and he realised that he had missed at least one of the main points. I helped him reformulate his summary of that chapter, and showed how it should be acknowledged. His reactions were: (not necessarily in this order):

(1) surprise and maybe even a little disbelief that so much acknowledgement was necessary.

(2) defence of his position in that he had to "take things out of books" as he had no previous experience of CALL

(3) refusal to reduce the number of acknowledgements by heading the sections "A Summary of X's Views." "A Summary of Y's Proposals." etc. He in fact recognised explicitly that if he did this he would have to add something of his own, and this he wanted to avoid.

(4) repeated assertions that he thought his English was a problem rather than acknowledgements or content. His English was not good, but I told him I did not think it such a problem that he would have an assignment returned or failed on that account.

(5) requests that I should correct his whole assignment in detail, and that I should look at it again on Friday morning (the day of submission) to tell him "if it is all right."

(6) complaints that he was not getting enough supervision.
His supervisors, he said, simply told him to rewrite his assignment. He knew of other students (unnamed) whose supervisors sat with them and went through every sentence with a red pen, correcting their English and helping them with what to say. I expressed mild surprise, but told him that for help with content he really had to see the supervisors for the subject. I also said that the best thing was to see a supervisor very early in the writing process, with an outline, that the earlier he went the more help he was likely to get, and that even supervisors could not look at an assignment just before submission to say if it was "all right", and nor could I. I said that now he knew what was expected of him with regard to acknowledgements I would prefer not to see his paper just before it was to be handed in, but if he did have any problems or doubts in his revision he could come and see me.

He would have been happier if I had helped him rewrite this assignment, but I left him instead with repeated advice on how to read for future assignments, looking for similarities and differences in people's opinions, and comparing them, even if he had no opinions of his own. And going to subject supervisors for early help. He said he didn't expect to have problems with other assignments; it was just that he had no previous knowledge of CALL. He said the next assignment (LPD) was in his own field, that he had already seen the supervisor with an outline and was expecting no problems apart from the English. He asked if I would correct the English of everything he wrote, and I agreed to this so long as it was with the knowledge and approval of the Head of Department.
On [date] [student's name] came to see me again, this time for correction of the English of the first part of his LPD assignment. I agreed to see him the next day, provided you approved. I checked with you, and also told you the story so far, my concerns being his apparent unawareness of what was expected of him and also his perception that some students were getting more help than others. We discussed this, and you supported my line, in particular trying to reassure him that English was not an important problem. You also sent me a copy of the letter asking him to resubmit his first assignment. I saw him the next day [date]. His writing was in fact conceptually incoherent, and the English correction had to include clarifying arguments. He was somewhat resistant to this, telling me more than once that he was very experienced in the field of curriculum studies. He also reiterated his complaint about some supervisors (unnamed) giving more help than others (unnamed). This was a comparatively short session, perhaps about half an hour. I invited him to come back with the rest of his assignment if he wanted. He did not come to see me again. I encountered him occasionally in common rooms and in the street, and he would stop and smile cheerfully. I asked him twice how he was getting on, and on both occasions he beamed and said "Fine." Later, when he was unhappy with his mark for the LPD assignment, both you and [another examiner] warned me that he might come to see me, but he did not.
3.6.10 Examiner Comments

The two [exam name] scripts marked below were triple-marked w/[examiner], and scored low for different reasons. [student name], since he put his name on the front cover) did not really address the question in the light of the relevant [exam name] sessions and handouts, which would have helped him to answer the question as intended. He did refer to background reading, but appears to have drawn on LPD materials rather than [exam tutorial session name]- perhaps using reading from his Project C, in fact?

We think that evaluation of the other failed paper, 97A, really requires advice from [external examiner]. The student wrote just two sides of paper, prefacing the answer with an explanation that (s)he had only 10 minutes to write it. This made it difficult to assess - particularly as it is not possible to verify whether shortage of time was in fact the problem.

One could take the view that the [collection of exam essays], as opposed to a traditional exam, is intended to help students avoid problems of time pressure, that it is nobody's fault but the candidate's, and that two pages is therefore totally inadequate (i.e. worth 3 or less). Alternatively, one might give the benefit of doubt to the candidate and try to "extrapolate" from the two pages handed in, in order to guess at what might have been achieved given better time management. In that case, it might be reasonable to give the student a mark equivalent to the mean score on his/her other [exam essays]. It is not a situation that we have come across with the portfolio, so we would be grateful if [external examiner] and/or you could give the issue some thought.

117 Names of exams have been omitted to protect the identity of department members.
3.7 Case 5: Extensive Amounts of Unacknowledged Verbatim Copying in an MSc Dissertation by a Student of Limited English Proficiency

3.7.1 Summary of Case Details

In case 5 a student, an Italian student who had had problems throughout the academic year, was found to have appropriated extensively from sources without acknowledgment in his MSc dissertation. Throughout the academic year, prior to undertaking the dissertation, the student had exhibited serious difficulties in his English academic writing.

He was described by examiners as "an extremely weak candidate with a set of essays that just scrapes by" and "much of his work [was] copied directly from or based very closely on sources." Also, this student's "sense of relevance, ability to argue a case, to discuss the question, use normal length paragraphs, and to write a coherent essay" were described as "very limited." The student's writing problems, according to one examiner's evaluation, "did not improve significantly over the year despite stringent warnings and advice." So, just barely scraping by in his exams, this student was allowed to proceed to the dissertation stage despite misgivings about his ability to fulfill the dissertation requirements. Examiners expressed "grave doubts about his academic ability and his willingness to accept the necessary close supervision" and expressed doubts that he would "manage to complete a dissertation which will meet the academic and presentational standards for an MSc."\textsuperscript{118}

As predicted, the student had serious difficulties with the MSc dissertation and these difficulties became apparent in the early draft stages of the project. Notes on these early drafts made by the project supervisor reveal the type of problems the student was having. These comments on the student's L2 writing difficulties provide a longitudinal look at the problems encountered by a student of limited English proficiency. Notes on the first draft of the dissertation included comments on the

\textsuperscript{118} Refer to examiners' "Comments on Candidates" in the miscellaneous data section (app 3.7.7, p A388).
abstract and presentation. The supervisor felt that the student had not written a satisfactory abstract and that he did not have sufficient paragraphing in his work. Lack of conventional paragraphing made the draft difficult to read and frustrated the supervisor to no end. It seems that the student had difficulty in comprehending the difference between introductions and abstracts, and his supervisor stressed that he needed to "understand the difference between an abstract... and an introduction" and encouraged him to "take an example of one from last year's dissertations."

In the miscellaneous data section excerpts are presented from an early draft of the MSc dissertation. Readers may refer to these excerpts to see the corresponding student text to which supervisor comments apply. The supervisor went through the text and made numbered comments in evaluating this early draft. To begin, the supervisor mentions disappointment in the student once more presenting his work "in a format that was not conventional." Also he comments again on the paragraphing, asking the student "Would you kindly do what you are told or suffer the consequences" and reminding him that "A paragraph needs to be separated by space - a whole line - from the previous paragraph. Can you understand this???? It is not clear how many paragraphs there are on p. 1." Next the supervisor asks "What on earth are you doing on page 2? Is this a two paragraph page--or what about all these other shorter pieces????" And he mentions spelling as well: "I really don't think I can go through every spelling mistake. you have finished your dissertation with a lot of time to spare; so you should have time to check it very carefully, or get someone else to if you want."

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119 See section 3.7.5 of the miscellaneous data section (p A367).
120 See section 3.7.6 of the miscellaneous data section (p A 381).
121 See page one of this early draft in the miscellaneous data section (app 3.7.5, p A367).
Shortly into the student work the problem of unclear source acknowledgement is pointed out to the student on page 4. The supervisor asks, "I want to be absolutely clear about this: Is the following paragraph from Fadl Hasan a quote from him or a paraphrase by you?" And he then warns that if it is a quotation "then it must be indented and shown as a quote with a page number." Shortly later it is evident again from supervisor comments that clarification of sources is needed. The supervisor states "You make it impossible to know if these are Sanderson's words or yours. In other words, you are not changing your style at all from those early chapters I looked at", and shortly later he asks "Is this paragraph a quote from someone?? There are no sources given for it, though you do mention Beshir at the end", and he writes "It is still not clear if your long pieces e.g. after Beshir are quotes."

In chapter 2 of the student draft the problem of source attribution is pointed out once more. The supervisor states "A lot of this seems very derivative" and asks "is it a quotation or taken from some particular source. It certainly does not seem to be in "[student's name]" English! Is it from Trimmingham?" And then the supervisor chides the student once more for his lack of paragraphing: "Now we are fully back to your bad old ways: each sentence becomes one paragraph. WHY WHY WHY!" He then moves on to point out more apparent textual appropriation. The supervisor writes "It is usually obvious when you are writing and when you are using someone else's language. e.g. 'a subaltern status' Or am I mistaken? But some of the ideas here are good and relevant"; next, the supervisor follows this comment with another observation: "This language is not yours: altar and throne etc." The supervisor's reaction to this section of the draft is as follows: "Much of the previous section seems

122 Refer to miscellaneous data section for copy of page 4 (app 3.7.5, p A369), and note 3B (app 3.7.6, p 382).
123 See miscellaneous data section for copies of pages on which notes are based, pages 6, 8, 9 of student text (app 3.7.5, ppA370, -372) notes 8, 12b and 13 (app 3.7.6, ppA381-A386).
124 See miscellaneous data section for copy of page 16 (app 3.7.5, p A373), note 2 (app 3.7.6, p A383).
125 See miscellaneous data section, pages 17, 18, 19, 20 of second draft (app 3.7.5), notes 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 (app 3.7.6, p A381).
126 These notes by the supervisor are an illustration of how plagiarism and derivative writing are frequently discovered. Teachers recognise language use which is above a student's ability and past performance.
to have been derived from particular authors rather than made your own. I would have preferred for you to concentrate on this next section—you don’t really have time to write the history of Islam in Africa." He then warns the student again about acknowledging sources: "Much of this great long paragraph does not seem like your own work. I hope you realise that you cannot use the actual sentences of someone else without putting them in quotation marks."

Next the supervisor mentions the problems of careless presentation and unclear language use: "You realise that in sending me this kind of carelessly presented work you make it v. difficult to see you as someone who is anxious to learn. Even though you say that you are going to improve the format and structure, it seems a pity to present it in this manner and then have to make it more readable." The supervisor also says "This is your English" and he asks "what does it mean?" On page 21 of the student text, by note 13, there is an interesting recontextualisation and a very awkward transition—an obviously poor linkage between the student’s non-native-like writing and the writing lifted from a published text.

Following this there are more questions from the supervisor about whether quotations need to be acknowledged. The supervisor asks "Is this a quotation from Dekmajian?" and then in chapter 3 of the draft he asks "What is the source of this information?" And as a final note in draft comments the supervisor warns the student of the derivative nature of his work, leaving room for possible improvement in writing the last chapter:

Final note. The last chapter - which I have not seen yet - will determine the acceptability of this dissertation. You should be aware that much of the previous 3 chapters has been quite derivative, but ch. 4 could be easily the most important and original.

127 Here the supervisor becomes increasingly sarcastic.
128 See page 21 of student text, notes 12 and 13 (app 383).
129 The comments made by this supervisor become humorous because of the redundancy. It seems that the supervisor is chiding his student as a parent would a mischievous child.
After chapter 4 was handed in, notes made by the supervisor reveal the same problems of presentation, source acknowledgement, and English stylistic problems. The supervisor suggested that the student get a proofreader, and to make his final point about paragraphing, the supervisor used capital letters. The overall tone of these supervisor comments reveals frustration and irritation with the student:

If the first paragraph goes down to your footnote 2 on page 30 THAT IS SIMPLY TOO LONG AND THERE ARE TOO MANY DIFFERENT TOPICS IN THERE. PLEASE UNDERSTAND THAT YOUR THESIS WILL BE EASIER TO READ IF IT IS PRESENTED IN A CONVENTION IN WHICH A CLUSTER OF THOUGHTS IS PRESENTED IN A SINGLE PARAGRAPH.

Because of the external examiner's reputation as a "stickler for correctness" the supervisor's advice was as follows: "If you are unsure of catching all the English stylistic problems yourself then do what our other good foreign students like [another student] do - they pay someone to correct the English . . . I seriously think you would be ill-advised not to do this."

The student went on from the early drafts of his work to finish and submit his dissertation. Unfortunately, extensive derivation was a major feature of the dissertation, and the same writing problems were evident which had been present throughout the year in course projects and in early drafts of the dissertation. Chapter 3 of the student's dissertation on "Education in the Muslim World" was discovered to contain textual appropriation from two main sources: Trimmingham's (1980) *The Influence of Islam upon Africa*, in particular chapter 4, "Influence of Islam upon Social Life", and Bray et al's (1990) *Education and Society in Africa*, especially chapter 5, "Islamic education: continuity and change." These 2 chapters were identified by examiners as the main sources of derivation although it is likely that text was appropriated from other sources as well.
The student had employed a complex, extremely unorganised method of pasting together "chunks" of the source texts, giving poor transitions between the "chunks" of texts which result in obvious recontextualisation problems. The complexity of this text made the unravelling of the student's appropriation to be quite a tedious and difficult task. Only the first part of chapter 3 is presented for this case, but as has been suggested already, further appropriation from other texts is highly likely. In this first part of chapter 3, examiners were able to positively identify specific sources from which the student had lifted text. Generally, this case is a good illustration of the mixture of writing styles typical of problematic L2 writing. There are easily spotted differences between student text and unacknowledged source text due to problems with recontextualisation.

In chapter 3 of his dissertation, entitled "Education in the Muslim World", the student introduces the topics to be covered, and shortly after the introduction reference is made to Trimingham. Copied sections from Trimingham's text (p85) are presented without acknowledgment as is evident in extract 1. It is obvious that whole phrases have been copied. In copying, the student has skipped several lines in the source text, and there has been some paraphrase of Trimingham's ideas. For example, the student wrote "in societies more recently exposed to Islamicization the process is under way" rather than directly copying the source text's wording "in other societies the process has only just begun."

In extract 2, beginning with Trimingham's section 5 title "The role of Arabs and Arabic in Africa", the copying continues, and reference is again made to Trimingham as if the student were paraphrasing or summarising, when actually he has presented verbatim copying from Trimingham (p 99) just after this reference. An important observation here in extract 2 is the synonym substitution employed by the student. For example, instead of "coalesce" the student writes "mix", instead of "impart" he writes "divulge" and so on. It is also seen that he prefers the use of "Black" instead of

131 The current researcher had only marginal notes and the source authors' names to go on. The examiners had not clearly indicated which student text had been appropriated. The examiners were familiar with the source texts, and were able to recognise the appropriation.
"Negro." Perhaps the student had in hand a thesaurus or dictionary while copying. Another important observation is an instance of miscopying, an indication that mechanical copying has been done. The student lost concentration for a moment on the task at hand, and made an error, writing "the language of the law books has evicted the languages of Muslims" rather than "the language of the law books has enriched the languages of Muslims." This is quite a change in meaning.

Skipping a few sentences in the source text, the copying continues until near the end of Trimmingham's chapter 4 as is demonstrated in extract 3. The next identifiable source of textual appropriation was from Bray et al, chapter 5, from his chapter on "Islamic education: continuity and change" in the book Education and Society in Africa, which was the source text for the student's section on the "Content and aims of Islamic education." Here the student text becomes a difficult mixture of textual appropriation to untangle, with the student skipping back and forth in the source text in his appropriation of phrases and sentences. As shown in extract 4 this next series of textual appropriation begins on page 79 of Bray et al, from which the student has lifted a phrase from a section title to introduce his own section on the "Content and aims of Islamic education." The first few sentences seem to be paraphrase of Bray's text. The student's paraphrase was written in what the supervisor termed "[student's name] English", and there are recontextualisation problems with an ungrammatical linkage and poor transition between student text and the appropriated source text. There is a marked difference between the student's own wording and that of the copied text as is evident in extract 4. The text written by the student is clearly non-native like English, although even this text seems to include lifted words and phrases. It may be that the student has awkwardly attempted to restructure some sentences. In any case, the student has copied more text after this wording, which from all appearances, seems to be his own phraseology.

132 This mechanical copying error is quite similar to, perhaps the same thing as, some of the scribal errors which occurred when ancient Hebrew scholars were making copies of their Scriptures in a mechanical, repetitive fashion.
133 From paragraph one of the section "The growth of Islamic education in Africa."
Continuing on page 80 of the source text, the student skips a paragraph from where he last copied, and he begins copying again after two sentences which are presumably of his own construction, as presented in extract 5. Next, as seen in extract 6, the student gives an awkward transition, in more non-native-like English, to the next lengthy paragraph of nearly two single-spaced typed pages. After this awkward transition, the student borrows several more phrases from page 80 of Bray et al's text.

As seen in extract 7, the next section of the student text is somewhat complicated, with much of the text being of uncertain origin. The student skips to page 87 of the source text to borrow from Bray's section on "The goals and relevance of Islamic education"; he then apparently borrows text from another source, and then he skips back to Bray et al page 83, the section on "The curriculum", to continue the textual appropriation. As already mentioned, the first sentence in the above student text is borrowed from Bray (slightly rearranged), followed by text which does not appear to be of the student's own composition. Next, at the end of extract 7, a mixture of paraphrase of, and copying from, the source text is evident.

Then, as shown in extract 8, the student moves on to discuss the subjects of discipline, women, and Islamic education. He then skips to page 86 to paraphrase before skipping back to page 84 of the source text. In referring to the Koran, the student miscopies and writes "verse 9" instead of "verse 39." It is evident again here that there is a mixture of paraphrase and copying, resulting in the "choppy" writing style of the student which resembles a disjointed "jumble" of phrases on disparate topics. For example, while still in the same paragraph the student has skipped from the subject of discipline to the subject of women in Islamic education. Another interesting observation is that the student has skipped--without a break in copying and without beginning a new sentence--from the end of one paragraph in the source text to the end of the next and last paragraph in the source text section. In the source text section on "The education of women in Islam", the student skips from the phrase "In more recent times" to the phrase "A Women's Arabic Teachers' College" in the next...
paragraph. Selective omission of source material is done in such a way that the text is
joined somewhat smoothly, notwithstanding the informational disjunctures. This is
perhaps an indication that the student is quite skilled in, and accustomed to, such
appropriation involving the omission and recombination of source text "chunks."

Now, as seen in extract 9, while still in the same paragraph of his own text, the
student skips back to page 82 of the source text to copy the section on the types of
Islamic schools. Some lines of the source text have been selectively omitted in the
copying. The student apparently lifted what he felt to be appropriate sentences and
phrases for use in his own text.

Next, as shown in extract 10, several phrases are once again copied that have
already been copied and used in the discussion of the curriculum (see extract 7).
After this "recycling" of source material which has already been lifted once, the
student borrows some more text from the same page, as is evident in extract 11. An
interesting observation here is the slight error made by the student in his
paraphrase/synonym substitution. In attempting to paraphrase "provide at least a
grounding in Arabic" the student writes "provide at least a basic understanding in
Arabic", neglecting to change the preposition in to of, which would have been the
more appropriate preposition. There is also another instance of miscopying. The
student wrote "a wide range of Islamic literacy, theological and legal subjects" instead
of "a wide range of Islamic literary, theological and legal subjects." Now on page 84
the copying continues as seen in extract 12. Finally the student skips back to page 80
of the source text for more paraphrase and copying as shown in extract 13.

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3.7.2 Outcome of the Case

As seen in the extracts of this student's writing, his work was very derivative, consisting mostly of copying, paraphrase, and summary of what others have said. Unfortunately, this student's inability to overcome a derivative writing style inhibited him from capitalising on the vast knowledge that he had of the Sudan. The external examiner saw that the student had "a very important and interesting story to tell about the islamization of the Sudan and the impact of this on education", but he was unable to put his experience into acceptable written form because of his proficiency-related difficulties. The student had "the immense advantage, too, of being able to draw both upon personal experience and on material and interviews which provide valuable firsthand accounts and analyses by other people who cannot be identified for security reasons." However the examiner's judgement was that "Alas, the account has not been presented in sufficient detail and in accordance with academic convention to satisfy the standards required for an MSc dissertation."

The student had the material and experience for an excellent dissertation, and "so much that is unique to say about the Sudan", but he lacked the academic writing proficiency to successfully complete the dissertation. Unfortunately the student was prevented from making an effective and original Education-Islamisation argument because of the extensive amounts of copying and summarising of Bray et al and Tringham. Perhaps this copying was done to ensure that his English would be of native-like quality, or perhaps because he did not have the proficiency and the time to produce quality writing. He did not focus on his own experience due to serious linguistic difficulties which hindered his ability to relate this experience and present his arguments in coherent English.

One of the specific problems noted by examiners was that "Much of the text was heavily derivative, and especially so in Ch. 3, and insufficient attention was paid to the proper academic conventions for presenting, crediting and acknowledging the use made of the work of other authors." Further, "Only a small number of items in the extensive and impressive bibliography were actually cited. Additional sources, some
with incomplete bibliographical details, were cited in the notes, as were the details of individual papers in edited collections. The extensive copying which was discovered may have been only the "tip of the iceberg." The appropriation was most likely more extensive than what was actually discovered. Examiners also made note of the poor "standard of syntax and English", the unacceptable presentation, "numerous typographic errors, mispellings and variations in names and dates, footnote reference numbers missing from the text, sentences or words missing between pages, details missing in the bibliographic entries, some incorrect citations, and the inclusion of 'op.cit.' in the first citation of some sources." The student had satisfied the requirements for a diploma, but he did not get the MSc degree because he was not able to satisfactorily complete his MSc dissertation.
3.7.3- Textual Appropriation in Case 5

Presented on the following pages are the extracts from Case 5 which illustrate the derivative composing strategies employed by Student E in writing his MSc dissertation.
I will cover in this section three main aspects regarding Muslim education, namely: Islam and social life; content and aim of Muslim education in Africa and in general the Muslim world so that a clearer picture of their reciprocal influences will be gained; finally the role played by the new Muslim intellectuals of Black Africa with regard to the Islamic institutions of learning will be looked at.

Islam and social life

Before analyzing the role of Muslim education in general, it seems important to sketch some features of what Trimmingham calls Influence of Islam on social life (1). Islam as a socio-religious phenomenon does affect all aspects of social life. Family, religious rituals, economic relationships have, in one way or another, to take into account Islam since the latter has deeply affected them and it finds its expression in a rich variety of social relationships. Islam stresses quite strongly the concept of community of believers -the Umma- and the believers do feel important to express their belonging to the Ummah through participation in socio-religious rituals. An interesting aspect is that when Islam is adopted the concept of community is extended to include all who observe Islamic ritual and custom. Ritual brings the community together for regular observances like Friday or 'Id prayers. In this way Muslims affirm for themselves and before the world their significance as a people linked, if not united, by Islam. The life of integrated Islamic communities is a mosaic of Islamic and indigenous elements in complex combinations, but running through the web of life of different peoples the Islamic elements form a uniform, abstract, impersonal thread showing little significant variation. Thus a Muslim can participate in ritual prayer in whatever country he is in. The change brought about by Islam in this respect should not be exaggerated, the old bases of community remain paramount and the ideal of the unity of believers a superimposed linkage, yet our first fact must be to see Islam as a factor in community relationships.

2. The Islamic community

We have just emphasized the place of ritual in Islamic universalism, but what about the linking threads of Islamic social institutions? Here the communities have asserted their distinctiveness and show wide divergencies. Custom seems to have an autonomy of its own. Although Islam changes the religious basis upon which the social structure depended it does not thereby cause social disintegration or even radical change. In long Islamized societies present custom is the integrated result of a long process of change before pressure from Islamic law; in other societies the process has only just begun. Consequently, we are presented with extreme variations in the custom of different societies, and generalizations become impossible. Each people, each clan, each family frequently, varies. All one can do is to indicate tendencies and the range of possibilities for change.

(pp85-86)
3.7.3.2 Case 5: Extract 2

Student Text:

The role of Arabs and Arabic in Africa

As Trimingham points out Arabs have manifested unique characteristics of assimilation and assimilability. They are easily assimilable into another environment and mix with the indigenous people, and, at the same time, they divulge their linguistic, religious and social characteristics. Arabization is especially associated with the spread of nomads, as in the Maghrib and with Arab political domination, as in Egypt. During the primary dispersion of Muslim Arabs, Arabic substituted itself easily for the language of those with a Syriac-Aramaic or Coptic background. But the immigration and settlement of individual traders does not lead to Arabization. Arabic did not become the lingua franca of the East African coastal region though Arab influence was strong in many aspects of life: instead the immigrants were using a Bantu language. Where Islam’s diffusion was accompanied by Arabization there was generally greater social change than among nomads who retained their languages. Arabization is especially associated with the spread of nomads, as in the Maghrib, and with Arab political domination, as in Egypt. During the primary dispersion of Muslim Arabs, Arabic substituted itself easily for the language of those with a Syriac-Aramaic or Coptic background. The immigration and settlement of individual traders, even in considerable numbers, does not lead to Arabizations. Arabic did not become the lingua franca of the East African coastal towns though Arab influence was strong on many aspects of life; instead, the immigrants were captured by a Bantu language. Where Islam’s spread was accompanied by Arabization there was generally greater social change than among Hamitic nomads who retained their languages—Tuareg in central Sahara and Niger bend, and among Beja, Saho, ‘Afar, Somali and Gall in north-east Africa.

The role of Arabs in the history of Africa is too vast a subject to be treated here, but we need to stress the effect of their language. The spread of a religion possessing a sacred scripture sets up an interrelationship between the sacred language and the languages of the people who adopt the religion. This is especially the case with Arabic. In Hamitic-speaking Africa Islamization was accompanied by Arabization but in Black Africa Islam was spread almost entirely by Africans and Arabic was not envisaged as a living language. Thus the great divide between these two African regions has been perpetuated by language, for while the spread of Islam has been accompanied by the absorption of words and expressions into African languages, in Black Africa the mediating factor were the law books of the Muslim clergy. Arabic in Black Africa was wholly a sacred language with little or no secular usage. Few colloquial or daily-life words penetrated, but the language of the law books has evicted the languages of Muslims with religious, political, commercial and abstract words and expressions.

Source Text:

5. The role of Arabs and Arabic in Africa

Arabs have manifested unique characteristics of assimilation and assimilability. They are easily assimilable into another environment and coalesce with the indigenous people, and, at the same time, they impart their linguistic, religious and social characteristics. Thus in Nilotic Sudan they have mixed with both Hamites and Negroes, and though they became considerably modified in physical characteristics they transmitted their language, social patterns (tribal system) and ethos (pride in an Arab nasab).

Arabization is especially associated with the spread of nomads, as in the Maghrib, and with Arab political domination, as in Egypt. During the primary dispersion of Muslim Arabs, Arabic substituted itself easily for the language of those with a Syriac-Aramaic or Coptic background. The immigration and settlement of individual traders, even in considerable numbers, does not lead to Arabizations. Arabic did not become the lingua franca of the East African coastal towns though Arab influence was strong on many aspects of life; instead, the immigrants were captured by a Bantu language. Where Islam’s spread was accompanied by Arabization there was generally greater social change than among Hamitic nomads who retained their languages—Tuareg in central Sahara and Niger bend, and among Beja, Saho, ‘Afar, Somali and Gall in north-east Africa.

The role of Arabs in the history of Africa is too vast a subject to be treated here, but we need to stress the effect of their language. The spread of a religion possessing a sacred scripture sets up an interrelationship between the sacred language and the languages of the people who adopt the religion. This is especially the case with Arabic. In Hamitic-speaking Africa Islamization was accompanied by Arabization, and the effect we have shown to be profound, but in Negro Africa Islam was spread almost entirely by Africans and Arabic was not envisaged as a living language. Thus the great divide between white (Hamitic) and black (Negro) Africa has been perpetuated by the absorption of words and expressions into African languages, in Negro Africa the mediating factor has been the law books in the memories of the clergy. Arabic in Negro Africa was wholly a sacred language with little or no secular usages. Few colloquial or daily-life words penetrated, but the language of the law books has enriched the languages of Muslims with hundreds of religious, political, commercial and abstract words and expressions. (99)
3.7.3.3 Case 5: Extract 3

Student Text:

Another effect was to stimulate Africans to write their own languages in Arabic characters, sometimes with the use of additional signs. Harari, a Semitic language, is unique, but Tokolar Fulbe, Jalon, Hausa, Songay and Swahili corresponded through the medium of their own languages [word omitted] even transcribed poems and other compositions. The impact of secular culture has not missed even this sphere. Arabic has stimulated Africans to write their own languages but the effect of the West has been to spread the usage of Latin script and it has all but substituted itself in the writing of Hausa and Swahili, both languages where the usage was greater than elsewhere. One reason for this easy conquest is that Latin is more suitable than the vowelless Arabic script for expressing African languages. Another cause derives from the ambivalent attitude of African Muslims towards Arabic as a sacred script. The 'ulama' did not encourage its secular use. They wrote their compositions in stilted Arabic and vernacular writing in Arabic tended to be mainly for secular usage such as commercial correspondence.

Source Text:

Another effect was to stimulate Africans to write their own languages in Arabic characters, sometimes with the use of additional signs. Harari, a Semitic language, is unique, but Tokolar and Fulbe in Futas Toro and Jalon, Hausa and Songhay, and Swahili corresponded through the medium of their own languages and even transcribed poems and other compositions. The impact of secular culture has not missed even this sphere. Arabic had stimulated Africans to write their own languages, but the effect of the West has been to spread the usage of the Latin script and it has all but substituted itself in the writing of Hausa and Swahili, both languages where the usage was greater than elsewhere. One reason for this easy conquest is that the Latin is more suitable than the vowelless Arabic script for expressing African languages. Another cause derives from the ambivalent attitude of African Muslims towards Arabic as a sacred script. Clergy did not encourage its secular use. They wrote their compositions in stilted Arabic and vernacular writing in Arabic script tended to be mainly for secular usage such as commercial correspondence. Thus there was no stimulus to compose in one's own language. Hausa clergy employed the term Ajami (Ar. 'ajami, 'ajamiyya, 'outlandish') for vernacular texts written in Arabic characters.
3.7.3.4 Case 5: Extract 4

Student Text:

Islamic education in Africa. In previous chapters it has already been pointed out the role of education in so far as Islam's diffusion in Africa is concerned. What is then its importance? The way in which Islam took roots in Africa was conducive in the establishment of Islamic communities in different areas of the continent. By the tenth and eleventh centuries A.D. Islamic communities had been established in several commercial centers in the Western Sahara and Sale. By the end of the eleventh century A.D. the rulers of kingdoms such as Takrur, Kanem-Born and Gao had converted to Islam and appointed Muslims who were literate in Arabic as advisers. From the fourteenth century A.D. the Timbuktu region was also a region of Islamic learning, exerting an influence far into modern-day Mali and Mauritania. Centers of higher Islamic education have also existed for many centuries. Even before the world-famous al-Azhar University was founded in Cairo in A.D. 996, the Qarawiyyin school was established in Morocco.

Source Text:

The growth of Islamic education in Africa

Islam has a long history in Africa, and its education system has operated much longer than the Western one. A Muslim presence was established in North Africa in the seventh century, and in the eighth century Islam began to spread along the trade routes into the western, central and eastern Sudan, the Horn of Africa and East Africa. By the close of the ninth century Arab immigrants had established an Islamic state at Shoa in the Horn of Africa, and by the tenth century there were several Muslim kingdoms in this region. One of these kingdoms controlled the port of Zayla on the Somali coast, and by the mid-fourteenth century Muslim students from Zayla were attending the Islamic University of al-Azhar in Cairo. Ibn Battuta (A.D. 1304-1369) was a widely travelled North African Muslim scholar who visited Somalia in A.D. 1331. Mogadishu, he wrote, was 'a town endless in size' which was ruled by a Muslim, Sultan Abu Bakr. Ibn Battuta was given accommodation in a house for students of Islamic religious studies, and he noted the recognition and use of Islamic law.

Likewise, by the tenth and eleventh centuries A.D. communities of Muslim merchants and scholars had been established in several commercial centres in the Western Sahara and Sahel. By the end of the eleventh century the rulers of kingdoms such as Takrur, Ancient Ghana, Kanem-Borno and Gao had converted to Islam, and had appointed Muslims who were literate in Arabic as advisers. From the fourteenth century the Timbuktu region was also a centre of Islamic learning, exerting an influence far into modern-day Mali and Mauritania.

Centres of higher Islamic education have also existed for many centuries. Even before the world-famous al-Azhar University was founded in Cairo in A.D. 996, the Qarawiyyin school was established in Morocco. In addition to Timbuktu other towns in West Africa such as Shingiti, Jenne, Agades, Kano and N'gazargamu became well known and influential centres of Islamic learning during the period from the thirteenth to the seventeenth centuries.
In brief a net-work of Islamic centers of learning were established. During the present century the Islamic education system had to compete with the Western one. Key institutions have played a leading role in modernizing the education system. Among them the Islamic University in Khartoum (Sudan), the Islamic Institute in Dakar (Senegal), the Islamic Institute of Higher Learning in Mauritania, the Islamic Education Centre in Kano (Nigeria). A fuller account of more recent developments with regards to contemporary Islamic centers of higher learning will be given in the following pages.

Nevertheless, in parts of Mauritania and Mali there are still more pupils in Qur'anic schools than in Western ones. Efforts have also been made in several countries to modernise and strengthen the Islamic system. Key institutions for this have been the Islamic University in Khartoum (Sudan) the Islamic Institute in Dakar (Senegal), the Islamic Institute of Higher Learning in Boutilimit (Mauritania), and the Islamic Education Centre in Kano (Nigeria).
3.7.3.6 Case 5: Extract 6

**Student Text:**

From the given brief account of African Islam early days it clearly emerges the central place of education. **Although aspects of the education system have been criticized both by Muslims and non-Muslims it is fair to affirm that it offers a unique approach to learning and life.** [skips several lines in source text] The Islamic education system has several characteristics and distinctive features which should be contrasted with the Western system.

**Source Text:**

Although aspects of the system have been criticized both by Muslims and non-Muslims, it offers an unique approach to learning and life. It is also held in high esteem both for what it has accomplished in the past and for what it can contributed to African societies today. Particularly notable is the contribution of Islamic education to countries which are attempting to decolonize, to industrialize and to build national unity.

**Some distinctive features of the Islamic education system**

The Islamic education system has several distinctive features which should be contrasted with those of the Western system. The Islamic system is in many respects far less dependent for its operation on specific administrative, institutional and organizational patterns.
3.7.3.7 Case 5: Extract 7

**Student Text:**

In general it places less emphasis on instrumental goals and more on expressive and normative objectives. Muslim philosophers agree that the essence of Islamic education is moral and character training. According to Muslim educators the purpose of education is not to stuff the minds of students with facts but to refine morals, educate spirits, propagate virtue, teach and prepare for a life full of purity and sincerity (7). The first and highest goal of Islamic education is therefore moral refinement and spiritual training. Apart from the cordial objective of moral training Islamic education also focuses on secular issues of life. It is therefore concerned with the material aspects of life. Although the objectives of Islamic education aim at embracing spiritual and material teaching, the Koranic school curriculum in Africa has tended to be uniform with a strong religious bias. This curriculum focuses mainly on memorizing the 60 parts of the Koran. The teacher usually starts with Arabic alphabet, the vowel sounds and writing. He then moves into the chapters of the Koran until the pupils have learnt the Koran by heart. The process of memorizing the Koran is divided into five stages and completion of each stage is marked by a ceremony.

**Source Text:**

The goals and relevance of Islamic education

Although we have already said a great deal about the goals and relevance of Islamic education, it is useful to enlarge on some issues and to pull threads together. 

We have already mentioned that the Islamic system places less emphasis on examinations and diplomas than does the Western system. In general, therefore, it places less emphasis on instrumental goals and more on expressive and normative ones than does the Western system. Ibn Khaldun stressed the importance of normative goals when he stated: 'The basis of all the traditional sciences is the legal material of the Qur'an and the Sunna, which is the law given us by God and his messenger.'

The Curriculum

At the intellectual level, Qur'anic education chiefly consists of memorizing the Qur'an. For this purpose the Qur'an is usually divided into 60 parts. The method employed in memorization may vary slightly, and depends to some extent on the availability of blackboards, chald, ink, and paper or slates. Of course it also depends on the competence, qualifications, and dedication of the teacher. In Jahanke (Senegambian) schools, the teacher begins with the letters of the Arabic alphabet, the vowel sounds, and writing. Then, starting with the shortest chapter (sura), the pupil goes on to learn the Qur'an by heart. Some pupils take five years to complete this process, and others take longer. The process of memorizing the Qur'an is divided into five stages, and completion of each stage is marked by a ceremony.

The curriculum of the Qur'anic school has often been strongly criticized. Ibn Khaldun, for example, felt that to restrict students to learning the Qur'an by heart was fruitless. He argued that 'a person who [only] knows the Qur'an does not acquire the habit of the Arabic language. It will be his lot to be awkward in expression and to have little fluency in speaking'. He seems to have preferred the method of instruction and the curriculum used in Qur'anic schools in Spain, where the emphasis was on poetry, composition, arithmetic and Arabic grammar, and where the student went on to detailed study of the Qur'an after having studied these subjects. Other observers in more recent times have made similar judgements, suggesting that the instruction of Qur'anic schools has little pedagogical value, and pointing out that in many communities which do not use Arabic in everyday life the students do not even understand the meaning of the words they chant.
Another aspect of Koranic education with has attracted criticism is that of discipline. Care is supposed to be administered with fatherly levity and caution. Harsh discipline has not been approved by Islamic educational theorists. Koranic schools have been called upon to create a happy learning atmosphere. [from page 86] Islamic education has tended to be a man's domain. In theory Islam prescribes the pursuit of learning by both men and women. In spiritual, educational and religious matters, Islam treats men and women as equal, no distinction between them. On the right of Muslim women to receive education Muslim scholars cite verses of the Koran such as Koran chapter 9 verse 9 [sic, should read 39] and refer to several hadiths. They give many names of educated Muslim women in the early Islamic era who could read and write, including the Prophet's wife Aisha who was a leading Islamic scholar. Usman dan Fodio, the Muslim reformer from Hausaland spoke out against the neglect of women's education, and in Egypt in the nineteenth century there were at least two strong protagonists of women's education. One was Rifai al Tahhari who called for the provision of the same educational facilities for women as for men, and the other was the lawyer Quasim Amin. In more recent times in Nigeria, Usman Nagogo, Isa Wali and Aminu Kano, among others, have emphasised the right and even the duty of women to be educated. Women also have the right to teach. Usman dan Fodio wrote of Muslim widows in Nigeria being employed by the wealthy to teach their families and added that they also had 'a collection of children mainly girls to teach in their homes in addition to teaching the grown-ups'. 19 Usman dan Fodio's own daughter Khadija gave lessons on Islamic law and the Quran, and wrote poetry. His other daughter Asama'u Nana also wrote poetry and taught Islamic religious knowledge. In this century there have been several well-known Muslim women teachers in Nigeria. Among them were Malama Dada in Kano, who taught both men and women, and Malama Atika from Zaria. In 1977 a Women's Arabic Teachers' College was opened in Kano specifically to train female teachers of Islamic religious knowledge. 20 Many Muslims accept, however, that in general there has either been serious neglect or at the very least insufficient attention given to the subject of women's education. 21 (page 84-85)
There are basically two types of Islamic schools: the Koranic and the Ilm. In many parts of Africa these schools are in mosques, private houses or premises set aside for the purpose. The age at which the children begin Koranic school varies. In some cases a formal ceremony takes place on the day a pupil is first admitted to the school. There is some variation in the curriculum of the Koranic schools but in most of Islamic Africa it is strikingly uniform. Children between the ages of three and fifteen are admitted to the schools. At this stage the pupils learn the shorter chapters of the Koran through repetition and rote.

There are basically two types of Islamic schools: the Qur'anic and the Ilm. These schools can be located almost anywhere, for instance under the shade of a tree, in a private house, or in a mosque. The Qur'anic school is equivalent to the Western primary school, and the Ilm school to the Western secondary school. The age at which children begin Qur'anic school varies. Among the Dyula communities in Mali, Guinea, Burkina Faso and the Ivory Coast, the children usually begin Qur'anic school at the age of six, while among the Jakhanke in Senegal and the Gambia they may begin as early as three. In some cases a formal ceremony takes place on the day a pupil is first admitted to the Qur'anic school. In Jakhanke schools the pupils' heads are shaved, and the words 'in the name of Allah' are written on the palms of their hands. The pupils lick the sacred writing while the ink is still fresh. Then they stretch out their hands to receive small balls of pounded grain with are taken home and given to first their fathers and then their mothers. This seems to indicate that the child has in some sense been 'bought' by the teacher. At the later passing out ceremony the parents 'buy back' their child.

There is some variation in the curriculum of the Qur'anic school, but in most of Islamic Africa it is strikingly uniform. Al Ghazali, the Iranian scholar whom we have just mentioned, had a profound influence on the curriculum of the Islamic schools and universities throughout the world.
The curriculum of the Koranic school had often been strongly criticized. Some observers suggest that the instruction of Koranic schools has little pedagogical value and point out that in many communities which do not use Arabic in everyday life the students are not able to understand what they learn.

Ibn Khaldun, for example, felt that to restrict students to learning the Qur'an by heart was fruitless. He argued that 'a person who [only] knows the Qur'an does not acquire the habit of the Arabic language. It will be his lot to be awkward in expression and to have little fluency in speaking'. He seems to have preferred the method of instruction and the curriculum used in Qur'anic schools in Spain, where the emphasis was on poetry, composition, arithmetic and Arabic grammar, and where the student went on to detailed study of the Qur'an after having studied these subjects. Other observers in more recent times have made similar judgements, suggesting that the instruction of Qur'anic schools has little pedagogical value, and pointing out that in many communities which do not use Arabic in everyday life the students do not even understand the meaning of the words they chant.
On the other hand research by Wilks on Islamic learning in Mali, Guinea, Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast points out that the Koranic schools provide at least a basic understanding in Arabic, which can be built on by those who are able. On completion of studies in the Koranic schools some students go on to an Ilm school of higher learning. The Ilm school has a much broader curriculum embracing a wide range of islamic literacy, theological and legal subjects. The curriculum consists of tafsir the interpretation of the Koran and the study of literature. The study of hadith is also of central importance; these traditions cover such subjects as marriage, divorce, inheritance and personal conduct. They are supposed to give the students a clear idea of the behavior from an orthodox Muslim point of view and an insight into how an Islamic society should be organized, administered and governed.

Some people, however, evaluate matters differently. For example Wilks' study of Islamic learning in Mali, Guinea, Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast and Ghana suggests that many of the criticisms of the Qur'anic schools are too severe. It points out that the schools do provide at least a grounding in Arabic, which can be built on by those who have the interest and ability, and maintains that 'a talented and well taught pupil will rapidly acquire a command of Arabic, and in his early teens may be studying grammar and syntax, and reading basic works of law'.

The schools also teach students to respect their elders and the culture of which they are a part.

After Qur'anic school some students go on to an Ilm school of higher learning. In these schools students of all ages learn a wide range of Islamic literary, theological and legal subjects. Many Ilm schools trace their origins back several hundred years. Mauritania, for example, had Ilm schools as far back as the thirteenth century.

In the Ilm schools the formal curriculum consists of tafsir, which is basically the interpretation of the Qur'an, and the study of literature, much of which has been derived from Qur'anic commentary. The study of hadith is also a central part of the Ilm school curriculum. These traditions cover subjects such as marriage, divorce, inheritance, and personal conduct. They give the student a clear idea of the behavior expected from an orthodox Muslim, and insight into how an Islamic society should be organized, administered and governed.
Ilm students are also expected to study the *figh* which is the theory of *shari'a*. Ilm students learn Arabic and literature, which includes *madith* praises addressed to the Prophet. There is also *sira* literature in prose and verse which contains stories about the life of the Prophet and *wa'z* which is Islamic literature describing notions of paradise and hell. Not every Ilm school teaches all these subjects. Some schools specialize and gain reputation as the best ones for the study of particular subject or group of subjects. In some parts of Africa students who graduate from the Ilm school are allowed to wear a turban and are regarded as being among the 'ulama'. The title given to these people varies. The Swahili word for teacher is *mwalimu*. When the complete Ilm school some students go on to further studies in *figh* or *hadith*.

Ilm students also study *figh*, which is the theory of Islamic sacred law (*shari'a*). The Qur'an is believed to contain the whole of the *Shari'a*, and many Muslims feel all that is required from the legal experts is interpretation and advice on how to apply it. For example the Qur'an prescribes the payment of an alms-tax, but since it does not specify how much or on what possessions, legal experts are needed to provide advice. The *Shari'a* occupies a central position in Islamic society, for upon it depends not only people's status, duties and rights, but also their prospects of eternal reward or punishment. The *Shari'a*, moreover, is believed to apply not only to Muslims but to all mankind.

Ilm students also learn Arabic and about various types of literature. For example, the literature includes *madith*, which mostly consists of praises addressed to the Prophet Mohammed. There is also *sira* literature in either prose or verse, which contains stories about the life of the Prophet. *Wa'z* is another type of literature which describes the Islamic notions of paradise and hell. Not every Ilm school teaches all these subjects. Some schools specialize, and gain the reputation as the best ones for the study of particular subjects or for groups of subjects.

In some parts of Africa, students who graduate from the Ilm school are allowed to wear a turban and are henceforth regarded as being among the 'ulama', the men of learning. The title given to these people varies. Among the Malinke-speaking people of West Africa they are known as *Karamoko*, while among the Hausa they are called *malama*. The Swahili word for teacher is *Mwalimu*. It no longer necessarily implies that the teacher is a Muslim, but the word has the same origin as ulama and malam.

When they complete Ilm school, some students go on to further studies in *figh* or *hadith*. Others become assistants to an established teacher, while others establish their own schools. Some may acquire positions as *imams* (prayer leaders in the local community) or judges.
3.7.3.13 Case 5: Extract 13

**Student Text:**

Though some basic features of Islamic education have already been pointed out, it is interesting to contrast it form the Western type. Islamic education is not structured according to age; the individual Muslim has access to it at any time in his life. Once started it frequently continues throughout life. Islamic education does not depend on specific, administrative and institutional pattern for its generation. Islamic education employs the device of the jihaza a scholarly geneology which links the student with the line of scholars and teachers to whom he is indebted for his knowledge. The jihaza is a diploma given by a master to his students; it allows the student to teach with authority. Attached to it is the isnad. This is a list of names of those who have handed down a tradition or who have taught a given subject which validates the jihaza. A student can find how prestigious his teacher is by looking at the names of the scholars which appear on the teacher's isnad. The basis of Islamic education is found in the Koran and inthe hadith which makes obtain Islamic education mandatory (8). These state that both men and women should seek education and describe learning and wisdom as being equal to worship. Another characteristic of Islamic education is the status of Muslim teachers. They are essential and indispensable in Islamic societies since they transmit knowledge of the Koran.

**Source Text:**

Some distinctive features of the Islamic education system

The Islamic education system has several distinctive features which should be contrasted with those of the Western system. The Islamic system is in many respects far less dependent for its operation on specific administrative, institutional and organizational patterns. It also tends to be much more flexible and, as one scholar comments, has an 'admirable leisureliness'. 4 For example, whereas in the Western system people speak negatively about 'perpetual students', in the Islamic system education is seen as an unending process and an individual can remain a student till old age or death. Some Islamic teachers prefer older and more mature students who have already shown evidence both of piety and of responsibility. 5

The Islamic education system also puts less emphasis on certificates or diplomas that does the Western one. However, paper qualifications do exist in the Islamic system. The ijaza, for example, is a diploma given by a master to his students, and allows a student to teach with authority. Linked to it is the isnad. This is a list of names of those who have handed down a tradition or who have taught a given work, which validates the ijaza. A student can find out how prestigious his teacher is by looking at the names of the scholars who appear onthe teacher's isnad. If these scholars have a high reputation, then the teacher will also be highly respected.

The theory of Islamic education is found in the Qur'an and in the hadith or traditions of the Prophet Mohammed. One hadith states that 'the quest for learning is a duty incumbent on every Muslim male and female', and another that 'wisdom is the goal of the believer and he must seek it irrespective of its source'. 6 Other hadiths describe learning and wisdom as equal to worship, and of men of learning as successors to the prophets. For example, one hadith states that 'God eases the way to paradise for him who seeks learning'; and another states that 'angels spread their wings for the seeker of learning as a mark of God's approval or his purpose'.7
Chapter 3: Education in the Muslim world.

I will cover in this section three main aspects regarding Muslim education, namely: Islam and social life; content and aim of Muslim education in Africa and in general the Muslim world so that a clearer picture of their reciprocal influences will be gained; finally the role played by the new Muslim intellectuals of Black Africa with regard to the Islamic institutions of learning will be looked at.

Islam and social life.

Before analyzing the role of Muslim education in general, it seems important to sketch some features of what Trimmingham calls influence of Islam on social life. Islam as a socio-religious phenomenon does affect all aspects of social life. Family, religious rituals, economic relationships have, in one way or another, to take into account Islam since the latter has deeply affected them and it finds its expression in a rich variety of social relationships. Islam stresses quite strongly the concept of community of believers—the Umma—and the believers do feel important to express their belonging to the Umma through participation in socio-religious rituals. An interesting aspect is that if Islam is adopted the concept of community is extended to include all who observe Islamic rituals and customs. Moreover, the life of integrated Islamic communities is a mosaic of Islamic and indigenous elements in complex combinations, but always underlying the Islamic elements. In traditional African societies the social basis of the community remain paramount and the ideal of unity of believers is a superimposed linkage. In other words: the first allegiance is to the tribe, the clan: the Islamic community is important but comes second. Although Islam changes the religious basis upon which the social structure depended it does not bring about social disintegration or radical change. In long Islamized societies traditional customs are the integrated result of a process of change before pressures from the Islamic law. In societies more recently exposed to Islamization the process is under way. Consequently we are presented with extreme variations in the customs of different societies and generalization becomes impossible. A case at point is the process of Islamization of Southern Sudanese ethnic groups, particularly the Dinka.

But one may ask: who are the agents and channels through which Islam has spread through Africa? In this regard two topics-related to each other-are of interest: namely what Coulon defines as the role of the sheiks; the learned in Muslim society; secondly the role played by the Arabs and Arabic language in Africa and the emergence of Islamic literature in African languages.

The learned, the sheiks are of central importance in Muslim societies. They may be compared to the Christian notion of clergy though they are not the intermediary between the believer and God. They are first of all the guardians of the Text and of the Law. Their authority is based on their knowledge of the traditions and their function is to interpret them. If it is possible to talk of official Islam, the sheiks are the ones who determine Islamic behavior. The ulama—the sheiks are the backbone of the Islamic government. The school, from this point of view, is a crucial institution: knowledge is the only possible, official channel to become ‘ulama’. There is a kind of dialectical tension between: on the one hand, saints and holy-men who are instrumental for a religious experience and, on the other: the ‘ulama’ who own their authority to their knowledge and their insertion in the Islamic social apparatus. It is clear that it is through the school—either that of the formal educational state system or that of the mosque network—that the believer is formed to Islam. He/she receives Islamic teaching, religious and social in order to know Islam’s practices. It is important to grasp the role played by the muallim, the Koranic teacher of the village. His is a larger role than that of the ‘ulama’, usually living in a urban environment. It is through the muallim that Muslim education and formation have perpetuated themselves; it is through him that the child, the young person learns how to live and behave as a Muslim in a Muslim society. This is the ideal picture, though current experience in Islamic countries where Islamic education is emphasized, does suggest that the relationship between muallim wa tilmidh—teacher/students still strong and according to tradition; namely it is a relationship of respect and understanding. In face of the challenges posed by modern society what is the role of a Muslim school and by extension of both the muallim and ‘ulama’? Does the former become a school of catechism and the latter just
with the persistence of an educational tradition-Islamic traditional teaching-that still has a strong influence on some sectors of society? Suffice to mention that Muslim schools, from some extent, were a stronghold against Western schools imposed by the colonialists. As it was pointed out in the previous chapter Islam lost during colonialism its influence on society; this was largely due to the impact that colonialism had on traditional sectors of society. Through education-Western education, often with the further specification of being religiously biased-the role played by the sheiks-‘ulama’ came to be questioned. The development of a Western education system in colonial times, the rejection of Islam at independence by the African elites and the building up of the nation-state: these phenomena have been crucial in posing a threat to African Islam. Nevertheless Islam in Africa is not at loss with the challenges of the modern nation-state. A re-discovery, it may be argued, of Islamic images of Africa has helped the process of revitalization, of putting at the heart of the Islamic discourse on Africa its culture, its values, its religious practices. Of crucial significance here is the role played by the sheiks-‘ulama’. In order to appreciate the above-mentioned points it is vital to look at two related topics, namely the role of Arabs and Arabic in Africa: the emergence of Islamic literature in African languages.

The role of Arabs and Arabic in Africa

As Tintinghams points out Arabs have manifested unique characteristics of assimilation and assimilability. They are easily assimilable into another environment and mix with the indigenous people, and, at the same time, they develop their linguistic, religious and social characteristics. Arabization is especially associated with the spread of nomads, as in the Maghrib and with Arab political domination, as in Egypt. During the primary dispersion of Muslim Arabs, Arabic substituted itself easily for the language of those with a Syrac-Aramaic or Coptic background. But the immigration and settlement of individual traders does not lead to Arabization. Arabic did not become the lingua franca of the East African coastal region though Arab influence was strong on many aspects of life; instead the immigrants were using a Bantu language. Where Islam’s diffusion was accompanied by Arabization there was generally greater social change than among nomads who retained their languages. This is especially the case with Arabic. In Hamitic-speaking Africa Islamization was accompanied by Arabization but in Black Africa Islam was spread almost entirely by Africans and Arabic was not envisaged as a living language. Thus the great divide between these two African regions has been perpetuated by language, for while the spread of Islam has been accompanied by the absorption of words and expressions into African languages, in Black Africa the mediating factor were the law books of the Muslim clergy. Arabic in Black Africa was wholly a sacred language with little or no secular usage. Few colloquial or daily-life words penetrated but the language of the law books has evoked the languages of Muslims with religious, political, commercial and abstract characters. Another effect was to stimulate Africans to write their own languages in Arabic characters, sometimes with the use of additional signs. Harari, a Semitic language is unique, but Tokolar Fulbe, Jalon Hausa, Songay and Swahili corresponded through the medium of their own languages even transcribed poems and other compositions. The impact of secular culture has not missed even this sphere. Arabic has stimulated Africans to write their own languages but the effect of the West has been to spread the usage of Latin script and it has all but substituted itself in the writing of Hausa and Swahili both languages where the usage was greater then elsewhere. One reason for this easy conquest is that Latin is more suitable than the vowelless Arabic script for expressing African languages. Another cause derives from the ambivalent attitude of African Muslims towards Arabic as a sacred script. The ‘ulama’ did not encourage its secular use. They wrote their compositions in stilted Arabic and vernacular writing in Arabic script tended to be mainly for secular usage such as commercial correspondence.

African Islamic literatures

There are two levels of Islamic literatures in African Islam. First, there is the scholarly level of the learned African ‘ulama’ who write in classic Arabic. This literature is not essentially different from its
learned African 'ulama' who write in classic Arabic. This literature is not essentially different from its counterpart anywhere in Islam. At first much of it was copied directly from existing sources. Later the African 'ulama' began to compose original works in classic Arabic in which they attempted to interpret the shari'a in the light of African conditions and to explain Islamic theology against the background of prevailing African animism. Typical of such endeavors are the works of the Fulani scholars of Hausaland. Local historical chronicking was another literary activity undertaken in classic Arabic that was widely practiced in both West and East Africa in the Middle Ages. Arising from this indigenous classical Arabic tradition there developed vernacular languages: Swahili, Fulfude, Hausa. This literature is of two kinds: literature that was written down and literature that remained oral. The main written vernacular literatures are those in Swahili, Fulfude, Hausa, Harani—a language of the Ethiopian Muslims- and the Berber dialect of Zenaga. In each of these cases the literatures required the development of forms of the Arabic script modified to a greater or lesser extent according to the phonetic requirements of the language. Various diacritical marks were invented. In addition to those already existing in classical Arabic to serve the phonetic needs of particular African tongues. Swahili, Zenaga, Fulfude and Hausa share certain characteristics of content and format. They are mainly in verse; Fulfude and Hausa entirely so. Their content is drawn in the first instance from the Koran and tafsir; that is classical Arabic commentary upon that scripture. They consist typically of descriptions of divine punishment and reward (Hausa wa'az; Swahili waadhi; both from Arabic wa'az warning, admonition). Frequent in this category are poems about dunya (world). Equally popular in all these vernacular written Islamic literatures is the category known in Hausa as madah (Arabic maddh-maddh-- panegyric). In Swahili it is usually described as kasiida (Arabic gasida—ode). This comprise praise to the prophet that closely follows the imagery and content of such classical Arabic verse composition as the Burda, the Ishriyya and other classical Arabic panegyrics to the Prophet. Such vernacular panegyric is associated with the spread of popular Sufism in African Islam both in the west and east. Equally popular in both traditions are poems written to celebrate the Prophet's birthday mawlid al-nabi. Instructional poems, to teach the people the elements of Islamic theology are also frequent as too are works on Islamic astrology. But perhaps the most popular category of all, at any rate in Swahili and Hausa are poems celebrating the Prophet's isra his miraculous journey from Mecca to Jerusalem upon the mythical riding beast al-Buraqa and his subsequent "ascension", through the seven heavens to the throne of Allah. Such poems abound in both Swahili and Hausa. They are often remarkably close to one another in sequence and imagery which suggest that both arise from a common classical Arabic prototype. Other favorite themes of Swahili and Zenaga written literature are the popular classical romance and folkloric cycles such as the romance Al Banu Hilal, the saga of Sayf b Dhi Yazan and the Islamic version of the Alexander cycle. The strong similarities in content and format that exist across the written vernacular Islamic literatures testifies the depth to which Islam has penetrated into the life-style of the people who still cherish literatures to the present-day and to the remarkable evenness to which Islamic mainstream culture has imposed itself upon what were originally diverse indigenous African societies, ranging from cattle nomads to agriculturists and hunter-gatherers. It is possible to draw some conclusion from the above-mentioned discussion on the role of Islam in social life, its actors, its expressions. Islam has a quite strong social impact both in terms of conversion and deeply involving its followers in religious practices. Learned people—sheiks, 'ulama', muallim—do play a significant role still nowadays. I would say particularly nowadays that Muslim societies are facing the challenges of the current resurgence of Islamic fundamentalist groups. As Hiskett points out: 

In Algeria Islamic theocracy has risen again, after a mere thirty years. in Nigeria the thrust for a full Islamic theocracy has been such that the Federal government has been increasingly faced to break up the country into an increasing number of largely autonomous states. In attempts to forestall this. In East Africa the thrust towards Islamic theocracy is muted owing to the fragmented nature of Islam in that area; nonetheless it gathers pace, fueled by funds and propaganda from the world-wide Islamic Umma.
do support an ideology of renewal - re-affirmation of Islamic values often at odds with the official ideology of the modern African nation-state. It becomes, then, crucial to turn our attention to the content and aims of Islamic education since understanding them will enable us to grasp how the learned Muslims have received their knowledge and if Islamic education, from a world-wide perspective, does or not meet the needs of modern education.

Content and aims of Islamic education.

Islamic education in Africa: In previous chapters it has already been pointed out the role of education in so far as Islam's diffusion in Africa is concerned. What is then its importance? The way in which Islam took roots in Africa was conducive to the establishment of Islamic communities in different areas of the continent. By the tenth and eleventh centuries A.D., Islamic communities had been established in several commercial centers in the Western Sahara and Sale. By the end of the eleventh century A.D. the rulers of kingdoms such as Takrur, Kanem-Born and Gao had converted to Islam and appointed Muslims who were literate in Arabic as advisers. From the fourteenth century A.D. the Timbuktu region was also a region of Islamic learning, exerting an influence far into modern-day Mali and Mauritania. Centers of higher Islamic education have also existed for many centuries. Even before the world-famous Al-Azhar University was founded in Cairo in A.D. 996, the Qarawiyya school was established in Morocco. In brief, a network of Islamic centers of learning were established during the present century. The Islamic education system had to compete with the Western one. Key institutions have played a leading role in modernizing the education system. Among them, the Islamic University in Khartoum (Sudan), the Islamic Institute in Dakar (Senegal), the Islamic Institute of Higher Learning in Mauritania, the Islamic Education Centre in Kano (Nigeria).

A fuller account on more recent developments with regards to contemporary Islamic centers of higher learning will be given in the following pages.

From the given brief account of African Islam early days it clearly emerges the central place of education. Although aspects of the education system have been criticized both by Muslims and non-Muslims it is hard to affirm that it offers a unique approach to learning and life. The Islamic education system has several characteristics and distinctive features which should be contrasted with the Western system. In general, it places less emphasis on instrumental goals and more on expressive and normative objectives. Muslim philosophers agree that the essence of Islamic education is moral and character training. According to Muslim educators, the purpose of education is not to stuff the minds of students with facts but to refine morals, educate spirits, propagate virtue, teach and prepare for a life full of purity and sincerity. The first and highest goal of Islamic education is then the moral refinement and spiritual training. Apart from the cordial objective of moral training, Islamic education also focuses on secular issues of life. It is therefore concerned with the material aspects of life. Although the objectives of Islamic education aim at embracing spiritual and material learning, the Koranic school curriculum in Africa has tended to be uniform with a strong religious bias. This curriculum focuses mainly on memorizing the 60 parts of the Koran. The teacher usually starts with Arabic alphabet, the four sounds and writing. He then moves into the chapters of the Koran until the pupils have learnt the Koran by heart. The process of memorizing the Koran is guided into five stages and completion of each stage is marked by a ceremony. The curriculum of the Koranic schools has been widely criticized for ignoring such important aspects as Arabic grammar, poetry, and composition. In many communities which do not use Arabic in everyday life, students are said to understand the meaning of the words they chant. Another aspect of Koranic education which has attracted criticism is that of discipline. Care is supposed to be administered with fatherly levity and caution. Harsh discipline has not been approved by Islamic educational theorists. Koranic schools have been called upon to create a happy learning atmosphere. Islamic education has tended to be a man's domain. In theory, Islam prescribes the pursuit of learning by both men and women. In spiritual, educational, and religious matters, Islam treats men and women as equal. No distinction between them. On the right of Muslim women to receive education, Muslim scholars cite verses of the Koran such as Koran chapter 9 verse 9 and refer to several hadiths. They give many names of educated Muslim women in the early Islamic era who could read and write, including the Prophet's wife Aisha who was a leading Islamic scholar. Usman dan Fodio, the Muslim reformer from Hausaland spoke out against the neglect of women's education and in
the Muslim reformer from Hausaland spoke out against the neglect of women’s education and in Egypt in the nineteenth century Rifa‘ah Al Tantawi and Quasim Amin called for the provision of the same educational facilities for women as for men. In more recent times, a Women’s Arabic Teachers’ College was opened in Kano-Nigeria—specifically to train teachers of Islamic religious knowledge.

There are basically two types of Islamic schools: the Koranic and the Ilm. In many parts of Africa these schools are in mosques, private houses or premises set aside for the purpose. The age at which the children begin Koranic school varies. In some cases a formal ceremony takes place on the day a pupil is first admitted to the school. There is some variation in the curriculum of the Koranic schools but in most of Islamic Africa it is strikingly uniform. Children between the ages of three and fifteen are admitted to the schools. At this stage the pupils learn the shorter chapters of the Koran through repetition and rote. The curriculum of the Koranic school has often been strongly criticized. Some observers suggest that the instruction of Koranic schools has little pedagogical value and point out that in many communities which do not use Arabic in everyday life the students are not able to understand what they learn. On the other hand research by Wilks on Islamic learning in Mali, Guinea, Burkina Faso, Ivory Coast points out that the Koranic schools provide at least a basic understanding in Arabic, which can be built on by those who are able. On completion of studies in the Koranic schools some students go on to an Ilm school of higher learning. The Ilm school has a much broader curriculum embracing a wide range of Islamic literacy, theological and legal subjects. The curriculum consists of tafsir—the interpretation of the Koran and the study of literature. The study of hadith is also of central importance; these traditions cover such subjects as marriage, divorce, inheritance and personal conduct. They are supposed to give the students a clear idea of the behavior from an orthodox Muslim point of view and an insight into how an Islamic society should be organized. Ilm students are also expected to study the fiqh which is the theory of sharia. Ilm students learn Arabic and literature, which includes madhhab discussions addressed to the Prophet. There is also siyar literature in prose and verse which contains stories about the life of the prophet and waiz which is Islamic literature describing notions of paradise and hell. Not every Ilm school teaches all these subjects. Some schools specialize and gain reputation as the best ones for the study of particular subject or group of subjects. In some parts of Africa students who graduate from the Ilm school are allowed to wear a turban and are regarded as being among the ‘ulama’. The title given to these people varies. The Swahili word for teacher is mwaliimu. When they complete Ilm school some students go on to further studies in fiqh or hadith.

Though some basic features of Islamic education have already been pointed out, it is interesting to contrast it form the Western type. Islamic education is not structured according to age; the individual Muslim has access to it at any time in his life. Once started it frequently continues throughout life. Islamic education does not depend on specific, administrative and institutional pattern for its generation. Islamic education employs the device of the jihaz a scholarly genealogy which links the student with the line of scholars and teachers to whom he is indebted for his knowledge. The jihaza is a diploma given by a master to his students; it allows the student to teach with authority. Attached to it is the isnad. This is a list of names of those who have handed down a tradition or who have taught a given subject which validates the jihaza. A student can find how prestigious his teacher is by looking at the names of the scholars which appear on the teacher’s isnad. The basis of Islamic education is found in the Koran and in the hadith which makes obtain Islamic education mandatory. These state that both men and women should seek education and describe learning and wisdom as being equal to worship. Another characteristic of Islamic education is the status of Muslim teachers. They are essential and indispensable in Islamic societies since they transmit knowledge of the Koran. They are held in high esteem because of their learning. Islamic education is homogeneous, widespread and characterized by vigor. Islamic education continues to flourish in areas such as Francophone West Africa, where it suffered official hostility during the colonial period and in some East Africa countries where it is neglected by the African governments. In peripheral areas such as the West African coast Muslim groups struggle to maintain their schools despite lack of funds and material. There are some reasons which help to explain the vigorous nature of Islamic education. One important reason is the sacramental and charismatic nature of Arabic language. In Muslim eyes Arabic is the language of God in a way that has little parallel in the Christian tradition not even when Latin was widely used as a Christian liturgical language (at least in so far as Roman
expect the Islamic education system to encourage community and national development in Africa. They suggest that the real problems of nation-building and underdevelopment have an important moral dimension. Many Muslims argue that Islam can provide community, society dignity and personal identity in the chaos created by industrialization. The education system is an essential element in achieving this. In this regard a very interesting article by Sabiq Ghilam Nabi, "Modernization of Muslim society and education: need for a practical approach" (3) helps us to grasp Muslim's understanding about the relationship between modernization and education. The author points out how by the latter half of the nineteenth century when colonial rule had been firmly established over the larger part of the Muslim world (Dar Al-Islami) Muslims found themselves faced with alternatives. They were either to remain tradition-bound, steeped in their past historic glory and to retreat more and more into ignorance and backwardness by holding themselves back from modern institutions or to participate and regain their lost prestige and position. Some Muslim leaders such as Sayyid Jamal al Din Alghani, Shaikh Muhammad Abduh, Muhammad Rashid Rida, Sayyid Ahmad Khan Namil Kamal, took upon themselves the task of legitimising before their co-religionists the urgency of participation, which they argued, would enable them to defend Islam and eventually to regenerate it. The theme of modernization of the education system is crucial taking into account that Islamic revival of the nineteenth century has been of paramount importance in so far as a comprehensive re-thinking of Islamic philosophy affecting creatively and critically the education system (10). On the eve of the introduction of European methods the educational institutions in the Arab world were still enjoying a considerable degree of acceptance and proficiency. For centuries they enjoyed the protection of a single political power of successive Mamluk and Ottoman sultans. The Islamic institutions of higher learning were so successful that they served not only indigenous students but also those from other Arab and Muslim countries. The mosques in the holy cities of Mecca and Medina, which had been since the early days of Islam seats of learning, remained the goal of pious and aspiring students. Throughout the ages they attracted scholars from all parts of the Muslim world who after performing the pilgrimage, took residence in the precincts and for a longer or shorter periods engaged in learning, teaching and writing. While the term madrasas was not applied to the mosque circles in the holy cities, their range of studies and methods were not widely different from those of such institutions elsewhere. In Egypt the kuttabwas maintained in towns and villages but the madrasases existed only in cities. The largest of this type of institutions was Al-Azhar in Cairo. There is contemporary and reliable evidence that apart from a formal religious and linguistic curriculum, Azhar sheikhs and others cultivated the study of different subjects. By the beginning of the second half of the nineteenth century European interests in Egypt grew more and more. The foreigners enjoyed extra-territorial rights in the Ottoman Empire of which Egypt a part and took advantage of these rights in commerce, industry and education. It is true that such schools established by foreign agencies attracted mainly Christian minorities dissatisfied with their native parish school but the number of Muslims who for various reasons patronized foreign schools was increasing. Successive waves of foreign invasions created in the long run an attitude of rejection or at least of suspicious of external cultural influences. We may add that it also contributed to the development among religious leaders of a reaction against internal innovations. The Arab world in the second half of last century had been exposed for longer or shorter periods to various forms of European influence, whether introduced deliberately by the local authorities or imposed by European powers or insinuated gradually through educational missionary work. In 1882 with the British occupation of Egypt a new situation with far reaching consequences came about. Particularly education was affected with a duality in the school systems that created cleavage in society by the institution of two types of education and two ways of thought: Modern Islamic education system is a mere shadow of its past. Its modernization has in the end led to its complete transformation. The modern national education systems have not simply supplemented it as was intended by the early modernists. Is it possible in the light of the previous analysis, to affirm that there exists a degree of interaction and/or integration between Islamic and Western education? From some extent it is possible to answer affirmatively. In fact since the colonial period attempts have been made to accommodate Islamic and Western traditions of education. Integration has involved two distinct aims. One has been to incorporate certain secular subjects within the framework of Islamic education or alternatively to add an Islamic framework to a full secular curriculum. The second has been to teach traditional Islamic subjects. And particularly Arabic, in a
curriculum. The second has been to teach traditional Islamic subjects, and particularly Arabic, in a more modern way. In the first approach, the principal idea was to introduce a limited number of new subjects particularly arithmetic and literacy, in Roman script. This approach was considered to have two main advantages. First it avoided the expense of operating Islamic and Western educational systems separately; secondly, the system remained distinctly Islamic and therefore easier for at least some Muslims to adapt to Western education. The most effective approach would be a two-ways adaptation, preferably keeping in mind the differences between the two systems. In contrast with this positive vision, which is the official position of the majority of Arab states nowadays, the already quoted article by Saqib(11) provides further points of reflections about the relationship between modernization and education in the Arab world. Saqib is very critical on the notion of modernization as it has been elaborated in the West and assumed un-critically by Muslim intellectuals. The question is: what is the role of education in a modern Muslim society? The author seems to ignore that the reciprocal influences of Islam and Western culture have provided the two worlds invaluable benefits. I am not so naive in claiming for the West a unique, un-challengeble cultural superiority: colonialism and post-Independence Africa witness to the opposite. At the same time claiming as Saqib does a unique role for education ("education meant the socialization of young Muslims in Islam") it seems to me limiting the notion of education only to its social aspects, forgetting perhaps that Muslim education has come to term with the Western imposed model: how successfully it is debatable. Then, in my opinion, education becomes relevant for a discourse on nation-building and even from a moral point of view it acquires relevance. As Tibawi points out (12):

"There is a prevalent and very strong assumption...that through education the Arab Umma can achieve the miracle of regaining its glorious past".

Saqib's claims about a revitalization of Muslim education have to be properly addressed since they are put, nowadays, into practice by those states, such as Sudan, where the process of Islamization, revitalization of Islamic culture and expressions, particularly in education, are taking place (see appendix n°8).

Islamic institutions of learning.

In the following section I will try to show how Islamic institutions of learning have been developing; their role in spreading Islamic culture: how these institutions, being peculiarly Islamic, have been established in Africa: apart from the traditional institutions, are modern ones similar and/or different from the latter? who does finance, support, staff them? I will firstly focus on how historically Islamic institutions have been established and their role in the Muslim world; secondly, I will pay attention to the "way of the da\w\a\d as Otayek defines the modern Islamic institutions of learning (13). Classic Islamic institutions of learning. In various areas of the Muslim world were established, through the centuries, different kind of institutions catering for the transmission and elaboration of Islamic thought. What are their basic features? How are they related to Islamic philosophy of education? As we have seen a characteristic feature of Islamic institutionalized education was its religious character that was rivately organized and opened to all Muslims who sought it. Education was directed toward religious ends: the salvation and eternal happiness of men and the glory of God. It was directed toward the establishment of God's government on earth. The society at which it aimed was one with God as its leader; the culture it aimed at developing was one inspired by sacred scriptures. The state, the governing power had no control over the curriculum or the methods of instruction. anymore than it did over the foundation of the institution: the content of education and its methods were left to the teaching profession itself. Institutionalized learning was not all the learning available. Theology, philosophical or rationalist kalam-theology, mathematics, natural sciences, that is those sciences referred to as the ancient sciences, as well as all fields not falling under the category of the Islamic sciences were sought outside of these institutions. A lay nomocratic theocracy-Islam is a religion based on a system of law whose legislator is God alone. It has no ecclesial hierarchy. The doctors of the law are its sole interpreters. The ultimate goal of Islamic
supported by founders as a meritorious act of charity bringing the founder closer to God. It maintained its private financial base throughout the Middle Ages. The madrasas, which served as personal schools of law, and the madhabas which were dedicated to the study of law in the A.D. ninth and tenth centuries, were significant developments in the legal tradition of Islam. The madhabas maintained their private financial base throughout the Middle Ages.

The madrasas and personal schools of law were the result of the tension between the basic traditionalism of Islam and the nascent rationalism that developed following the impact of Greek works of philosophy and science and made available in translation into Arabic. The structure of the collegial system was based on a legal basis defined, interpreted, and maintained by the lawyers throughout the centuries. Different institutions of learning were established:

(i) The formation of the personal schools of law during the A.D. eighth century;
(ii) Proliferation of madrasas during the A.D. ninth and tenth centuries;
(iii) The subsequent development and proliferation of madrasas, combining the functions of the masjid and its nearby inn in the A.D. tenth and eleventh centuries;
(iv) The significant development of other conservative institutions such as dar al-hadith in the A.D. twelfth century.

The philosophers, the kalam-theologian, the scientist who were not part of institutionalized learning, received their formation through the subhateh master-disciple relationship. They were products of a parallel, informal movement. There were no official posts for them. Those desiring posts in institutions of learning had to specialize in an acceptable field. It would be fascinating to address the question of whether Islamic civilization has influenced the structure of the Christian West civilization without going into details it is interesting to point out what is common between Islamic and Western civilizations in so far as the development of institutions of learning is concerned.

**Classic Islamic and Western Medieval Institutions of Learning**

the madrasa and the charitable trust with their many corresponding fundamental elements, especially the founder establishing his charitable institution by an act of his own will without the mediation of either the central government or the church;

the madrasa and the college based on the law of waqf or charitable trust with their foundations of graduates and undergraduates, the faqih-sahib and muta'lligibhim the one hand and the fellow and scholar on the other;

the will of the sovereign in creating universities in Western Islam Spain and Southern Italy;

the development of two dialects, one legal and the other speculative;

disputation at the core of legal and theological studies;

the unique status of the mu'tasim professor of law in the madrasa and the professor of law in the universities of Southern Europe beginning with Bologna;

the amr ibn tariq and the institutio

the amir and the rector;

the sharif and the notaries of ilm as-suru and the ars dictaminis;

the muhaddith and the student-servitor;

the lector and the two sects of the three identical meanings of qudra and legere;

the tika and the reportatio;

the summae such as those of Aqil and St Thomas Aquinas;

the strong desire for versification, as in the grammars verse by Al-Harari and Peter Heras, government in grammar with the Arabic 'amr and the medieval Latin regains;

the ijaza khatnisand the licentia docendi;

the subordination of the literary arts to the three superior faculties, awl law theology and medicine brought on by the single-minded concentration on dialectic and disputation.

It has been pointed out that university is a form of social organization that developed in the West in the Middle Ages. It was here that the university flourished emerging as a corporation in the thirteenth century. In other societies higher learning took different forms of organization. In Islam that form was the charitable trust. Islam never developed the university it borrowed it from Europe in the nineteenth century. On the other hand, the West did not at first have the charitable trust; it appears to have borrowed it from Islam towards the end of the eleventh century. The webs and flows of history point first to Islamic-cultural superiority to that of the West which was reversed last century when Western culture happened to become for economic, social, and historical superior to other cultures. It would be tempting to pay attention to the question of Western cultural superiority with reference to what
Edward Said calls the relationships between the metropolitan West and its overseas territories. However it is clear, from an historical viewpoint not culturally based, that both Islam and the West gave their own specific and characteristic contributions to world's cultures. The great contribution of Islam is to be found in the college system it organized, in the level of higher learning it developed and transmitted to the west, in the fact that the West borrowed from Islam basic elements that went into its own system of education. The great contribution of the Latin West comes from its organization of knowledge and its further development-knowledge in which the Islamic/Arabic component is undeniably considerable-as well as the further developments of the college system itself into a corporate system. From "borrower" in the Middle Ages, the West became "lender" in modern times, lending to Islam what the latter had long forgotten as its own product when it borrowed the university system replete with Islamic elements. With regard to the emergence of Arab nationalism and Islamic re-vitalization we see a re-affirmation of cultural, social, religious values felt by Muslim intellectuals as fundamental in so far as a discourse on Islam, the West and their relationships is concerned taking into account the reciprocal-conflictual-negative images that the Muslim world-in general-and the West have of each other. Suffice to mention the Gulf war, the treat of Islamic fundamentalist terrorism both within the Arab world-Algeria, Egypt, Sudan, Libya, Palestine-as well as outside it-Bosnia. Apart from these conflictual images of Muslim vs. Western worlds there exist examples in which Islam-by extension its socio-cultural-religious values- has positively contributed to the formation of intellectuals-Muslim intellectuals-involved into developing strategies and actions for fostering ecumonic, cultural, political and religious growth. Interestingly enough Muslim and Western European and Arab institutions of learning, philosophy of education, social forms of education have been taking roots and developing in Africa. Therefore it is extremely important to turn our attention to the ways in which Islamic learning institutions have been developing in contemporary Africa. In fact I will try to show how Islamic appeal has been instrumental in the intellectual and social formation of the new African Muslim intellectuals. Contemporary Islamic institutions of learning. In the already quoted book edited by Olayek four contributors focus on Islamic learning institutions in some African countries. namely, West Africa, Tunisia, Sudan. I will draw attention to the latter as case study of Islamic propagation in Black Africa.
governments. Sudan of the sixties was dominated by an anti-Western and nationalist thought in the wake of independence granted by the British in 1956 to the politically Muslim inspired parties. Arabization and Islamization seemed to be an alternative to Westernization and a needed tool for a "cultural de-colonization". Taking this into account it is clear that Sudan played a very significant role in attracting young African Muslims able to challenge the intellectuals formed by the colonialists and Christian missionaries who held the power of the newly independent African states. Moreover it was recognized that in post-colonial Africa, the "social passport" had changed: to be member of the elite religious knowledge was not enough, Muslim missionaries had to compete at the same time with the different branches of modern knowledge and take the responsibility for socio-economic development of their countries. This kind of endeavor required the formation of an institutional framework and a permanent flow of finances. Sudanese ulama quickly realized the need of such an institution with particular reference to the conditions of African Muslim communities. However, before taking the decision about the nature of the institution to be built the Sudanese Mufti Awad Allah Salih and the committee of religious leaders took the initiative of analyzing the best possible way about fostering in Black Africa a model of Islamic research and teaching according to modern times. It needed to respond to a strict religious orthodoxy and completely from traditional ways of thought in order to face the negative effects of European colonization. Two challenging situations were looked at by the committee presided over by Mufti Awad Allah Salih, on the one hand the low intellectual standard of the young Muslims from Uganda and Southern Sudan, no matter the efforts in helping them. The diffusion of Islam and Arab culture in those areas failed. The failure was recognized by the Multi as being due to a deep rejection ethnically and religiously motivated. On the other hand, and strictly linked with the previous ones, different factors did not help the growth of a local African Muslim society. Therefore it was suggested that the new Islamic institution should emphasize community life according to modern teaching techniques bringing together within the same Muslim society the different branches of modern knowledge and Francophone Africans in order to foster the growth of a Muslim homogeneous elite. The Islamic African Center was established by government decree in 1966; the following year the first batch of students attended classes at Omdurman in a building let by the Sudanese Wahhabite movement. Different problems arose. Firstly the low standard of Arabic shown by those African students who had received education in their countries. Secondly a change in the aims of the Center. According to its founders, the Center was supposed to foster Islam and Arab culture. But it clashed with the political climate of the time in Northern Sudan where a re-vitalization of Islam in the name of nationalism against the south did not take into account the non-Muslim section of the Sudanese population. Therefore the initial cultural vocation of the Centre was replaced by a militant Islam for the spread of the latter. This change took place between 1971-1983. External factors such as the growth of Islamic fundamentalism within the Muslim world as well as internal ones linked to the Sudanese socio-political situation were the historical framework within which the Center started operating. The objectives of the Center are quite different from those Islamic institutions that are present in Sudan and are attended by African students. Pedagogy and teaching content have a very precise role to re-Islamise African youth and not convert the non-Muslims and at the same time to exercise an influence on society. This was because it was felt important to form an alternative Muslim elite able to project a dynamic image of Islam. The men of religion, sheik, 'ulama, have to contribute to national development. This condition was met by not only the quality of religious teaching but also by forming a body of lecturers of Islamic sciences of high moral standard and strict orthodoxy. In order to meet these requirements it was important to set high standard in selecting the candidates as well as granting scholarships and free lodging. About students' recruitment, it was set up a commission in order to screen the applicants. The applicant had to be a Muslim, originally from a non-Arab country, having attended secondary school. According to an expert from the Center, the students were recruited among influential Muslim African families in order to help in the diffusion of the Center's ideas within their milieu. The Center has diversified its recruitment methods since the former has not given good results. On the level of abilities and attitudes the student is supposed to have completed secondary school and according to his results and abilities may be oriented toward a profession or pursuing further studies. Teaching and living conditions on the Center's campus are far better than any other Sudanese school. Students and lecturers live on the campus: high teaching
standard and a strong orthodox Islamic atmosphere are characteristics of the Center. The Center is exclusively male. But according to Dr. Al Tayyib Zayn Al Abidin in 1987 was supposed to open a female section. According to Muslim Brothers' ideology women play an important role in children education therefore it is imperative to teach them Islamic values and Arab culture if a true Islamic society has to come about. Teaching is the basic activity of the Center. The Education Department offers secondary school diplomas diversified in "general studies" according to the programs of Sudanese secondary schools and "Islamic studies" an option opened to young Africans already having a formation in religious sciences and Arabic language. The diploma gives to the graduates the opportunity to join Islamic universities, especially Omdurman or teach at the Centre. Regarding higher studies the student may choose between a diploma in pedagogy or, within the Da'wa Department, a diploma of da'wa and Islamic sciences. This specialization forms in two years the African Muslim missionaries for propagating qualitatively and quantitatively Islam in different countries of black Africa. The concept of da'wa corresponds nowadays to a militant, multi-functional activity within modern society emphasizing Islamic teaching-secular subjects have to be together with the religious ones in order to build "Homus Islamicus". The different initiatives of the Center (see appendix n° 6) are aimed at the diffusion of Islam particularly the deepening of Islamic culture and the re-vitalization of Muslim faith in all walks of life. At the same time it is opposed to the aggression of Western modernization brought about by the activities of the Christian churches. Therefore it is imperative to form African Muslims and cooperate with other Islamic organizations. What is the future of the Center? On the level of religious ideology it is clearly stated that the Center focuses on the idea of a qualitative growth of religious agents, in the sense of an approach to the world deeply conform to Islam so that they may be able to face those social dynamics that allow the development of modern Muslim society. Moreover this growth has to compete nowadays with the materialistic Western values. therefore it is not possible adapt Islam to this kind of modernization nor to fight it back with its own weapons; the only solution is to win it over with an Islamic discourse. The stress on the international vocation of the Center puts forward its international character; Islam taught and practiced rigorously has a humanitarian role and a supra-national appeal for Africans transcending regional and cultural particularism and placing itself beyond nationalism. Therefore the suggestion from some quarters to set up an African Islamic University with the aim to build up a kind of "African Islamic International University" according to government decree the Center became the International University of Africa. This change is according to a general reform of the Sudanese education system brought by the present government since its coming to power in 1989. The dramatic shift in education policy's pursued by the government has meant the establishment of "universities" previously being only secondary schools. The change affecting the Islamic University of Omdurman that became the Koran University: the nationalization of the Khartoum branch of the Cairo University which became the University of the two Niles. The change in the leadership of the Center. What is the future of the Center? The sudden transformation in university poses different problems from finding lecturers up to the standard to financial ones. Moreover the changed image of the Center from being Sudanese to African has affected its students' population. Finally the Gulf War has had implications for the two most important financing countries- Saudi Arabia and Kuwait- withdrew their support. According to the actual director of the Center Pakistan and Senegal would be ready to replace Saudi Arabia and Kuwait. From the above-mentioned analysis it clearly emerges the importance of looking at Islamization of the Sudanese education system for ironically enough, the former is having very serious consequences on the latter. In fact, I will argue in the following chapter, that some basic features of Sudanese Islam previously pointed out are of paramount importance in order to understand how the Islamicist discourse has a quite strong appeal on the young modernized, urbanized, scholarized Sudanese. Moreover some of the most dramatic challenges between Muslim vs Western discourses in so far education is concerned have been taking place in recent years in the country deeply affecting the reciprocal relationships between Muslims-I would say fundamentalist Muslim- and the non-Muslim sector of the Sudanese population. Therefore it is crucial to understand the social dynamics affecting the education system within the Sudanese Islamic framework. Firstly looking at its basic features, then at the different social actors who within a definite span of time have been able to set up, develop and influence the Sudanese education system. This will enable us to grasp how the Islamization process of the Sudanese education system in recent years has taken place.
CHAPTER 1: Education policies in Sudan. continuity and discontinuity.

Laying the foundations.

What are the basic features of Sudanese education? Modern education in Sudan did not begin with the Condominium administration in 1898 when a number of schools of Western type were established by the Christian missionary societies in the main towns of Northern Sudan and few in the south. Neither did Sudan's relations with the outside world nor the influence of Western ideas start at the beginning of the twentieth century (1). Sudan has been exposed to external cultural influences since ancient times. The Sudan's educational system had its roots in the Islamic culture. In the 17th century the demand for education was felt with the spread of Islam (2). It started with the need to learn the Koran. It was mostly religious education to be offered in the khalawas (3). This system continued until 1820 when the country was occupied by the Turko-Egyptian forces which provided, for the first time in Sudanese history, the country with a central government. The Sudan became part of Egypt and its economic and cultural relations with the latter were cast into a new mould. In addition to the Koranic schools it was felt the need to form the personnel needed for administrative purposes. Another contribution of the Turko-Egyptian administration, besides opening Sudan to modern education was its encouragement of missionary education. It was not until 1820 that European Christian missionary societies' interests in the Sudan were revived. Missionary education activities during this period arose from their interest in spreading Christianity not only in Sudan but also through the latter to other parts of Africa. In 1846 was established the Khartoum Catholic School. Missionary work was extended to the south: due to the local situation no educational work was carried out. Missionary education work did not recover from its first setbacks until Daniel Comboni began a new missionary drive in the Sudan (4).

By 1871 three Sudanese men and eighteen Sudanese women trained in Cairo were ready to embark on missionary and educational work in the Sudan. Kordofan was chosen by Comboni as the field of his new work because of the better climatic conditions compared to those of the south and because communications with Khartoum and Cairo were much safer.

The western Sudan, on the other hand, provided the possibility of developing links with the Catholic missionary work which was already been established on the Niger. A school was established in El Obeid: in 1876 no less than one hundred boys were receiving instruction in different trades at the school. In 1881 a farm was started in Malbes-south of El Obeid-on which thirty families were settled to receive agricultural training. Two other schools were established at Berber and Suakin. In 1877 there were two hundred girls and three hundred boys in the school at Khartoum, the majority of whom were Sudanese. Comboni's success encouraged Gordus, Gessi and Emir Pasha to invite him to re-establish missionary work in the South.

The death of Comboni in 1881 and the outbreak of the Mahdist revolution, however, prevented this from being put into effect. The Mahdist regime in Sudan (1885-1898) put an end to missionary work and the schools, established by the Turko-Egyptian regime (5).

The Mahdi's teaching advocated a return to pure Islam and the rejection of Sufist teaching in favour of the Koran and tradition of the Prophet (6). He was not sympathetic to the ulema who supported the previous administration. His teaching was against the educational institutions developed by the Turko-Egyptian rule. Khalawas for the teaching of the Koran were permitted. Omdurman, which became the Mahdi's capital attracted a number ulema and teachers. Another centre of learning and writing was in Eastern Sudan where the Maghoub family lived. The third centre was in Dongola where there was a great concentration of the Mahdi's armies. Cultural relations with Egypt and the outside world, however, suffered as a result of the conflict between the two countries. Egypt's educational system and institutions were no longer a source for education and training of the Sudanese.

Modern education, the foundation of which were laid during the Turko-Egyptian rule, was, therefore, replaced by a limited number of traditional religious schools which were the sole source of education when Sudan was reconquered in 1898.
Educational policy during the Condominium.

The reconquest of Sudan by the British and Egyptian force in 1898 and the signing of the Condominium Agreement in Cairo on 19th January 1899 marked the beginning of a new regime in Sudan. During this span of time the Sudanese administration was in many ways acting as if Sudan were an independent country. The government task was to use the available funds in the best possible way and create an educational system which would contribute to the solution of economic problems and to the establishment of a good administration. Concern and active participation by the Sudan government was a departure from the pattern in other colonies. The relationship between education and employment on the one hand, and education and political change on the other, was a fundamental part of Cromer's ideas on the role of education. It should be noted that technical and vocational education were emphasized not only to meet the demands of skilled workers, but also to detach the trained craftsmen from the ranks of the dissatisfied class of nationalist.

The foundation of the Sudanese educational policy during this period were laid down by Kitchener and Wingate, the first Governors General in Sudan, and Currie, the first Director of Education. The pattern laid down by Currie with some change of aims and content of courses, continued right down to 1970.

During the Condominium the traditional khalawas were encouraged to introduce elements of secular education. The combination of secular and religious education whether in kuttabs or reformed khalawas became the basis of Sudan elementary system of education. In other words, post-elementary education was vocational in nature and restricted to those needed for government service. It was hoped that these reforms would reduce the danger of a revival of Mahdism and the development of hostile religious orders. Material benefits arising from employment in government service helped to allay the fears about the new attitude towards education.

Christian missionary education presented problems of a different nature and with far-reaching implications. With the reconquest of the Sudan missionary activity was renewed. The Verona Fathers (Comboni Missionaries) and the American Presbyterian Mission sent representatives to Khartoum. This was a problem for the administration; the question asked was whether proselytism should be allowed or not. The main concern of the administration was to establish law and order and to win the confidence of the population and was therefore against allowing the missionaries a free hand.

After pressures from different quarters, missionaries were allowed to start their activities in the south. In the north the government imposed on the missionaries many restrictions. They were allowed to establish schools in Khartoum, where they could be supervised, for Christian children only. In 1901 they were allowed to start schools outside Khartoum and admit Moslem Sudanese children. Material benefit arising from employment in government service helped to allay the fears and brought about a new attitude towards education. The attitude of the population was necessarily determined by their attitude to the new administration and the latter's success in winning their support and confidence. The modern type of school was a foreign imposition by a foreign ruler and was looked upon with suspicion. They feared that it would replace the khalawa and lead to the abandonment of their religion and tradition.

Despite development of a modern type of state education imparting liberal and vocational training to some Sudanese, the strongest influence remained that of the traditional educational institute. To those who wanted to modernise society the khalawa and other religious institutions symbolised conservatism and stagnation and therefore seemed unfit for the challenges of a modern society. The opposition and fears towards the new educational system can be seen in terms of tradition versus modernization. The traditional elements of the Sudanese society (particularly the faqi: religious teachers) feared that the new system might deprive them of their status in society and the parents themselves feared that the attendance of boys in schools would deprive the family of their help in carrying out economic activities.
The post-war period, which witnessed major expansion at all school level, was also associated with the establishment of a post-secondary Khartoum Technical Institute, Omdurman Higher Teachers' Training Institute, and a Khartoum branch of Cairo University (which was nationalised in 1992 by the present government and became EI-Nileen University) (15).
Yet at the time of Independence in 1956 enormous disparities in the educational system existed. Only an estimated 10-12% of children of primary age were in school and some 86% were illiterate. The first priority of the independent government was to initiate rapid and massive expansion in an effort to bring modern education within the reach of the entire population. The problem was and still is how to achieve a quantitative expansion of the educational system so as to meet people's demand for more education, while, at the same time, preventing a deterioration of its quality(16).

It might be argued that the educational policy pursued by the present government aims at "opening up" the educational system in order to meet the requirements of nation-building ideology put forward by government officials. This statement needs some qualifications. On the one hand allowing greater in-takes of students at all levels, attempts in improving teachers' training, expansion of higher education institutions, revision of the syllabi and quite a strong push towards using Arabic language as the sole language of instruction has proved to be the official policy implemented by education policy-makers and authorities; on the other the on-going civil war in the south and other regions of the country, has made dramatically clear that education has failed in meeting the needs of large sectors of the Sudanese people.

The internally displaced population has no chance in pursuing any kind of education due to political-ideological factors put forward by the authorities though the latter do claim that educational services are provided in the squatter camps. Political marginalization and exclusion from the labour market: these are just two of the "results" brought about by the combined effects of civil war and lack of proper education.

The historical background sketched above allow us to point out some of the continuity-discontinuity affecting the Sudanese education system.

As Y. Fadl Hasan points out (17):

The development of a modern education system during this century is the outcome of the interaction of traditional Islamic culture and western ideas.

The concept of public education initiated by the Condominium government and geared towards liberal education and producing qualified government personnel and professionals was radically reformed and broadened by the May Revolution-Numeiri government to cater for the needs of a modern society. The duality between secular and religious education was almost wiped out and a more integrated national education system was created. However this stated education policy has been contradicted by successive post-independence governments attempts in assimilating Southern Sudanese into Islam and Arabism. The policy of education has been ever changing according to the priorities given to Islamization and Arabization by the policy makers.

In the following section I will look at the dynamics of education policy. The dichotomy continuity-discontinuity will become clearer in so far as a sociological analysis of education will come to the fore.

Social dynamics of Sudanese education.

The questions to be addressed in this section might be outlined as follow:

i) who are the main actors in setting Sudanese education policy?

ii) What is the basic trend of this policy? Has it changed over the years?

iii) what are the social classes who benefit-or conversely do not-from it?
missionary schools, were recruited and they helped to found the first schools which later produced local teachers for the village schools. Most of the teachers in these schools did not have more than an elementary education.

The sphere system, however, did not allow the Catholics to expand as they would have wanted to. The article of the government educational policy also led to cultural separatism between the different areas within the South as well as between North and South. After World War I the government became more positive in its support of missionary education work. The important Rejaf Language Conference of 1928 reinforced government linguistic and educational policy. The positive government support of missionary education resulted in a consistent expansion of educational provision throughout the 1920s (25).

The missionary societies had succeeded in laying the foundation, but failed to bring about a unity in the system, as each of them had a different policy and this did not help to promote unity between the different ethnic groups (26). In the 1930s a change in government policy was to disillusion missionaries once again. They had been successful in creating a small but perceptible demand for schooling. The re-affirmation of the Southern policy by Sir H. Mac Michael in 1930 implied the training of a larger body of Southern Sudanese as minor civil servants and technicians through elementary and intermediate schools. Administratively indirect rule prevailed in the Sudan and the objectives of education were modified on the basis of Milner's report which advocated the training of Sudanese for employment in occupations other than those provided by the government service, such as agriculture, commerce and industry (27).

The impact of indirect rule as an administrative policy on Southern educational policy resulted in the institution of a grants in-aid system and the development of vernacular languages. But as L.M. Sanderson points out (28):

The conflict between the government and the missionaries was a conflict between official emphasis on the status quo and missionary readiness for social change.

She makes clear, moreover, a very important point regarding education in South Sudan:

It is impossible to estimate the degree of new awareness among individuals and among groups of Southern Sudan as a result of missionary-government educational enterprise during the Condominium.

Education had provided some vocational selection in accordance with strict economic needs. It failed on the other hand to train an elite for a new political structure. It might be argued that the conflicts in education during the 1930s appear to have been about lack of communication and understanding between Europeans and Africans. In this regard it is worth remembering that anthropological knowledge about Southern ethnic groups was at its beginning. The seminal works of Evans-Pritchard and Seligman on Southern ethnic groups were commissioned to them in order gain an understanding of so a difficult-challenging completely new situation. Moreover the British administrators of the Southern Provinces showed in dealing with the local population quite negative attitudes. As well as from some extent even contempt in so far as peoples' cultural expressions-dances, songs, languages and economic patterns were concerned.

It might be claimed that this is the net result of indirect rule, namely imposing on a local subjected population foreign socio-economic-cultural way of lives and at the same time allowing them to express their own modes of lives in so far as they did not conflict with "progress and civilization" brought about by government officials and missionaries alike. It was this very conflict between tradition (African tradition expressed by the different ethnic groups in accordance to their own world view) and I would contend modernization that resulted in the Southern policy implemented by the Condominium authorities and the subsequent conflicts with the missionaries regarding education policies worked out in Southern
facilitated, from some extent, political-religious factionalism in the North while keeping the Southern regions far behind in terms of development opportunities. The socio-economic-political factors just mentioned as well as others— for instance the perception of the “outside world” and self-understanding of both Northern and Southern peoples— have to be taken into account if one tries to grasp Sudanese complex reality.

In other words, definite socio-historical factors have shaped Sudanese contemporary society which have had—still have—a weight in any discourse about education.

In the following section I intend to focus on the educational developments with reference to the social actors and policies implemented up to post-independence in order to grasp the role played by education in nation-building.

An overview of education policies up to Independence (1930-1955).

A successful policy of native administration depended on a supply of native educated executive officials to work with the tribal chiefs. It was needed a new approach to the educational system. The major concern from an educational point of view was regarded to be the khalawa and the elementary schools. The latter was not providing that type of education which was supposed to meet the needs of village and towns boys. The standard of elementary schools was quite low and not of high value in supplying the intermediate schools with enough pupils.

Various factors were decisive in the establishment of the new training college at Bakht Er Ruda. Its aims were to create a rural teaching content in rural surroundings with reasonable high academic and professional standards, and, at the same time, refresh courses for working teachers. The latter purpose was essential if reform in elementary education was to be carried out. On the syllabus side the aim was to devise syllabi and text-books for pupils to suit the aim of ruralization. In order to achieve this the curriculum of the school was formulated in such a way to balance between desk-work and out of the school activities (30).

The reform of the elementary and intermediate syllabi on a practical basis and with a practical rural bias, the improvement of teaching methods so that not only the majority of boys who did not proceed beyond the intermediate school would find real benefit were not easy to achieve. It took some years before the aims of Bakht Er Ruda were accepted and supported: its significance lay in the fact that its establishment marked the first steps towards reforming Sudan’s education (31).

In contrast with these first attempts in bringing about education reforms in the north, education policy in the south was going through uncertain times. The application of the Southern policy in the field of education was worked out in a number of conferences, the main one being the “Educational Conference” held in Juba in 1932.

At this conference the Director of Education emphasized the need to satisfy the demand for local staff in a few years. The aim in the South was not to de-tribalize, but to make each boy a better member of his tribe (32). This assumption might be qualified as an attempt by the Condominium administrators to keep those sectors of the local population, namely young boys and a very limited number of girls, in a kind of “double footing” situation: exposing the youth—since the elders were regarded as “hopeless and lost” to paganism and cultural traditional values to new set of values, world-views, opened to social change on the one hand; while on the other allowing the elders to exercise their own traditional social control mechanisms. In so doing social mobility and change in cultural, economic and political terms were perceived by the youth as an opportunity to be freed from those traditional values and mechanisms which hindered their social status within their own tribal society and at the same time as a “golden opportunity” in order to promote themselves and become “modern”. Therefore the dichotomy tradition-modernity might be understood within the context of tribal societies.
exposed to out-side social change-as affecting that particular sector sector of the local population, the youth, more inclined to accept the challenges of "progress" and western culture brought about by the education policies implemented in the Southern regions by the Condominium administrators and the christian missionaries alike(33).

The application of the Southern policy in education was faced with many problems and contradictions. The cooperation between the missionaries and the administrators was critical, but political problems hindered it (34). The late 1930s were years of examination and review of the role, place and implications of missionary work in Southern education, from the political and administrative point of view.

The Nationalist and Pan-Islamists both in Egypt and Sudan, were determined to open the south to Moslem activity. New challenges to government policy in the administrative and educational fields faced the Southern government, view in this context is that it should be reassessed where the links of religious, cultural and political nature existing between the Egyptian and Sudanese Islamic groups. The 1930s were decisive in the cultural elaboration and practice of Muslim fundamentalist groups, suffice to mention the central role played by Sheikh Said Al Banna and Rashid Rida. It is interesting to mention that young Sudanese Muslim intellectuals were exposed just in the years prior to World War II to this kind of intellectual influences which definitely shaped their perceptions and understanding in so far as western-British-political and economic domination is concerned. It is this group of Sudanese intellectuals who once back in Sudan engaged themselves in the public arena, playing with their local counterpart a decisive role in shaping Sudan's political life. The socio-political-cultural interests expressed by the political parties, tough mediated by the Khatmiyya and Mirghania tariqa, were conducted in due course, to lead the country to independence. Meanwhile the last ten years of the Condominium rule in the Sudan were years of rapid advances in the educational field: education was both a promoter and a result of the socio-cultural-political changes affecting Sudanese society (35).

But the british-run Sudan education service conscientiously aimed at educating the Sudanese for eventual independence-which was always recognized as the ultimate goal of the Condominium. by a programme of secular, Western-style studies while at the same time making every reasonable effort to involve traditional Islamic education with these studies. During the cost-war period and especially in the years immediately preceding independence ideological factors hindered the awareness that political independence favoured by Sudanese political parties and groups was at odds with the cultural and education backgrounds of these very social actors exposed as they were to a kind of ideological discourse that favoured, in the years immediately after independence, certain leftist coup attempts and other manifestation of European-style left-wing activism that bedevilled that period of Sudanese history. It may be added that the formation and political actions of the Sudanese Communist Party played an important single factor in bringing about, in Nymeiri's times, a verypressive policy against left-wing groups perceived as enemies and foreigners to the Sudanese political, religious and ideological discourse. In fact the split that developed even before this period between secularists and radical Muslims, may be attributed to a Western-style education that exhibited markedly liberal emphases, which many of these young Sudanese leftists absorbed. At the same time, as it was previously argued, Sudanese students trained in Egypt and elsewhere in the Islamic world, received indoctrination of a different kind, which may have been no less confrontational(36).

Commenting on the education policy of the Condominium M.O. Beshir points out(37):

The educational policy of the Condominium government lay at the root of disparity and antagonism between south and north Sudan. Educational progress in the south was hindered and lagged further behind educational progress in the north; it failed to uproot these disparities and establish a unified system of education which would create a national unity.
1750). On the East Africa coast settlements were formed giving raise to a new cultural group—the Swahili—but the Bantu peoples were not affected by this Islamization process. The diffusion of Islam across the Sahara into the Northern Sudan came through the work of Berber leaders and clerics in the West and an immigration of Arab peoples (A.D. 1300-1500) in the East, with the net result that Christianity in Nilotic Sudan disappeared. It is interesting to point out that Islam was incorporated as a class religion—the imperial cult in the Sudanese states like Mali and Kanen and as a cult of the trading and clerical classes. Islam was able to insert itself on the religious African stage because its religious requirements were felt compatible with the African traditional religious ethos though, it should be remembered, it came about a dichotomy between the African ideas of the harmony of society and Islamic exclusiveness;

- The era of states (A.D. 1790-1900). Where Islam became the only religion new ideas of more militant Islam came about. Jihad became the tool for the formation of a number of Islamic states throughout the Sudanic belt from Guinea (Futa Jallon 1776) and Senegal (Futa Tono 1776), Masira (1818) and Sokoto, the Mahdia of the Nilotic Sudan (1881). The stress on exclusiveness was the most typical characteristic of Islam’s diffusion and radication in Africa durin this span of time. The reformers, the propagators of a revitalization of Islam challenged the given assumption of Islam as significant to Africa; in fact Islam was felt to be so much Africanized as to be at the point of losing its identity. Nominal allegiance to Islam grew significantly during this period as well as, in so far social factors are concerned, these reformers broke up the existing social and ethnic groups, leaving Islam as the unchallenged point of reference for a new social organization: the Islamic state;

- Colonial period: Colonial scramble for Africa witnessed the continued expansion of Islam even over regions previously closed to it. Under colonial rule Islam spread more and more. Religious, economic, social and political factors facilitated this process. I do not dwell any longer on Islam’s diffusion as well as importance in independent Africa since I will develop this point with reference to Sudan.

It is possible to distinguish, besides these four historical stages, other four different degrees of African Islam:

(i) the Islam of the first phase of expansion. Two culture zones (Egypt and the Magreb) where Islam is integrated into every aspect of life;

(ii) traditional African Islam, where Islam is fitted into indigenous systems and implies degrees of allegiances. Religious dualism and tolerance are characteristic; chiefs recognizing all the religious usages of their peoples;

(iii) the basic Sudanese pattern, where Islamic Law is incorporated into the patterns of social life;

(iv) the secularized Islam of neo-Islamic communities where Western penetration accompanied the adoption of Islam

It is possible to discern in the meeting of Islamic and African cultures patterns of attraction and repulsion, acceptance and denial. One current is moving towards differentiation and the other towards homogeneity. Regional differences derive from both internal and external factors of differentiatation:

(i) geographical and ethnic factors and the pre-Islamic socio-religious institutions;

(ii) external influences, the nature and differences in the historical penetration of Islam. Taken together these factors bring about a culture along regional lines. At the same time Islam—from some extent I would say—has played a role in unifying African cultures (4). Some Islamic institutions are universally adopted and this determines a bond of understanding between peoples. Much more so among believers: the shared religious patrimony transcends ethnic boundaries and develops common attitudes and patterns of behaviour. Although regional
Conference are important in so far as the political and cultural unity of Africa are concerned. The stress put forward by these scholars is on specifically Islamic contribution to Africa unity. It might be arguable this kind of stress on Islam or Arabic-Islamic culture as a unifying factor in Africa, but, it is historically true, on the one hand Muslim resistance to Western dominance as well as, on the other, the latter has been significantly grown among intellectuals in Africa. Another important aspect which I would say very sensitive aspect with regard to the Islamic images of Africa is the dissemination of Arabic language. It is the latter which is meant to be the "Arab" element of Arabic-Islamic culture, not the Arab nation. Once again Sudan provides useful insights about the tension between Arabic and local languages. In Le changement linguistique à Juba et à Khartoum Miller points out how a multiplicity of so called Africans or vernacular languages used in Southern Sudan is confronted and/or challenged by Arabic language, spoken with different degrees of proficiency by the majority of Sudanese people. Arabic is the only language having the status of national-official language (12). Who are, one may ask, the social actors using Arabic language in an African context? They are the students of the madrasa: Arabic is the language of instruction in many of these schools, but with some specifications. In East Africa Kiswahili often competes with Arabic as the language of instruction. In Sudan itself failure in paying attention to local languages, in the educational field at primary level for instance, has meant that the policy of Arabization (linguistically and culturally) aimed at creating a national-official language is short-sighted and destined to failure because the high priority given in Muslim schools to Arabic is equated with knowledge of Islam. This very process is bitterly challenged by non-Arabs non-Muslim Sudanese. Then the question is: if it is true that the modernized "madrasas" are producing a new class of 'ulama' what is the role of Arabic? Clearly enough a sound knowledge of Arabic is of tantamount importance. These new 'ulama' are receiving advanced training in the Islamic studies departments of African universities or in Arabic language universities. Until recently most high degrees for Arabic speakers were taken in the religious sciences, but this pattern is changing: now Arabic speakers obtain degrees in the professions and the sciences (13).

The images of Africa envisaged by the organizers of the Islam in Africa conference are basically the following. Africa united by Islam through the principles of the universal umma, an exclusivist Islam which absorbs and dissolves all differences. Arabic language lays according to them-the positive role of bringing people knowing Islam. Finally it is an Africa freed by and that has recaptured the political-cultural independence from the West and whose destiny is Islam. This positive picture of Africa leaves out many things. The mention of "Africa glorious Islamic past" means something very different to Muslim from what it means to non-Muslims. In fact this "Africa" becomes the political frontier of dar al-Islam (the land of Islam) at the expense of dar al- kufr (the land of unbelief). Africa images are different, complex and often include numerous opposing and conflictual factors. If we analyze it in terms of Muslim vs. secular component, these two sub-discourses appear to be mutually exclusive and largely conflictual. On the one hand, in fact, Muslims do claim, in constructing their identity, the shortcomings, of what they see as secularist values and behaviour. On the other the secularists have often simply ignored Islam as a significant socio-political fact. It is clear that each of these discourses also constructs its own interpretation of the "West". We may conclude this brief analysis pointing out that the Muslim discourse about Africa is as much about "Africa" as it is about "Islam" (14). Yet the question is still: will be Islam the mobilizing ideology of the Africans towards the end of the twentieth century? Many factors lead to this assumption since in recent times modernization has given a fatal blow to a religion, Islam, that has survived according to its own ancient way of life. Colonization has limited and/or contained Muslim forces and the latter have been used in a local political context. Islam has acquired a subaltern status. It seemed unable to take political initiatives. Islam did not inspire the new African generations as it was in the past giving to it a leading role in the liberation struggles. African national awakening has not given to Islam any place. Paradoxically the opposite is true for Christianity that, though of colonial origin, has been a point of reference to the African elites formed by the Churches. In brief, Islam has not gone through the process of historical evolution. The rare cases in which it has played an active political role in Africa are those countries, such as Somalia and Sudan, linked somehow to the Arab countries, or those areas under control of traditional Muslim elite, as in North Nigeria or an
Islam with its own specific identity like in South Nigeria and following the authority of the emirs. Taking this into account it is not surprising that at independence the new African elites have not looked for inspiration to Islam. Islam was equated to conservatism. Socio-economic development of the modern antion-state implies to limit its impact on society and politics and Islam becomes a private devotion: Islam was marginalized. The times that Muslims and Christians lived together were challenged by modern education. At the same time in the countries with a major Muslim population, the new leadership has not taken side with militant Islam: they opted for a secular state. Guinea of Sekou Toure envisaged a war against Muslim 'ulama and against Islamic fanaticism. Mali of Modibu Keioka eliminated the old social hegemonies that backed Islam. It was not the right time for Muslim activism within the circles of the elite. Black Africa, it might be argued, was on the path of secularization; Islam, at most, represented a historical-cultural heritage. More than three decades have elapsed. The naive optimism of independence is no longer there. Development is more and more complex and the only visible growth is that of inequalities. Africa has gone through a process of change much more so with regard to its disarticulations in the socio-political fields. Islam has been able to face the challenge. Black Africa Islam has retained its Arabic character and, socially speaking, both conversions and Muslim identity have become significant. The new elite now have to compete with Islamic revival and they cannot any longer claim an anti-religious discourse as they used to do at Independence. How is it possible to explain Islamic revival in Sub-Saharan Africa? The opening of Black Africa states to the Arab world has speeded up the process; the very same African societies have accelerated and/or favoured the reasons for the success of Islam. First of all we have to consider that it is not a superficial phenomenon. It has more to do with the ideology of the new African burgeoisies than the development-from some extent too semplicistic-of rigorous analysis. Nowadays it is important to realize that Islam has perfectly adapted itself to social change and it has largely benefited form them. Islam has benefited from the market economy that has opened new spaces to Muslim merchants that have played an active role in renewing the economic traditional markets. More recently Muslim merchants have come to the rescue of public enterprises. Islam has equally come to term with the new form of social organization. It has faced the difficulty-acording to its own standards-of a urban milieu creating new forms of identity and belonging (16). It is possible to say that it does exist a "Muslim network" that has enabled Islam to be present in contemporary Africa. But above all Islam has acquired a new meaning for the subaltern classes, those classes that have not benefited in the process of nation-building and modernization. While the new elites have left behind Islam for a state ideology, the dominated, marginalized groups have discovered Islam as a powerful means of direct and indirect resistance. Faced with a state that tries to control the old social structures and putting in its place a citizenship based on the relationships state-individual, Islam has worked out a new social order. The religious message has led to "reading" a situation of oppression and building up new utopias. It is possible to affirm that Islamic revival leads to challenging the state (17). It has built a new popular political culture that includes different aspects and potentialities. It is first of all within civil society that Islam works. But this presence within everyday's experience is at the same time an experience of Islam as a political modern factor. The state that faces Islamic revival has to challenge it in so far as socio-political-religious programmes are concerned but more significantly it is obliged to build up its own legitimacy that is very often challenged in peoples'eyes by the Islamicists. In fact African elites that discover the values of Islam have to question its legitimacy and validity in terms of Muslim/Islamic discourse hence the emphasis of religion in the official media as well as in education, where the fundamentalistic Islamic appeal is quite strong. Religion then becomes-not surprisingly I would argue since the division between "altar" and "throne" is unknown to Islam-part and parcel of the state response to the threats posed by Islamicists. In fact, the vitality of Islam in civil society is manifested by the "political way of doing" that directly affects the dominant political order. The political space of Islam vis a vis the political change is limited by its own space. If a political status is granted to Islam one has to include a response of political domination, a tactique that is convient in order to distinguish those political practices more directly active at the frontiers. Is Islamic revival in civil society conducive to political strategies of conflict or as social movement employing a project of counter-legitimacy clearly defined? It is
possible to suggest that the dynamism of Islam within civil society acts as a catalysts, a cultural code bringing about structures of active Islamic political actions. Muslim political actions considerably vary according to social situations, groups of reference and Islamic traditions to which they are of inspiration.

A simple typology of social Islamic activists, Islam of popular utopia and popular Islam of the counter-elites will help us to grasp the above-mentioned discourse. The focus is on Islam of popular utopia, since at least in Africa, it has emerged as a significant social factor in challenging on the one hand the status quo and on the other it has been able in some cases to build up a new social order, for instance the Mahdist state in Sudan.

Islam of popular utopia: all great religions have been challenged by active utopias that often have given rise to popular uprising. Muslim world and African Muslims particularly has been affected by these utopias that has found expression in revolts of groups or subordinate classes facing acute social situations and they have re-interpreted number of religious traditions according to Muslim heritage. We may distinguish three traditions in this regard: the tradition of hejira it is the refusal and rejection of the existing order to be ready to built a new world; the tradition of jihad a notion basically referring to the effort of doing God's will but it has taken up political overtones; the tradition of the Mahdi the "Right Guided" the "Saviour".

These three traditions are complementary to each other. Hegira is a kind of preparation to jihad and the latter to the coming of the Mahdi: Black Africa is the land of the Mahdi and of revolutions of that kind: suffice to mention the Mahdi of Sudan; Yomo Diop; El Haji Debele.

A multiplicity of factors account for Black Africans acceptance of Islam. The way in which Islam has spread in Africa enables us to stress that Islam has played a significant role in Africa's history. Clearly enough there are limitations such as the forceful argument of Arabic language as medium of belonging and expression to the Arab Umma. But we have seen that the former is not felt as a decisive factor by African Muslims in putting forward their allegiance to Islam. The contrary, I would say, is true, namely from the above-mentioned analysis emerges a dialectical tension between African understanding on Islam and the adaptative ways that Islam-as a social movement- has been obliged to work out in taking roots in Africa. Therefore in the final section of the chapter I will look at Sudanese Islam, how Islam has been developing in that country, how Sudanese society has responded to it.

Sudanese Islam.

Outside of Sudanic Africa and the Guinean region, the third major zone of Muslim population in Africa is the region of Sudan, the East African coast and the hinterlands of Ethiopia, Somali and Kenya. The principles behind the diffusion of Muslim societies in these regions were much the same as those of West Africa but the sources of Islamic influences were primarily Egypt, Arabia and the Indian Ocean region rather than North Africa (18). The history of the modern state of Sudan evolved separately from that of the Central and Western Sudan owing to the fact that Islam reached Eastern Sudan from Egypt rather than North Africa. Also in Eastern Sudan a mass of Islamic societies was established at a recently early date. By the nineteenth century Sudan already had a long history of Muslim Sultanes, substantial Muslim populations and developed Muslim religious institutions. In the nineteenth and twentieth centuries the process of territorial unification and consolidation of state power proceeded relentlessly. In 1821 Muhammad 'Ali nominally the Ottoman governor of Egypt dispatched the first of several expeditions into Nilotic Sudan with the aim of bringing it fully under Egyptian control. Thus began a period of Turko-Egyptian overule during the early nineteenth century. As a result the area of the Upper Nile was opened up to Ottoman and European traders. Darfur and Kordofan came under Egyptian administration. This widening of Egyptian control was made possible largely by the employment, in the Khedival service, of a number of europeans and Americans part of whose
task was to suppress the slave traffic in the area. Egypt also attempted to subordinate the Muslim religious elite. The Egyptians canceled the special financial privileges of the local faqis and suppressed some of the Sufi tariqat (Sufi Brotherhoods). Instead they encouraged the 'ulama' establishment primarily staffed by Egyptian though it incorporated local Sudanese students who were graduates of Al-Azhar. The Egyptian religious-legal administration applied Hanafi law even though most of the religious leaders were Malakis. The Egyptians also created courts in the major towns and a court of appeals in Khartoum. Egyptian administration opened the way for the spread of the reformed Sufi orders. The weakening of the local holy men and tribal chiefs by a foreign regime led to the spread of the reformed tariqat. Already in the late eighteenth century reformists Brotheroods, inspired by pilgrims returning from Mecca and Medina were making headway. The Sammaniya order was introduced by Shaikh Ahmad Al Tayyib b-Al Bashir who returned around 1800. The reform teaching of Al-Fasi (d.1837) was introduced into the Sudan by Muhammad Al-Majdhun (1796-1833) a descendant of an established holy family, who remade the order according to new principles. The Khatriya was established through the teaching of Muhammad Al-Mirghani (1793-1853). These orders represented a new concept of Islamic religiosity committed to formal IsImaic law and hostile to the traditional veneration of the faqis as miracle-workers and holy-men. The tariqat quickly became politically important. The Khatmiya established a nation-wide organization and cooperated with the Egyptian regime. The Sammaniya also established a wide-spread network but held aloof from the rulers and took the side of the local population. The Majdhubiya offered militant resistance. The interference with ancient patterns of trade and social structures and the dislike of the Khedival establishment for the faqis all combined to arouse deep discontent among the Sudanese Muslims. They had long been conditioned by the faqis to form a Sufi Islam that was highly susceptible to messianic expectations. In 1831 Muhammad Ahmad (1848-1885) a member of the Sammaniya order, declared himself the Mahdi, the expected saviour and called for the restoration of the true Islam. After a successful military campaign and the fall of Khartoum in 1885, the Mahdi, by divine inspiration, set up a stark Islamic theocracy, modelled on early Prophetic precedents, even to the extent of calling his lieutenants as the prophet's Companions while his followers became the Ansar, the "helpers". The early supporters of the Mahdist revolt included an immediate circle of pious disciples and varied organized tribal communities. It seems that the Mahdi had expectations beyond Sudan, hoping his mahdiyya would ignite the whole Islamic Ummma in righteous, xenofobic wrath against the infidel and against the sacrilegious dismantling of the values and habits of the traditional Muslim community. The Mahdi and his followers believed to reflect Allah's will. It is extremely important to bear this angry heritage in mind for it is still very much present in present day Sudanese Islam. Upon the death of the Mahdi, Abdallah Muhammad, his designated lieutenant, assumed the task of building a state regime. His succession marked the transformation of the charismatic revolutionary movement into a conventional state. The Mahdist also sought to reform Islamic practices, suppressed local faqis and local forms of the veneration of the saints. In 1898 an Anglo-Egyptian army defeated the mahdist at the battle of Omdurman. The conquest led to the Anglo-Egyptian Condominium (1899-1955). Taking into account this basic historical background, I am going to analyse Sudanese Islam from a socio-political point of view that will enable us to appreciate its social roots and background as well as the political role that it has been playing in Sudanese history (19). Two factors are of prime importance. First Sufism was predominant in popular Sudanese Islam while so called orthodox Islam lagged far behind. Secondly the Sudan achieved its first period of independence under a millenial movement, the mahdiyya. The predominance of Sufism and the often rather superficial base of Sudanese Islam were among the reasons which helped the Mahdist revolt to achieve such widespread support among Sudanese Muslims. Those Sufi orders which survived and re-emerged in the Anglo-Egyptian period generally resented and were afraid of the Mahdi heritage. It has been the simplicity of the Mahdi's Umma that the Sudanese Muslims have always chosen as their exemplar, This background - the Mahdiyya cut short, the austere ethic of the Mahdi against Western secularism was felt and lived out - has created in the Sudan an Islam that finds expression in a strong sympathy for the present-day fundamentalistic tendency. Here there is presumably no need for a national Muslim organization, since the state itself is Islamic. The basic question for the Sudan is whether the
policies and programmes of the Islamists will differ in any essential way from those of their predecessors or whether they too will fall prey to the policy of exploiting state resources—as indeed it is happening, consider, for instance, the economic policy of the present government. Therefore one may ask: can Islam make a substantive contribution to modern governance beyond the imposition of shari'a law? In order to grasp the crucial importance of this question we have to look at how the various Sudanese Islamist groups have been growing in importance and significance in the political arena. The social background may be found in educated young persons organizing themselves into Islamically oriented interests' groups which eventually manage to impose themselves on the evolution of national politics. Such Islamist groups define themselves not only in opposition to European and secular influences but also against Sufi which they often castigate as a deviation from true Islam. The clear aim of the Sudanese Islamists is to create a new Sudanese Islamic identity; their means are complex and include educational initiatives, control over money from Arab oil states, banking, the acculturation of the influx of Southeners and Westeners into the north because of war and famine, the adoption of Western missionary and organization techniques by Islamist organization for example the "African Islamic Centre" established in 1972 and the "Islamic African Relief Agency" established in the early 1980s. Expanding further on the roots of Sudanese Islam it is possible to affirm that it is used as a vehicle to express ideological, socio-economic and political cleavages. It has given birth to and nurtured many different and competing identities, such as modernist/traditionalist, urban/rural, millenial, autocratic, populist. All these forces with local or international connections have been trying, one way or another, to take over the state's apparatus in order to serve their own objectives and interests. The Islamic movements which have been flourishing or been founded in the post-independence period have been striving to constitute an alternative to the declining influence of popular Sufi identity. These movements are an expression not only of religious ideals but also of distinct and diverging socio-economic interests. However, either because of their rigid ideological interests and overtones or because of their economic malpractices they have not succeeded in attracting either these Sufi orders or the poor suffering sectors of the urban population. Periodic state interventions, especially under military rule, to impose a certain Islamic identity on the people bring new regroupings and alliances between the military rulers, leaders of the small Sufi orders and some of the Islamic movements. These regroupings reflect a keen desire to preserve on further socio-economic interests. The old patronage relationship between small Sufi orders and their followers were affected by the new financial status of these sheiks who became independent of the financial donations of their followers. Also the educational background of many of these sheiks made them refrain from performing or recognizing certain traditional Sufi practices which had an immense social impact on their followers. The shared economic interests of the previous Sufi orders with some of the Islamic movement (mainly the Wahababis and the National Islamic Front) resulted in orienting the tolerant, peaceful and compromising character of the Brotherhoods, especially the urban and semi-urban ones, toward a more fundamentalistic identity which in this context was synonymous with wealth and economic success. This clash of fundamentalists with popular Sufi identities posed certain challenges to the two dominant Brotherhoods, the Khatmiyya and the Ansar, especially during the third democratic period (1985-1999). This clash manifested itself in a severe struggle to manipulate the state's apparatus and the economy to their own benefit and resulted in the military coup of July 1989 which was strongly backed by the NIF. The latest phase of Islamic hegemony in the Sudan has led to a polarization of the country between an Islamist Northern nationalism and a (former) SPLA-led Southern nationalism.

Is it possible to think a solution to the very serious problems of different nature affecting contemporary Sudan? It is extremely difficult, let alone imagine to answer due to the complex, contradictory dramatic situation of nowadays Sudan. Having seen how Sudanese Islamic fundamentalist groups work, their aims and ideological stand it is quite significant to summarize the characteristics of the Islamist alternative from an ideological point of view:
it bestows a new identity upon a multitude of alienated individuals who have lost their social-spiritual bearings;
- defines the worldview of the believers in unambiguous terms by identifying the sources of "good and evil";
- provides a protest ideology against the established order;
- grants a sense of dignity and belonging and a spiritual refuge from uncertainty (23; see also appendix n°7).

Chapter three: Education in the Muslim world.

I will cover in this section three main aspects regarding Muslim education, namely: Islam and social life; content and aim of Muslim education in Africa and in general the Muslim world so that a clearer picture of their reciprocal influences will be gained; finally the role played by the new Muslim intellectuals of Black Africa with regard to the Islamic institutions of learning will be looked at.

Islam and social life.

Before analysing the role of Muslim education in general, it seems important to me to sketch some features of what Tringham calls influence of Islam on social life. Islam as a socio-religious phenomenon does affect all aspects of social life. Familiy, religious rituals, economic relationships have, in one way or another, to take into account Islam since the latter has deeply affected them and it finds its expression in a rich variety of social relationships. Islam stresses quite strongly the concept of community of believers-the *Ummah* and the believers do feel important to express their belonging to the *Ummah through participation in socio-religious rituals. An interesting aspect is that when Islam is adopted the concept of community is extended to include all who observe Islamic rituals and custom. Moreover the life of integrated Islamic communities is a mosaic of Islamic and indigenous elements in complex combinations, but always underlying the Islamic elements. In traditional African societies the social basis of the community remain paramount and the ideal of unity of believers is a superimposed linkage. In other words: the first allegiance is to the tribe, the clan; the Islamic community is important but comes second. Although Islam changes the religious basis upon which the social structure depended it does not bring about social disintegration or radical change. In long Islamicized societies traditional customs are the integrated result of a process of change before pressures from the Islamic law; in societies more recently exposed to Islamicization the process is under way. Consequently we are presented with extreme variations in the custom of different societies and generalization becomes impossible. A case at point is the process of Islamization of Southern Sudanese ethnic groups, particularly the Dinka. But, one may ask, who are the agents and channels through which Islam has spread through Africa?

In this regard two topics-related to each other-are of interest, namely what Coulon defines as the role of the *sheiks*, the learned in Muslim society; secondly the role played by the Arabs and Arabic language in Africa and the emergence of Islamic literatures in African languages.

The learned, the *sheiks* are of central importance in Muslim societies. They may be compared to the christian notion of clergy though they are not the intermediary between the believer and God. They are first of all the guardians of the Text and of the Law. Their authority is based on their knowledge of the traditions and their function is to interpret them. If it is possible to talk of official Islam, the *sheiks* are the ones who determine Islamic behaviour. The *'ulama*-the *sheiks* are the backbone of the Islamic government. The school, from this point of view, is a crucial institution: knowledge is the only possible, official channel to become 'ulama'. There is a kind of dialectical tension between, on the one hand, saints and holy-men who are instrumental for a religious experience and, on the other, the 'ulama' who own their authority to their knowledge and their insertion in the Islamic social apparatus. It is clear that it is through the school-either that of the formal educational state system or that of the mosque network-that the believer is formed to
African, Libya, Tunisia, Sudan. I will draw attention to the latter as a case study of Islamic propagation in Black Africa.

Al Merkaz Al-Islami Al Ifriqi bi' Khartoum - The Islamic African Centre Khartoum (14).

The progress of Islam and Arab culture in Black Africa in recent years pose the question of the origin and formation of the agents of this process in the different countries. Who are they? Why and how are they formed? Who does finance this formation? (15). From 1966 Sudan, member state of the Arab League and a Muslim country, developed a institutional and elitist approach about the diffusion of Arab culture and Islam in Black Africa, breaking with the old patterns of traditional teaching and proselytism. In 1977 after about twelve years of efforts in this direction, the Sudanese government, opened on the out-skirt of Khartoum South, an institution of public teaching, The Islamic African Centre for the formation of the African Muslim elite. The youth attending this institution were supposed to offer to Black African societies a model of modernization different from the Western one, and to fight back the negative images of Islam and of the Arabs imposed by European colonialism and Christian missionaries. To this end, the Centre had as its first aim to foster the formation of young Muslims coming from different African countries and at the same time it offered a profound knowledge of Islam and Arab culture seen as inseparable and teaching standards of high level based upon Islam of all the fields of modern knowledge. In order to put into practice these aims an institution of higher learning was established to reinforce religious orthodoxy and the general standard of learning of Muslim communities living in minority situations in multi-ethnic, multi-religious African societies. Various factors were conducive, in 1966, to bring together under the leadership of sheikh Awad Allah Salih a group of Sudanese 'ulama'. First the low standard of the majority of young African Muslims, both in the fields of religious Islamic sciences and secular ones. Then the existence of Sudanese Muslims who lived a border situation between Afro-Arab worlds, specifically characteristic of the Arab-Afro dualism-, of a very old tradition of proselytism among Black populations, a tradition followed by successive Khartoum governments. Sudan of the sixties was dominated by an anti-Western and nationalist thought in the wake of independence granted by the British in 1956 to the politically Muslim inspired parties, Arabization and Islamization seemed to be an alternative to Westernization and a needed tool for a "cultural de-colonization". Taking this into account it is clear that Sudan played a very significant role in attracting young African Muslims able to challenge the intellectuals formed by the colonialists and Christian missionaries who held the power of the newly independent African states. Moreover it was recognized that in post-colonial Africa, the "social passport" had changed: to be member of the elite-religious knowledge was not enough, Muslim missionaries had to compete at the same time with the different branches of modern knowledge and take the responsibility for socio-economic development of their countries. This kind of endeavour required the formation of an institutional framework and a permanent flow of finances; Sudanese ulama quickly realized the need of such an institution with particular reference to the conditions of African Muslim communities. However, before taking the decision about the nature of the institution to be built the Sudanese Mufti Awad Allah Salih and the committee of religious leaders took the initiative of analysing the best possible way about fostering in Black Africa a model of Islamic research and teaching according to modern times. It needed to respond to a strict religious orthodoxy and completely from traditional ways of thought in order to face the negative effects of European colonization. Two challenging situations were looked at by the committee presided over by Mufti Awad Allah Salih, on the one hand the low intellectual standard of the young Muslims from Uganda and Southern Sudan. The diffusion of Islam and Arab culture in those areas failed. The failure was recognized by the Mufti as being due to a deep rejection ethnically and religiously motivated. On the other hand, and strictly linked with the previous ones, different factors did not help the growth of a local African Muslim elite. Therefore it was suggested that the new Islamic institution should emphasize community life according to modern teaching techniques bringing together within the same Muslim society Anglophone and Francophone Africans in order to foster the growth of a Muslim homogeneous elite. The Islamic African Centre was established
Comments on your first chapter by numbered reference.

1. Need to check on the timeline of ch 1 and ch 2.
2. You need to understand the difference between an abstract - take an example of one from last year's dissertations and and introduction - a point I made earlier this week.
3. It looks like you may be trying to cover too much in ch 1, but let me read it further and see!
4. The relationship between ch 2 and ch 4 will need to be handled with care.
5. I shall not comment any further on the absence of paragraphs since we discussed that all last time.
6. Surprising to hear that missionary education was encouraged.
7. Revived suggests that there were missionaries earlier.
8. Was there a division between North and South at that time??
9. What does due to the local situation mean?? what were the setbacks. And when did Comboni start?
10. I am very surprised to hear about the training of women.
11. Explain who these were - the administration Also explain if Comboni was the founder of the order.
12. A thirteen year gap and its impact on non-Islamic education.
13. Surely the religious schools were not the basis of Sudanese elementary education. Not any secular schools??
14. You haven't really explained what the reforms were.
15. Explain what South-North meant at that time.
16. Arabic words in English should be in italics and, first time, translated immediately.
17. It used to be said that the Sudan political service was very highly regarded - why not the education service?
18. Are we sure that you are right about not uprooting them??
19. Does sponsored mean that the government supported it financially?
20. Note that the Phelps-Stokes Fund did not visit Sudan though it did visit Ethiopia - in the 1920s.
21. What was the N-S educational contrast in coverage at the end of colonial rule??
22. Why are we jumping to the present government now??
23. If you are going to make a transition here you might want to call the first part - not A but the historical background. And this present section something like the Transition to the
These notes were first done immediately before the exam board, since it was going to be essential for me to be able to argue that your chapters had improved over what I had seen earlier with [redacted]. They were sent off shortly thereafter, but I understand they did not arrive. Here is a second set, along with a copy of your text, on which I have put my numbers referring to the text. Apart from the first few examples I do not refer to your page numbers. I am faxing these few pages and sending my marked up version of your text again by Swiftair.

I was disappointed to see that you had again presented it in a format that was not conventional. But of course you had written in your covering letter that you were aware of this. I don't understand why you would first do it one way and then alter it. At any rate here are my revised comments from this reading.

Second draft of chapter One.

Would you kindly do what you or told or suffer the consequences. A paragraph needs to be separated by space - a whole line - from the previous paragraph. Can you understand this???? It is not clear how many paragraphs there are on p.1.

What on earth are you doing on page 2? Is this a two-paragraph page - or what about all these other shorter pieces???

p.2. Say who Cromer was. And spell Kitchener right.

I really don't think I can go through every spelling mistake. You have finished your dissertation with a lot of time to spare; so you should have time to check it very carefully, or get someone else to if you cant.

p.4. You talk about elementary education and then you say in other words post-elementary was vocational. There is no logical connection between these two.

p.2. Is Verona the same as Gomboni? You did not say so on p. 1.

it then gets worse on page 3.

These numbers refer to my numbers on your text.

1. I am surprised you say that British personnel were not keen to work in Sudan - they were very keen to serve in the North - but not in the South. I had thought.

2. What is the tariqat?

3. Don't you realise that you have to translate these terms - I realise you may have done so earlier but if so I missed it. Also please standardise the practice of using italics for an Arabic word.

4. You are in a chapter that is talking about laying the foundations, but you have jumped into the present regime. It is okay to have a brief reference to the present if you are mainly talking about the past, but not a long one like this.

I want to be absolutely clear about this: Is the following paragraph from Fadl Hassan a quote from him or a paraphrase by you? If the former, then it must be indented and shown as a quote with a page number.

4. Now we are fully back to your bad old ways: each sentence becomes one paragraph.

WHY WHY WHY?


6. In the South?? If so say so. I gather it is the South. Standardise use of South and North.

7. Why bother with bold? If the sentence is well constructed you don't need to use bold

8. You make it impossible to know if these are Sanderson's words or yours. In others words, you are not changing your style at all from those early chapters I looked at.

9. No proof of this assertion about S. administrators. Any references?

10. do you understand that I mean what I say when I say standardise your presentation.

You can't use North one line and north in th next.

11. I dislike these long numbered lists of things. Why not write this in prose?
12 when you have a parenthesis - you know what I mean - you need spaces on either side of the dashes. DO YOU UNDERSTAND?
12a Can't read these lines.
12b. Is this paragraph a quote from someone? There are no sources given for it, though you do mention Beshir at the end.
13. It is still not clear if your long pieces e.g. after Beshir are quotes
14. This chapter is meant to be about up to Independence and you start talking about post-independence - WHY? You say that the post-independence material and the New Educ Policy will be discussed in a later chapter: so why introduce them here?

The end of this chapter is a little weak.

Chapter 2 Islam in Africa
You must start on a new page.
1. Surely you don't need to take on the whole history of Islam in Africa. Okay you don't take long on this but I was getting worried.
2. A lot of this seems very derivative: is it a quotation or taken from some particular source. It certainly does not seem to be in English! Is it from Trimingham?
2a. you can list on a single line
3. Not clear what this subtitle/subheading means.
3a. I see italics. I said, for Arabic words; what is Zawya anyway. You take a whole page before saying what it means.
4. WHY ON EARTH CAN YOU NOT PRESENT YOUR WORK IN SIMPLE PARAGRAPHS?
4a. This paragraph runs for a couple of pages.
4b. When you say that Arabic is the only lang. with the status of national official language, are you excluding English?
5. WHY DON'T YOU TRANSLATE THESE WORDS LIKE UMMA and Ulama and put in italics.
6. Meaning of confused?
7. It is usually obvious when you are writing and when you are using someone else's Language. eg. 'a subaltern status' Or am I mistaken? But some of the ideas here are good and relevant.
8 and 9. This language is not yours: altar and throne etc.
10. Much of the previous section seems to have been derived from particular authors rather than made your own. I would have preferred for you to concentrate on this next section - you don't really have time to write the history of Islam in Africa. You do need to rework this general section on Islam in Africa so that it becomes a direct contribution to the work in the next section - on Sudan.
11. Much of this long paragraph does not seem like your own work. I hope you realise that you cannot use the actual sentences of someone else without putting them in quotation marks.
12. You realise that in sending me this kind of carelessly presented work you make it very difficult to see you as someone who is anxious to learn. Even though you say that you are going to improve the format and structure, it seems a pity to present it in this manner and then have to make it more readable.
12a. Should you give an example of a relevant Sufi practice?
13. This is your English - what does it mean
13a. Is this a quotation from Del multimaj? 

Chapter 3 on Education in the Islamic world
Again now you retreat to a very general chapter which has nothing directly to do with Sudan. THIS KIND OF GENERAL CHAPTER WOULD ONLY BE POSSIBLE IF IT KEPT ON MAKING SOME REFERENCE TO THE SUDAN. There is also the problem of length. You may find by the time you get to chap 4 which is the essential one that you are running short of words.
1. You dont seem to be able to make any reference to the Sudan in this general survey
1. This is very general material; I doubt it is the best way to use the space you have available for the dissertation. Unless you were able to continually connect it to the Sudan. That should be done anyway; so that we know what type of schools we are talking about in the Sudan.

2. This list of institutions - can we justify this here? I very much doubt that this is a useful approach - to discuss this general material - when you have so much that is unique to say about the Sudan.

3. Not a list of institutions surely.

4. Hurrah! You are actually going to start relating this chapter to Sudan!! about time.

5. What is the source of this information

6. This material on the changes in the system - I wonder if they are going to be repeated in the next chapter. If not these kinds of things WHERE YOU ARE AN EXPERT are much more important than some of the general historical discussion of education and Islam.

Some of the material in the appendix on Education Reform in Sudan should be at the very centre of the chapter on Islamisation of education in the most modern period in Sudan.

The last chapter - which I have not seen yet - will determine the acceptability of this dissertation. You should be aware that much of the previous 3 chapters has been quite derivative, but ch. 4 could be easily the most important and original.

Later I hear from [name] that you have not received these notes. I shall send a new copy, but phone first to see if you have a fax.

You will need to wait to get the text also since my numbers refer to numbers placed by me in your text, and not to your page numbers.

Kindest regards,

We are here till [date], and thereafter can be contacted in the [phone].

cc. [name]
Thank you for getting me your comments on my comments! And also the next chapter. I don't have an address for you at this point (there was none on your letter unfortunately; so this may take longer to reach you if it has to go back to Edinburgh to find your address first.

Comments are to your chapter 4, but are by your page numbers and your paragraphs - where these are clear! or by top, middle or bottom where it is easier to do so.

30. 2nd line: I will look...
3rd line seek to make blam pervade...
4th line: How Islamisation plays...is NOT a sentence. Please make it so.
5th line...world-view - often at odds with those already present - indigenous...when you make a parenthesis with two dashes - I have told you before - you must have a space before and after each dash. This is nothing to do with your word processing but with YOU!

If the first paragraph goes down to your footnote 2 on page 30 THAT IS SIMPLY TOO LONG AND THERE ARE TOO MANY DIFFERENT TOPICS IN THERE. PLEASE UNDERSTAND THAT YOUR THESIS WILL BE EASIER TO READ IF IT IS PRESENTED IN A CONVENTION IN WHICH A CLUSTER OF THOUGHTS IS PRESENTED IN A SINGLE PARAGRAPH.

Will you kindly in your final draft ensure that at the end of each paragraph there is at least one whole line of blank space. In this chapter you only have blank space at the end of each major section.

30. As for education this should have a whole line of blank space above it, to signify that it is a new paragraph.
30 I feel important...it is not clear to me whether you intend this to be a new paragraph, since you have employed a carriage return, but not made it a full line of blank space.
31. Spelling of Numiri? Is it usual with a 'v'?
31 Remember ALL islamic words have to be in italics, at all points in this dissertation, and they need to be defined in the text the first time they are used. It is NOT sufficient just to define them in a glossary.
31. 'Badal and shar'at must both be in italics. Come on!
31. You can't say Arabic as far as ethnicity is concerned. Arabic is a language.
32. quote at top content of Sudanese Arabs Not clear to me what that means
32 Shariff Harir is spelled completely differently in the space of 5-6 lines. COME ON!
32 next section The importance... has already been mentioned...
32. This is the first time wad bulad has been mentioned; it should be defined here in the text, not left to our imagination. I wonder if wad Bulad is th same as wadul Bulad a couple of lines later? It changes again in a couple of lines to AwladAl Bulad I hope these are not all intended to mean the same?
33. the riverain group is presumably not just made up of sons of Arabs literally. Some are sons of the soil, and others are from the Nuba mountains. What is special about the Albkins that makes them to be included, and what is the myth of being a son of arab, for the riverain region where presumably very large numbers have no blood relations at all with the Arabs?
33 Tighten up and call _Abd_ the same thing consistently. Perhaps _Abdi_ plural of _Abd_?

33 No need to use capitals for these parties.

34. What *intifada* are we talking about?

34. If you look at the first half of this page, you will see that you are throwing too much detail at us... there are too many trees and not enough sense of the wood. We don’t need all the alternative names of the NIF. We just need to be clear what are the key relationships you are concerned with.

35. Bottom half. You seem to be getting into the education discussion here already?

36. Can you not improve the flow in the NIF in Control section?? What about the list of names in the middle??

37. Not sure what you mean by saying you will not antagonize the govt. schools with the private ones??

37. You need to make clear why schooling in the North is restricted to the three towns

38. In education, you need to make sense of the expansion of higher education and its commercialisation as well as your two themes of curriculum and HE management.

38 mid. What is devilling??

38-39 I don’t find it particularly easy to follow the main points you are making on the Catholic church, though I do think there are some interesting issues hidden there. Make it clearer what they have done since the attempted reforms.

40 How is the very nature of the language Arabic conducive to Islamicisation?

40 I think you ought to consider the advantages of Arabic as the language of instruction in universities. I think a lot can be said in favour of this. Even if the positive sides are not there in the thinking of the present reformers...

40. I’m not terribly happy with what you have said so far about Islamisation and education. It seems that now, after this short segment, you are off again on a more general discussion. Am sure Vail’s point is interesting, but what if you haven’t tied down what you said was your central dissertation concern??

General

What you must realise is that you have only spent about 3 pages in this whole chapter on the Islamisation of the Sud educ system. I don’t think that the context is important, and Vail’s question is important...but if you end up not doing justice to the education side of the dissertation, you’ll put at risk the whole assignment.

ii. You should recall that our external examiner is a stickler for correctness. Not enough to have a bunch of interesting substance and no attention to presentation. If you are unsure of catching all the English stylistic problems yourself then do what our other good foreign students like...do - they pay someone to correct the English. I seriously think you would be ill-advised no to do this. Ask if there is someone at the British Council who could give advice. Or ask the Director of the English and Studies, who is an experienced Phd graduate (Dr. ) if she can identify someone. But I do think you should.

iii There is some fascinating material here, but if you are to get the level of results that would repay the work you have put into it, you must focus more sharply, and ensure that the Education-Islamisation argument is really well made.
That this candidate has a very important and interesting story to tell about the Islamization of the Sudan and the impact of this on education is clear from the last six pages of the text, earlier interpolations, and some of the appendices. He has the immense advantage, too, of being able to draw both upon personal experience and on material and interviews which provide valuable firsthand accounts and analyses by other people who cannot be identified for security reasons. Alas, the account has not been presented in sufficient detail and in accordance with academic convention to satisfy the standards required for an MSc dissertation.

1. The dissertation tackled two large subjects - 'the general concept of Islamization' and 'how education within a precise socio-historical setting has been developing in the Sudan'. These were not convincingly conjoined; there was much irrelevant detail in the general historical discussions of Islam; and the ordering of sections was confusing. The discussion of the effect of Islamization on the education section was inadequate, and also did not draw on nor develop ideas and information contained in the appendices.

2. It was some fifty per cent over the word limits (about 28,000-31,000 words).

3. Much of the text was heavily derivative, and especially so in Ch. 3, and insufficient attention was paid to the proper academic conventions for presenting, crediting and acknowledging the use made of the work of other authors.

4. Only a small number of items in the extensive and impressive bibliography were actually cited. Additional sources, some with incomplete bibliographical details, were cited in the notes, as were the details of individual papers in edited collections.

5. In many places the standard of syntax and English was poor.

6. The presentation was unacceptable. The use of 10-point type and single-spacing made reading difficult, and pages frequently contained about 700 words. Paragraphs were either excessively short, consisting of two to four lines, or excessively long, being frequently half to one and a half pages long, with the longest 3 pages (over 2000 words). One page was so smudged and faded as to be almost unreadable.

7. The standard of proof-reading, though much improved over earlier work, was still extremely poor, especially of the appendices. There were numerous typographic errors, mispellings and variations in names and dates, footnote reference numbers in missing from the text, sentences or words missing between pages, details missing in the bibliographic entries, some incorrect citations, and the inclusion of 'op. cit.' in the first citation of some sources.

The dissertation manifested the intellectual and presentational problems that have been present in this candidate's work from the outset, and which his tutors and examiners have striven, to little avail, to get him to remedy. He was allowed to proceed to the MSc. despite a very weak performance in the taught part of the course. This dissertation shows that he has still either not grasped, or has refused to heed, the exhortations and instructions of his tutors.

The candidate has not met the standards for the award of an MSc. but he has already satisfied the requirements for the award of the Diploma, and I would recommend that he be awarded a Diploma.

Mark: 52
COMMENTS ON CANDIDATES

Overall grade B. Average: 69.6
A very competent set of papers, showing wide reading and an ability to grasp a considerable amount of material in a short time. With one exception these are very detailed if not exciting essays covering a lot of ground. However, some of the impact of his work is the result of excessive length - up to twice the word limit in the gender essay and nearly as much in others. This is a matter on which only one examiner commented, but did not penalise him for it. I have left the marks unchanged.

Overall grade: B. Average: 70.16
A very interesting set of papers - wide-ranging, individual approach, and a consistently good performance. The essays lacked a first class touch though there are signs of a slightly wayward intelligence. Her performance was marred by carelessness in presentation.

Overall grade: B. Average: 72.16
This was an excellent set of papers, showing wide-ranging reading, good detail, and the ability to take an analytical and critical approach to the subject. I have raised the education mark to 75 to reflect her consistent ability across a wide range of topics. This is the best of the candidates, with three first class marks. The presentation was marred by some careless proof-reading.

Overall grade C: Average: 55.66
This is an extremely weak candidate with a set of essays that just scrape by. Much his work is copied directly from or based very closely on sources (though at least he does cite them in the text). His sense of relevance, ability to argue a case, to discuss the question, use normal length paragraphs, and to write a coherent essay are very limited. The only essay that shows any signs of improvement is the education one. I have marked down the development one to 55 on the grounds of irrelevant selection of material, the large sections of copied text, and format - for the most part it is a string of summaries. I have read his letter of protest against the mark for the colonial politics essay, but I wholly concur with the internal examiner's judgement. He submitted the last four essays at the end of the second term which might account for some of the highly derivative nature of his work, but not all. The standard of presentation and proof-reading is appalling, and did not improve significantly over the year despite stringent warnings and advice.

I presume on this performance he may have the right to continue, and I understand that you are willing to keep him on. However, I have grave doubts about his academic ability and his willingness to accept the necessary close supervision, and I will be surprised if he does manage to complete a dissertation which will meet the academic and presentational standards for an M.Sc.

Overall grade: B Average: 65.16
This is for the most part an average performance. There are signs of hard work and good understanding, especially in the economics papers. I think the two economics essays have been marked generously by comparison with others on those topics and with other first class papers, and I have reduced both, to 73 for the SAP essay and 70 for the other. Her performance was marred by carelessness in presentation. She would benefit from more help with English - it was not clear whether this had been taken into account in the marking, and I have made no allowance on language grounds.

Overall grade: B Average: 69.5
This is another very good performance, for the most part solid and well-informed, with some interesting ideas, but let down in places by style and carelessness. I have not altered her marks.
3.8 Summary and Concluding Remarks

These cases provide immensely valuable practical examples of derivation/plagiarism which has been a feature of writing by ESL students. Each case is different, but there seem to be some common variables. Cases 1 and 3 involved time-constraints since the writing tasks were exam essays. Cases 4 and 5 involved L2 proficiency which had been documented as a variable by a writing tutor in case 4, and by the research supervisor and examiners in case 5. The student in case 4 even claimed himself that his poor English was the problem. L2 proficiency may also have been a significant variable in case 3, evident in the extensive amount of appropriation and the ungrammatical links and recontextualisations. It seems that in case 2, L2 proficiency was not as much of a variable since the student was a fairly capable writer; in this case it may have been more of a lack of confidence which was a variable.

Indeed, in all of these cases, lack of confidence may have been an important variable. Even proficient L2 writers may lack confidence in their ability to produce acceptable English phraseology in their projects and essays. It is clear that in all of these cases, students employed language appropriation to greater or lesser extents as a writing strategy. Copying the language of a source text was seen as a way of compensating for actual, or self-perceived, linguistic deficiency, or it was seen as a way of compensating for the time limitations of a writing task. A student may be able to write an excellent essay, but that ability may be severely limited by time-constraints.

Regarding the knowledge variable, it seems that these students had arrived at a point in their development as L2 writers where they were aware that appropriation without acknowledgment was unacceptable. This is evident in their correct documentation of sources in some instances. Additionally, these students would have gone through presessional EAP courses which stressed the need for avoiding plagiarism. Furthermore, comments by MSc staff reveal that these students knew the L2 conventions for avoiding plagiarism. One student even confessed to having plagiarised. So it seems that possibly with the exception of the student in case 1, who
claimed he had memorised the derivative material in his exam essay, and the student in case 4, who was perhaps more guilty of confused source acknowledgment than outright acaemic dishonesty, these students had employed more or less serious forms of plagiarism in their L2 writing. The most serious case was definitely the case of plagiarism in the MSc dissertation, while the least serious cases were case 1 and case 4, which may not have been genuine instances of plagiarism.

Instructional background has not emerged in these cases as a major variable, although one could argue that the student in Case 4 lacked a solid background in English academic writing. It seems though that his case was more related to L2 proficiency. One could also argue that the student in Case 1 was employing a strategy of memorisation which was developed in his instructional background. However, his claim that he had memorised source material was weakened by an instance of apparent mis-copying.

The most important variables which seem to play the most significant role in these cases are the variables of time, lack of confidence, and L2 proficiency, but the other variables have their place too since it has been demonstrated that appropriation was used as a composing strategy, that students had knowledge of L2 writing convention (but chose to violate that convention), and that instructional background may encourage the copying of difficult source text as may have been the situation in case 2 with the student apparently misunderstanding the reading from Levelt. Variables which are seen to be important by students, course co-ordinators, EAP specialists, have apparently been corroborated by analyses of actual cases of derivation and plagiarism, but this corroborration will be discussed in the actual thesis body in Volume 1. Established explanatory variables for L2 writing difficulties seem to be important in explaining the specific plagiarism-related problems of ESL students, and the further (sub-) variables of time and lack of confidence seem to be

134 It might be argued, however, that these variables are closely related to the L2 proficiency variable since with greater proficiency, a student could write more successfully in a time-limited writing task, and since a more proficient student could be expected to have more confidence. But even the most proficient students can "fall to pieces" in a time-limited writing task, and even the most proficient NNS students (and professionals e.g. Spanish and Chinese scientists) can have
additional variables involved in such L2 writing difficulties. In formulating a theoretical model to explain derivation and plagiarism in ESL contexts, the data from these cases will be used in relation to the questionnaire data. Such an approach, utilising a number of data collection and analysis techniques, will hopefully lead to a valid model explaining the dynamic interactions and variables involved in derivative L2 writing contexts.

feelings of inadequacy and linguistic deficiency when it comes to competing and performing in a second language.
4 Appendix D: Post-Fieldwork Data

After the fieldwork phase of the current investigation had terminated, near the end of preparing for the final re-submission of this thesis, certain data became available to the current researcher in the course of his professional teaching and research publications responsibilities. This data includes several texts relating to instances of derivation/plagiarism encountered in an ESP course as well as texts relating to a case of plagiarism which occurred within the strategic studies discourse community. In Appendix D, these texts will be presented (for reader referral and also for substantiation of observations made) further to their discussion in Volume I of the current work (chapters 6 and 7).

4.1 Derivative Student Texts

On the following pages are presented two derivative student texts encountered in an ESP course taught by the current researcher.
THE COMING CRISIS
IN THE PERSIAN GULF

The states of the Persian Gulf are anomalous in many ways, but their most distinctive characteristic in comparison with most other Third World states is their sustained access to very substantial financial revenues derived from the extraction and sale of oil. The eight countries of the Persian Gulf, have 65% of the world's oil and a total population of about 106 million in 1996, and about two-thirds of the Gulf population is two-thirds of the Gulf population is located in Iran.

All the states of Persian Gulf are depending on their revenue from one resource, which is oil. The national budgeting is dependent on the vagaries of the international oil market; as a result, their annual budgets are based on estimates of a commodity market that can be buffeted by events over which they have little or no control.

The public sector is in GCC countries more attractive to nationals and become bloated to the point of becoming a self-defeating obstacle and no longer available as a reliable career prospect for young people graduating in increasing numbers from local educational institutions.

The Arab Gulf states are unique in the world in their reliance on imported labor. For example, if we look at the labor sector in the U.A.E, we will find about 90% of the workforce are foreign labor, and this problem is exacerbated by the overwhelming reliance on expatriate labor.

But this is the problem. Can a problem exacerbate itself?
As a result of the above conditions, burgeoning unemployment of nationals became one of the most intractable and politically dangerous problems in the Persian Gulf in 1990. For example, an independent Kuwaiti economist estimated that the GCC states alone need to create 8 million jobs for their own nationals by the year 2010 in order to accommodate the growing numbers of young people entering the job market.

Revenues in the Gulf states were insufficient to keep pace with the growing cost of entitlements for a burgeoning population. But the increase in population, with no corresponding rise in oil revenues, pushed budgets into deficit and eroded per-capita earnings.

Most of this summary has been copied! Copying is unacceptable unless acknowledged w/ e. marks.

I would rather have a paraphrase of these main ideas than a collection of copied sentences in "perfect" English.
Americans plainly have no divine right to immunity from universal vulnerabilities. And the gyrations of the currency markets betray a deeper American dependence on the customers, rivals and exporters with whom the global economy is shared. In the period between Second World War through the Cold War, the nature of American Internationalism became overwhelmingly military. But in the last two decades of the cold war, the balance started to shift back toward economic engagement. In the last few years, president Clinton played a good role in flourishing the U.S economy and in forging the instruments of global free trade. Free trade boosts imports and exports and leads to a larger economic pie, but it also can weakens government power and erodes the economic authority of the nation-state. The widening inequalities of class and incomes that free trade brings even to advanced economies are starting to spell out a sociopolitical crisis. By abandoning social democracies and committing its economic fate to the caprices of the global markets, the west imperils its own social cohesion and calls into question the legitimacy of its system of governance for many of the governed. In this sense, the most urgent task of American internationalism in the future is the need to join other nations in a coordinated effort to discipline the "Frankenstein monster of global markets."
4.2 Plagiarism in the Strategic Studies Discourse Community Data

On the following pages are presented the data pertaining to a case of plagiarism which surfaced in the strategic studies discourse community. The data includes referee comments (from the referees who evaluated the manuscript which had been submitted for possible publication), extracts from the derivative manuscript itself, extracts from 2 source texts positively identified as being the source of the textual derivation, an internal memorandum summarising an analysis of the referees' findings, the written response of the ECSSR Department of Publications (letter written by current author) to the author-plagiarist, and finally the author-plagiarist's response to the letter.
The paper was supposed to analyze an important subject, the literature on which has been vast in recent years. Instead, the paper lacks the organization, originality and established practices in citing references and writing the bibliography.

1. Organization:

The paper is not topically organized and goes on a selection process of subjects. After the Introduction, (named chapter one!), it covers the International Energy outlook of the U.S. Energy Information Administration (and not Agency as repeated by the author). There is no reason why that outlook was selected since there are numerous studies and projections by others. The paper goes on looking at the different scenarios entertained by EIA. Therefore, chapters two and three are nothing but summary (and in some pages exact wordings) of EIA's publication International Energy Outlook, 1999.

The paper then turns in chapter four to the EU carbon tax issue which has been practically abandoned, and cites figures and information that are not relevant. The author then jumps abruptly to analyze the framework of the oil market (chapter 5) to return to the implications of global environmental issue (the Kyoto protocols) on OPEC where he uses yet another projection with different assumptions by OPEC secretariat. The two reference cases by EIA in chapter two and OPEC's in Chapter six yield distinctly different projections in year 2010 at 93.5 mbd in the EIA and 87.9 mbd in OPEC reference case with no attempt from the author to reconcile the differences.

The paper then jumps to the effect of a local environmental issue (U.S. gasoline standards) on international trade by analyzing (in chapter 7) using some legal jargon, the case brought to WTO by Venezuela and Brazil against the U.S. The paper then turns in chapter eight to general environmental and trade issues pertaining to the work of the
Committee on Trade and Environment CTE of WTO and the issue of export restrictions (not related to environment).

This lack of organization has affected the paper's analytical value. If the author had set the objective in the end of his introduction in page 4 "to examine the link between energy use and emission of carbon dioxide in the context of reduction scenarios such as those proposed under the Kyoto protocols... etc.", then chapters three, four, seven and eight are not directly relevant. Chapters two and six are irreconcilable since they analyze two different models. If the author wanted to put the issue of the link between trade and WTO on one side and the local and global environment on the other (the thrust of chapters seven and eight), then he should have alluded to that earlier, and in this case his main objective set in page 4 would be a subset of the issue of the linkage between International trade and environment (local and global).

2. Originality:

The lack of Organization of the paper might have been overlooked or dealt with accordingly, had the paper exhibited originality and thorough research. But, unfortunately, the paper resorts to outright copying paragraphs or texts from other papers and research and without proper reference or quotation. This is an unaccepted research practice.

I am enclosing herewith pages from two other papers, I was able to compare with the author's paper. The first is a paper by Chokri Ghanem et-al published in OPEC Review in Vol. XXIII No.2, June 1999 which the author listed in his bibliography, and the other is an UNCTAD paper entitled "Implications of the post Uruguay Round International Trading System for Petroleum Exporting Countries and for Trade in Petroleum and Petroleum Products" presented to a conference in Kuwait in October 1997. Most of chapter six of the author's paper is taken from Ghanem, et.al on which I marked to indicate the pages of the author's paper which correspond to the marked paragraphs. Most of chapters seven and eight are also taken from UNCTAD's paper which I marked accordingly. I did not want to belabour the point, but had I had more time, I would have compared EIA's publication with the author's and would have found the same pattern of copying without proper references.
Relying exclusively on one reference in supporting the author's argument is one thing and outright copying of the argument and analysis is quite another. The issue of trade and environment is rich and the literature on which is vast. The author of the paper, (which was quite obvious by the way he listed his publications in the bibliography) has the energy background to make thorough and serious research on an important subject like that.

3. References:

Despite the fact that the paper relies heavily on few references (EIA's (1999) OPEC's (1999) and UNCTAD's (1997). They are only mentioned in the bibliography. Throughout the paper, the definition's information, data and arguments are put without proper references. The tables in the text and at the end of the paper do not show the sources of their data.

Furthermore, the bibliography is not well organized and is written along unaccepted standards. The author lists his publications whether relevant to the material or not. Such listings of references is also not in line with accepted standards.
This paper uses an American study of the effects of the Kyoto Protocol on American energy prices, energy use, and national economy ten to fifteen years in the future, as a model to assess the implications of the Kyoto Protocol on OPEC oil production and export revenues. It also seeks to assess the implications of the new international trade system, represented by the WTO institution, for the international oil trade. On that basis, it puts forward conclusions and recommendations for OPEC's future policies.

Let me first survey the organization of the paper.

Existing Chapter 1 is introductory. It is adequate, except that the author repeatedly refers to unspecified "advocates," "experts," and "computer-based models." Bibliographic references should be included to suggest examples of whom the author actually has in mind. The last full paragraph on page 4 ("The following chapters...") states what the paper is really about. This should be the first paragraph of the Introduction. The overall structure of the paper as a whole should also be outlined here, with a capsule of the argument given.

Existing Chapter 2 is about aspects of the contemporary system of world trade law that could in future affect the framework of the world oil market. As such, it should be integrated with existing Chapter 5, with the exception of most of existing page 7, which really belongs with the Recommendations.

Existing Chapter 3 is about the implications of the Kyoto Protocol for the U.S. The discussion of the Protocol's implications for OPEC, in existing Chapter 6, follows from that. The two chapters should somehow be brought closer together.

Existing Chapter 4 is about the European Union Carbon Tax. This discussion makes more sense when juxtaposed directly with the discussion of the energy/carbon reference case now in existing Chapter 2. Therefore, like existing Chapter 2, it should be integrated with existing Chapter 5.

Existing Chapter 5 belongs together with other material as discussed just above.

Existing Chapter 6 is about the Kyoto Protocol's implications for OPEC. This chapter is satisfactory as it now stands.

Existing Chapter 7, "The U.S.-Venezuelan Gasoline Case," is really about international trade law, not about international economics. In this chapter the author seeks to draw implications from one WTO ruling for the future of the world oil trade as it relates to OPEC concerns. (See remarks at end of this review.)

On the basis of this survey, I suggest a reorganization of this work, along the lines schematized on the next page:
The technical analysis is intense. The author seeks to summarize an immense amount of material, to simplify it for the reader, and then to apply it for his own purposes. This is not in general hard to follow, but it lacks an ease of exposition. If the reorganization that I suggest is adopted, then the manuscript should benefit from a simultaneous re-drafting, to improve continuity and thus also clarity. In general, the paper as it now stands, lacks the sorts of transitions from one section to another, that make for easy reading and contextualization. I wish to stress that a great deal of good work went into this paper, and the quality of the analysis is quite high. The analysis itself just needs to be presented in a more flowing manner, so that the reader does not have to work so hard to ascertain the thought, and can spend more energy on actually digesting it. Also, it would be useful to expand the specific documentary references, whether these concern an observation by the European Chemical Industry Council (p. 23), a decision of a WTO body (p. 44), or some other matter. The author clearly synthesizes a great deal of material and a great deal of knowledge. The actual citation of the material used would add significant authority to his arguments.
It would be useful for each New Chapter to begin with a short summary of what is to be covered in the given chapter, and how it follows from the preceding chapter.

A list of all abbreviations and acronyms used in the paper should be compiled into a master list, with what they signify. (There must be dozens.) This list should be inserted immediately after the Table of Contents. Such a unified list of abbreviations and acronyms would be extremely helpful to the reader, and also it would prevent such confusion as when the author, on page 59 (Table 7), asserts that the abbreviations EIA and IEA both stand for International Energy Agency.

Also it is important to give, as a note to each Table, the specific bibliographic citation of the information compiled and represented in the Table. This comment also applies to Tables presented in the text (pp. 5, 18, 31, 33, 35). I do not doubt the good faith of the author or the validity of the data cited. The citation of sources merely adds significantly to the authority of the argument.

There are some generally minor issues, and not very numerous, of English usage or convention in the text. I mention only three examples:

Page 19

FOR European Security and Cooperation Conference
READ Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe (CSCE)

Page 37, line 6 from bottom; and elsewhere

FOR pollutants  
READ polluters

[A pollutant is a substance that pollutes.]

Throughout:

FOR CO2  
READ CO₂

In conclusion, may I offer one final comment, concerning the recommendations that flow from the author’s discussion of the U.S.-Venezuelan gasoline case. The discussion of this issue differs qualitatively from most of the rest of the paper. It is explicitly about international trade law rather than about international economics or the structure of the world trade system. The author’s purpose here is less to engage in actual analysis, than to inform and to provide backing for a policy recommendation that comes at the end of the paper. I don’t wish to disagree with the author’s argument, but I do think that it should be stated in a less emphatic manner. The reasoning is based on a single case and interpretation of that case. But countervailing arguments are not fully explained. As a result, the reasoning here is a bit one-sided: not necessarily wrong, but incomplete. The Conclusion/Recommendation section of the paper, is a bit too short as it now stands, and consequently appears weak even if it is well-founded. Most of existing page 7 could be put at the end of the paper.
4.2.3 Extracts from the Derivative Manuscript

4.2.3 Extracts from the Derivative Manuscript

b/d and a high of 44 million b/d. For 2020, OPEC production ranges around 50 million b/d with a low of 47 million b/d and a high of 57 million b/d.

Effect of Kyoto on OPEC

As was earlier explained, negotiation at COP3 in December 1997 resulted in the adoption of the Kyoto Protocol, in which Parties in Annex I agreed to lower overall emissions of greenhouse gases (GHG) by 10 to 5.2% below 1990 levels, between 2008 and 2012, with the year 2010 as the average target date. In order for Kyoto Protocol to come into force it should be ratified by at least 55 Countries, incorporating Annex I Parties which account for at least 55% of 1990 Annex I emissions. Talk of tax reform in some parts of Europe suggests a possible eventual combination of employment and environment policies. However, as was explained in Chapter (4), there are few signs of a formal tax proposal in EU to deal with the Kyoto targets. The U.S., on the other hand, has shown that it would have substantial obstacles to overcome if it were to contemplate the imposition of new taxes on any significant scale. This, together with appeal of lower-costs, account for US enthusiasm for emission permit-trading. This would of course place an additional cost on the use of carbon-based fuels in much the same way as would a carbon tax. Yet, the payment would be in line with the trading philosophy (such as the successful sulphur dioxide trading system in the U.S.) and would not lie so visible as a tax.

It is, therefore, highly questionable whether large carbon taxes will be implemented in Annex I countries in an attempt to reach Kyoto emission targets. Nevertheless, it may be useful to analyze scenarios that assume the imposition of carbon taxes.

Given the Kyoto Protocol targets, the signals that are transmitted through the aggregate and relative energy price movements allow a specific assessment of the potential implications for each fossil fuel. This, of course, would be of interest to OPEC Member Countries which alternative production paths and revenues would vary with different scenarios. Furthermore, the issue of trading in permits can be readily addressed in the context of the alternative marginal costs of abatement arising from a domestic tax policy. The degree to which the "flexible mechanisms" are used, can also be considered in light of such scenarios.

The initial scenario, "Kyoto Alone", assumes that each of the three OECD regions will impose a carbon tax that is sufficient to reach their own Kyoto emission targets by 2010. The targets relative to 1990 level of emission are -6.5% in North America, -8.0% in Western Europe and -3.2% in OECD Pacific.

It is assumed that the tax is both revenue- and inflation-neutral, thereby minimizing economic damage from this policy. It is further assumed, in this initial scenario, that oil prices remain at reference case levels, thereby implying that the fall in oil demand resulting from the tax is entirely absorbed by OPEC in the form of lower production and no price increases. This assumption is later

The original Clinton proposal for a Btu tax was criticized, due to concern about large job losses, and even the subsequent diluted tax option of 4.3 cents per gallon on transportation fuels alone was never passed by Congress.
relaxed to explore possible optimum OPEC strategies. It is also assumed that the tax level is imposed immediately, not phased-in, another assumption which is later relaxed.

The following table shows taxes imposed to achieve Kyoto Protocol targets under different scenarios. ($98 per ton of CO2)\textsuperscript{11}.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Region</th>
<th>Kyoto Alone</th>
<th>OECD</th>
<th>Annex I trade</th>
<th>Global Trade</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. America</td>
<td>67.9</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>W. Europe</td>
<td>128.2</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD Pacific</td>
<td>94.3</td>
<td>85.5</td>
<td>39.2</td>
<td>15.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The imposition of the Kyoto Alone level of taxes, in order to reach the appropriate abatement targets, implies a fall in OECD demand of 6.5 mb/d by the year 2010, down to 42.0 mb/d compared with 48.5 mb/d that it would have reached in the reference case (Table 9). This translates into a fall in the call on OPEC oil of close to 7 mb/d by that date, from 39.6 mb/d to only 32.7 mb/d. OPEC annualized revenue losses in this case are close to $23 billion (discounted at 5% per annum). However, given the exceptionally high tax levels in this scenario\textsuperscript{12}, it is highly unlikely that such an outcome would materialize. This is not to say that strong downward pressure on oil demand will not emerge. Regulatory measures may eventually be the key policy tool for achieving abatement targets. Nevertheless, to the extent that a price signal is to be used to achieve Kyoto emission reduction, it is clear from the above scenario that a regional tax, such as the EU Carbon Tax, is unlikely to be the prime route.

The lower cost of abatement in North America is exploited in the second scenario, Kyoto OECD where it is assumed that trade in permits is possible, but only among the three OECD regions. This scenario would generate the same aggregate emission reduction. A tax of just over $85/t CO2 would be sufficient to achieve the target abatement. At this level, North America undertakes more abatement than is actually required of it from the Kyoto Protocol, while Western Europe reduces emission by less than the target. OECD Pacific emits only marginally more than in the previous scenario. These discrepancies are the basis for the trade in permits, with North America the seller to Western Europe of permits for over 100 mt of carbon. This is, indeed inconsistent prospect, given the contrary negotiation positions of these regions, where North America is apparently the most keen to purchase permits. This is a key area for future research as to define whether substantial trading in emission is a feasible mechanism in the longer term.

This significant amount of potential trade within the OECD has no major additional implications for OPEC. By 2010, annualized revenue losses are close to the $23 bn arising from Kyoto Alone scenario with no trade. The loss of oil

\textsuperscript{11} Notice that the tax per ton of carbon has to be multiplied by a factor of approximately 3.4. For example, when the tax per ton of CO2 is $85.5, the tax per ton of carbon would be about $290.

\textsuperscript{12} The order of magnitude of these taxes is approximately equivalent to current tax levels on the composite barrel in OECD regions.
A405

The OECD scenario is also not likely to materialize, because of both the conflict with national and regional positions. The potential for trade between all Annex I Parties, including the Former Soviet Union (FSU) and Eastern Europe (EE), seems to be the most likely one. Both the FSU and Eastern Europe are involved in abatement efforts, and this results in more trade in permits. Once full Annex I trade is allowed, the cost imposed upon carbon falls even further down to just below $40/t CO2. In this scenario, North America purchases of permits still account for less than 50% of its total commitment, while Western Europe uses trading to satisfy close to 70% of its abatement target. Thus the position of the West European countries of insisting on limiting the extent to which flexible mechanisms should be used to satisfy commitments (through capping), is contrary to their economic interests. This is the region that would have the greatest demand for permits relative to its own targets.

With full Annex I trade, OPEC annualized revenue losses are down to $14bn (discounted at 5% per annum), compared with $23bn with no trade. OECD oil demand falls by only 2.3 mb/d, with a slightly smaller fall of 1.5 rnb/d coming from the FSU/EE. Thus, allowing trade in carbon emission has a less negative impact upon OPEC export revenue.

The issue of capping the use of flexible mechanisms, therefore, has a direct bearing on OPEC economic interests. Setting a limit of 50% in the context of the previous full Annex I trade scenario would only affect Western Europe, since this would limit its permit purchase to 50% instead of 70%. The other two OECD regions would in any case be expected to purchase less than this limit. With such a cap, OPEC losses would be to the order of $1bn per year greater than if full trade is allowed. A cap of 30% increases the additional losses to around $2bn annually. Reducing the limit to 10% increases the additional losses to around $6bn per annum.

The final scenario is allowing full Global Trade to achieve the Annex I targets laid down in the Kyoto Protocol. Although full emission trading is not foreseen in the Kyoto Protocol, the CDM can be seen as the means of involving developing countries in some of the carbon trade. This scenario is therefore intended to provide a qualitative assessment of the possible implications for OPEC of this mechanism.

The tax is now only $15/t CO2, and produces the lowest OPEC revenue losses of all scenarios, down to under $12bn per annum, or about half of the losses with no trade. In this scenario, 45% of the reduction in emissions by 2010, compared with the reference case, stem from non-Annex I countries. Consequently, although Annex I oil demand is only 1.8 mb/d lower by 2010, this is matched by a further fall of 1.7 mb/d from non-Annex I countries.

These scenarios indicate that trading reduces the marginal cost of abatement by allowing access to cheaper abatement options that are not available domestically. The result is a switch in emphasis away from abatement in the OECD to either the FSU and Eastern Europe, or with mechanisms such as the CDM, to reduce emission in developing countries. This change in regional emphasis also brings with it a broad shift in attention towards reduced
non-OPEC in this strategy represents another aspect of market management as an option for limiting the damage from climate change mitigation measures. While an OPEC strategy to sustain firm prices results in free-rider gains for non-OPEC oil exporters, softer prices result in revenue losses for non-OPEC exporters. A weak oil price, caused by carbon tax measures, would result in revenue losses for non-OPEC oil exporters by 39%, compared with a fall of 25% for OPEC. Therefore, non-OPEC oil exporters would have an incentive to cooperate with OPEC in production restraint.

In the above firm price scenario, leading to OPEC retaining its cumulative revenue, OPEC production by 2010 is down by over 10 mb/d (from 39.6 mb/d to 29.1 mb/d) compared with the reference case. If we now assume that both FSU and developing country oil exporters were to become part of the oil price maintenance strategy, then OPEC oil production could grow swifter and still be consistent with the firm oil price. OPEC production is now only 18% below reference case levels by 2010, while FSU + DC production is about 9% lower. This joint maintenance of a firm oil price reduces OPEC losses to just $3 bn annually while the non-OPEC group has higher revenue than the base case, to the order of $1 bn per annum. This qualitative result could of course be affected by alternative assumptions concerning the relative burden of restraint by OPEC and non-OPEC and the minimum acceptable output from OPEC in the short-to-medium term. Nevertheless, the idea of joint production restraint could lend some plausibility to the idea of using market management to defend oil export revenue that would otherwise be eroded by climate change mitigation policies.

Finally, the assumption of a swift introduction of taxes is a useful way of distinguishing the various long term properties of the energy market and therefore addressing the effect of trading and oil price movements. However, replacing this assumption by the one where the tax is phased in is not likely to have a substantial bearing upon the effects on the market by 2010, since the Kyoto targets would still be the same.

Nevertheless, the assumption that taxes are introduced in one lump sum is not realistic, given the expected necessary size of tax identified above. On the other hand, if taxes are phased in they would have to be higher, since they would have fewer years to have an impact in time for the Kyoto period. For example, if the tax is phased in individually in each OECD region over the period 1999-2010 it would have to be between 60 and 100% higher by 2010 than in the Kyoto Alone scenario with full implementation by 1999. This would lead to further question the degree to which taxation will be applied, as well as to underline the probable importance of flexible mechanisms in achieving Kyoto targets.

The more likely gradual introduction of price signals to achieve the targets, raises the question of what the impacts of climate change mitigation measures beyond 2010 will be. International negotiations have not yet addressed the years after 2008-12. It is therefore not easy to speculate on future emission targets.

The major conclusion which could be drawn from OPEC scenarios suggests that abatement targets of GHG emission laid down in the Kyoto Protocol is likely to cause substantial oil export revenue losses for OPEC
Member Countries. Although the impact of allowing trade in emission permits reduces the severity of these losses, they remain high. Joint management of relatively high oil price with non-OPEC oil exporting countries offers the most feasible route to mitigating the severity of losses incurred, together with a full global trading system that is unrestricted by capping.

Self-achievement of Energy Industry

Before we close this chapter, it may be useful to shed some light on the most important achievements that the energy industries have made over the past two decades. The following are examples of such achievements which introduced significant improvements in operating efficiencies and significantly reduced environmental impacts:

- **Sulfur dioxide emissions in the United States** have declined by nearly one-third, due in part to the shift in lower-sulfur fuels and to the installation of stack gas scrubbers. Emissions have declined in spite of the fact that utility coal use more than doubled during the same period (the growth consisting mostly of low-sulfur Western coal).

- **Natural gas transmissions and distribution costs** have declined (in real terms) in recent years, as a consequence of increased competition in the wake of deregulation and unbundling of services. Improved route planning and scheduling, computerization of meter-reading and billing, horizontal boring technology and other enhancements have contributed to this decline.

- **Coal transportation costs** have likewise declined, thanks to more powerful locomotives, railcars of lighter weight and greater capacity, more efficient loading and unloading equipment, additional sidings, double-tracking and other improvements initiated by the railroads, in addition to the economics of longer average transport distances from Western mines.

- **Oil pipeline spills** have been reduced dramatically. In Europe, the number of annual pipeline spills has declined an average 5% per annum over the past 23 years, while the volume spilled has declined at 3.5% per annum. This reduction has been achieved through improvements in pipeline design standards, introduction of advanced control systems and leak detection methods, and increased use of intelligence pig inspections.

- **Refineries** have learned to recover waste heat and otherwise reduce fuel consumption. For example, European refiners reduced specific fuel consumption between 1980 and 1990 even while they were moving to a lighter product slate and meeting new ‘greener’ product standards. The enhancements in product quality almost exactly offset the fuel efficiencies achieved during this period.

To conclude this chapter, it is quite obvious that the burden and costs of cleaner environment should be shared by all pollutants. Developing countries oil exporters which depend on a single depleting commodity to generate the bulk of their revenue, and which are not among the heavy pollutants, should receive a special treatment. In recognition of the difficulties that environmental policies may create for oil exporting countries, the FCCC explicitly states the need to take account of the interests of economies that are "highly dependant on the income generated by the production, processing and export... of fossil fuels."
As a preventive measure, the Act requires that all new oil tankers and ongoing barges have double hulls to help prevent oil spills. OPA phases out the use of existing single-hull tankers so that all tankers use in US waters must have double hulls in 20 years starting 1995. The Act also reinforces the federal authority to ensure the immediate clean-up of oil spills.

The OPA impact on the oil industry is multiple, but the most important of which are the costs associated with procurement of double-hull tankers and insurance coverage since OPA made insurance of tankers travelling in US waters a heavy financial burden. Retrofitting the existing single-hull tankers is uneconomical because it costs nearly 40% of the tanker price and there is a loss of 10-12% of the cargo capacity in retrofitted vessel.

The Clean Air Act (CAA) was enacted in 1970 and basically amended in 1990. Among other things, the Act establishes ambient standards for specific air pollutants such as carbon dioxide (CO2). Among other topics, the CAA introduced new requirements for motor fuels and emissions of toxic air pollutants which represent significant impacts on the refining industry activities. The CAA rules require that, from 1995 to 1998, only gasoline of a specified cleanliness be sold in areas of high pollution, and that gasoline sold in the rest of the US cause no greater air pollution as compared with gasoline sold in 1990.

In implementing the CAA provisions, the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) adopted, in December 1993, a final rule entitled "Regulation of Fuels and Fuel Additives: Standards for Reformulated and Conventional Gasoline".

The rule applies to refiners, blenders and importers of gasoline. It requires that certain chemical characteristics of their gasoline conform, on an annual average basis, with defined levels. Some of these levels are fixed by the gasoline rule; others are expressed as "non-degradation requirements". Under the last rule, domestic refiner must maintain, on an annual average basis, the relevant characteristics at levels no worse than its "individual baseline", which is the annual average achieved by the refiner in 1990. For the establishment of the baseline, individual refiners must show evidence of the quality of gasoline produced or shipped in 1990 ("Method 1"). If the evidence in this respect is not complete, they must use data on the quality of blendstock produced in 1990 ("Method 2"). Failing to use Method 2, use data on quality post-1990 gasoline blendstock or gasoline ("Method 3").

Importers were also required to employ an individual baseline using Method 1 data only which was unlikely for any importer. If they could not, they were not allowed to use either of the other two methods. Instead, they had to use a statutory baseline which the US claims was derived from the average characteristics of all gasoline consumed in the U.S. in 1990 (which included the much higher quality reformulated gasoline sold in California).

Before the EPA proclaimed these rules, and as a result of public hearings and views from importers, it set a modification for importers in May 1994, but Congress denied the budget or administering it.

In their claim submitted to WTO Dispute Settlement Body, Venezuela and Brazil argued that, by imposing less favorable standards on Venezuelan gasoline (as compared with those applied to domestic products and gasoline imported from certain countries) the regulation violated the GATT Article III
(national treatment) and Article I (MFN treatment), as well as Articles 2.1, 2.2 and 12 of the WTO Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade. Venezuela also claimed that apart from any technical breach of trade rules, the gasoline rule has nullified and impaired its GATT benefits under article XXIII:1(b).

The U.S. argued that the gasoline rule could be justified under the exceptions in Article XX, paragraph (b), (d) and (g), and did not come within the scope of Article 2 of the TBT Agreement. The European Union and Norway made submission to the Panel as interested third parties.

Venezuela also expressed concern that application of the gasoline rule could justify the fears of many countries about the use of purported environmental measures as disguised restrictions on international trade. It stressed that it was not seeking to avoid legitimate regulations for environmental protection, but merely wanted its gasoline to be subject to the same rules as gasoline produced in the U.S. and third countries.

The WTO Dispute Settlement Body, at a special meeting on 10 April 1995, agreed to establish a dispute settlement panel to examine the complaints of Venezuela and Brazil. The Panel held that imported and domestic gasoline were like products; it also held that under the differing baseline establishment methods, imported gasoline was effectively accorded less favorable treatment than domestic gasoline, in violation of Article III:4. The Panel rejected the U.S' argument that the requirements of Article III:4 were met because imported gasoline was treated similarly to gasoline from similarly situated domestic parties. Such an interpretation, it said, would be contrary to the ordinary meaning of the Article and would mean that imported and domestic goods could no longer be assured of equal treatment on the objective basis of their likeness as products, but rather would suffer from highly subjective and variable treatment according to extraneous factors. This, the Panel said, would create great instability and uncertainty in the conditions of the competition as between domestic and imported goods in a manner fundamentally inconsistent with the object and purposes of Article III of the GATT.

The Panel also rejected the U.S. argument that the statutory baseline criteria it applied to imports resulted in treatment "on the whole" no less favorable than that accorded to domestic gasoline under individual baselines. It stated that this view of "equivalence" amounted to accepting that less favorable treatment in one instance could be offset by correspondingly more favorable treatment in other instances—a balancing was not supportable in Article III:4.

Dealing with the U.S. agreements with respect to the Article XX exceptions, the Panel stated that in order to justify a departure from GATT obligations on the ground that a measure was necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health Article XX(b) three requirements had to be satisfied:

1. The measure is necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health.
2. The measure is discriminatory.
3. The measure is not applied in a manner manifestly excessive.

Venezuela did not make any claim on the basis of Article 12 of the TBT Agreement (Special and Differential Treatment of Developing Countries Members), thus rejecting the notion that it was seeking privileges for its gasoline. It stated that while it was not asking for the Panel to rule under Article 12, it did point out that the discriminatory treatment was particularly objectionable in the light of that provision.
The policy in respect of measures for which the exception was invoked fell within the range of policies designed for protecting human, animal or plant life or health;

- The inconsistent measures for which the exception was being invoked were necessary to fulfill the policy objective; and
- The measures were applied to conformity with the requirements of the introductory clause of Article XX.

The Panel agreed that a policy to reduce air pollution fell within the range excepted measures for protection of health. Also, it held that it was not the necessity of the policy goal that was in issue, but rather the necessity of the particular measure for achieving that goal—that is, whether it was necessary that imported gasoline be effectively denied the favorable sales conditions afforded by an individual baseline tied to the producer of the product.

Examining the various US arguments about the difficulties in applying the same or equivalent methodologies to foreign refineries and products, the Panel found that the US had not demonstrated that this could not be done through the use of various methods available to it. The Panel concluded that the US had not met the requirement of showing that the concerns raised by it justified a violation of Article III:4. It held also that the US had not demonstrated that there were no other measures, consistent or less inconsistent with Article III:4, that were reasonably available to it to enforce compliance with foreign refiner baselines or importer baselines based on them. The Panel found that the imposition of penalties on importers was a sufficiently available mechanism for enforcement of standards.

As for the US argument under Article XX(d)—that its differing treatment was needed in order to secure compliance with its laws and regulations not inconsistent with GATT—the Panel found that discrimination between imported and domestic gasoline did not secure compliance with the US baseline system. These methods were not an enforcement mechanism, but simply rules to determine individual baselines. As such, they were not covered by Article XX(d).

Regarding a possible justification based on the conservation of exhaustible natural resources (Article XX(g))16, the Panel noted that this provision was originally intended to cover exports of exhaustible goods such as oil and coal, and its expansion to cover "conditions" could not be justified. The Panel agreed that clean air was a "resource" with a "conditions" could not be justified. The Panel agreed that clean air was a "resource" with a value and could be depleted. That this depleted resource was defined with respect to its qualities was not decisive for the Panel, and its renewability did not constitute an objection. A policy to conserve clean air was hence a policy to conserve natural resource. The Panel found, however, that while the U.S. was free to regulate air

16 Article XX(g) and its introductory clause read as follows: Subject to the requirement that such measures are not applied in a manner which would constitute a means of arbitrary or unjustifiable discrimination between countries where the same conditions prevail, or a disguised restriction on international trade, nothing in the agreement shall be construed to prevent the adoption or enforcement by any contracting party of measures... (g) Relating to the conservation of exhaustible natural resources if such measures are made effective in conjunction with restrictions on domestic production or consumption.
quality, the treatment of chemically identical products had no direct connection with this objective.

In its concluding remarks, the Panel observed that it was not its task to examine generally the desirability or necessity of the environmental objectives of the Clean Air Act or the gasoline rule. Under the GATT, WTO Members were free to set their own environmental objectives, but were bound to achieve these through measures that were GATT-consistent, especially with respect to the relative treatment of the domestic and imported products.

In sum, the Panel concluded that the baseline establishment methods in the U.S. gasoline rule were inconsistent with Article III:4 of the GATT and could not be justified by any of the Article XX exceptions. It recommended that the Dispute Settlement Body request the U.S. to bring its rules into conformity with its GATT obligations.

On 20 February 1996 the U.S. submitted an appeal to the Appellate Body of the WTO. On 22 April 1996, the Appellate Body issued its report on the interpretation of GATT Article XX(g), but leaving the Panel's conclusions intact. The Appellate Report, together with the Panel Report as modified, was adopted by the Dispute Settlement Body on 20 May 1996, including the recommendation that the dispute Settlement Body request the U.S. to bring its baseline establishment rules into conformity with its GATT obligations.

Some additional clarifications about how Article XX(g) should be interpreted were offered by the Appellate Body. In its view, the clause "if made effective in conjunction with restrictions on domestic production or consumption" does not require identical treatment of domestic and imported products. In the case in question, in order to invoke Article XX(g), it was essential to prove that restrictions on the "cleanliness" of imported gasoline were established in the light of corresponding measures on domestic production. The Appellate Body also clarified that the same clause in Article XX(g) is not intended to establish an empirical "effects test". In other words, once the US had proved that the measures concerned imposed restrictions in respect to both imported and domestically produced gasoline, it did not have to prove a casual link between the measures and the conservation of clean air.

The Appellate Body stressed, however, that to rely on the exception of Article XX(g), it was necessary to meet the specific requirements of that paragraph, as well as the requirements imposed by opening clauses of Article XX. This means that the measures falling within the exceptions in Article XX must be applied reasonably, with due regard to both the legal duties of the party claiming the exception and the legal rights of the other parties concerned.

The Appellate Body reconfirmed that Article XX contains provisions designed to permit important state interests—including the protection of human health and the conservation of exhaustible natural resources (such as clean air)—to be protected. WTO Members have the autonomy to determine their own environmental policies and objectives, and to implement the corresponding legislation. With respect to WTO, that autonomy is limited only by the need to respect the rules of the GATT and associated agreements.

The findings of the WTO, as modified by the Appellate Body, may give rise to additional difficulties for oil-exporting countries. First, it was reconfirmed that WTO Members are free to set their own environmental objectives, and that the
Within WTO an open-end Committee on Trade and Environment (CTE) was established by a Ministerial Decision issued at Marrakech Conference in April 1994. The main target of this decision is to avoid contradictions between MEAs and MTS in the context of promoting sustainable development.

The decision entrusted the CTE with two specific functions: (1) to identify the relationship between trade and environmental measures in order to promote sustainable development, and (2) to make recommendations on whether any modifications to the MTS are required. In addition, the decision sets out a number of tasks for the CTE to address and provide a report to the first biennial meeting of the Ministerial Conference. At that conference (held in Singapore in December 1996), the report of the CTE was adopted, together with a Ministerial Declaration which included a reference to trade and the environment. The Declaration called upon CTE to continue its work on all items in its agenda. Therefore, it was decided to roll over the work program to the post-Singapore period, drawing on the work undertaken by that date.

The CTE Singapore Report covered a number of topics that are relevant for oil-exporting countries. The Report, together with further follow up work of the CTE, reflect the following views that were subject to consensus by the CTE members:

(1) The competence of MTS was limited to trade policies and trade-related aspects of environmental policies.

(2) WTO members were committed not to introduce WTO-inconsistent or protectionist trade restrictions or countervailing measures to offset adverse effects of environmental policies.

Under this item, a WTO member could challenge a decision by an oil exporter to set up a ceiling on oil production in order to sustain oil price at such a high level as to maintain oil revenue if oil export volumes were reduced pursuant to environmental taxes.

This is one of the scenarios that were discussed in Chapter (6), and we will soon present the argument which an oil exporter could use to defeat such challenge.

(3) Governments had the right to establish their national environmental standards in accordance with their needs and priorities. Moreover, they are not obliged to relax their existing national environmental standards or enforcement in order to promote their trade. However, since discussions of the Conference of the Parties to the FCCC have not yet specifically authorized the use of trade measures to achieve environmental targets, it is too early to judge whether national governments would use such measures to meet their emission targets as mandated by Kyoto Protocol.

This is also a principle that was confirmed by the Appellate Body in the US-Venezuelan case discussed in Chapter (7), and we will soon explain how an oil exporter could use it to support his argument.

(4) On the issue of relationship between MEAs and MTS, the CTE members agree that no need for the time being to modify WTO provisions in order to provide increased accommodation in this area. The WTO provisions already provide broad scope for trade measures to be applied pursuant to MEAs in a WTO-consistent manner.
The CTE endorsed multilateral solutions as the best and most effective way to address global and transboundary environmental problems. It pointed to clear complementarity that existed between this approach and that of WTO. Trade restrictions were not the only nor necessarily the most effective policy to use in MEAs. In fact, the CTE stresses that international trade and environmental policies are and should be made mutually supportive for the promotion of sustainable development.

This view has been rephrased in a recent detailed report issued by WTO in 8 October 1999, the summary of which is annexed to this study.

(5) Views CTE members differed as to whether GATT Article XX did or did not permit a member to impose unilateral trade restrictions to protect environment outside its jurisdiction or territory.

(6) As regards the relationship between the MTS and taxes and charges for environmental purposes, measures such as border tax adjustment to energy products were discussed. The WTO allows border tax adjustment, since taxes can affect the competitiveness of domestically produced goods relative to products from other countries. Product tax can be levied on imported products (at the same rate as on domestic like products), whereas an exemption or remission of taxes can be granted for products to be exported. Key questions that arise in the context of the trade and environment debate relate to the treatment of "like" and "competing" products, and the extent to which border tax adjustments should be allowed. With regard to the first point, under the WTO rules (Article III:2, first paragraph), countries cannot impose a higher tax on an imported product than on a domestic like product. However, different tax rates may be applied to products which are not "like" products. With regard to whether border tax adjustments can apply to taxes on inputs — WTO rules allow the adjustment of a specific tax if the taxed input is physically incorporated in the product in question (e.g. carbon content of fuels). A common interpretation of the WTO rules is that taxes on non-incorporated inputs (e.g. carbon-dioxide emissions during production), as well as taxes on production processes, are generally not eligible for adjustment.

So far, this particular matter has not had a high profile in the CTE discussions. Yet, there are concrete proposals by a number of WTO Members that favor the application of this type of tax — not only to products (currently permitted, provided that it is not discriminatory) but also to those production processes in which fossil energy is used as an input. The CTE has concluded that further work is needed in this issue.

(7) The CTE also discussed how the removal of trade restrictions and distortions such as high tariffs, tariff escalation, non-tariff measures, export restrictions and subsidies could benefit both MTS and environment.

Until now, CTE discussions have centered on the agriculture sector, but a proposal on the energy sector has also been tabled.

In what follows, we provide the argument against those who may challenge the legitimate right of oil-exporting countries to regulate and conserve oil which is a depleting natural resource:
Although GATT rules eliminate quantitative restrictions on both exports and imports, yet, GATT provides general exceptions to these rules. One of such general exceptions is applicable to oil and gas, though with some differences of opinions. As Article XX(g) of 1994 GATT states: nothing in this Agreement shall be construed to prevent the adoption or enforcement by any contracting party of measures relating to the conservation of exhaustible natural resources if such measures are effective in conjunction with restrictions on domestic production or consumption.

Some analysts are of the view that since oil exporters provide oil to domestic industry at prices lower than those prevailing on the world market (subsidized), then the second condition of the Article which requires restrictions being extended to domestic consumption is not met.

However, in support of what could be an oil exporter views, we suggest the following argument:

(1) WTO members who have effective commercial weight have successfully been able to push through their own interpretation of GATT provisions. The GATT rules are open to conflicting interpretations, and therefore, are subject to manipulation. We strongly recommend that oil exporters establish, within OPEC Secretariat or elsewhere, a permanent core group of high level experts who are capable of thoroughly studying in depth the complex issues of GATT and Oil. The group will study the overall as well as case by case problems that are expected to arise under WTO and provide the oil exporters negotiators and decision-makers with proper guidelines and recommendations to benefit from during WTO negotiation.

(2) As was earlier explained, major oil exporters, mainly the Gulf plus Venezuela, are expected to supply nearly two thirds of world oil trade by 2020. Therefore, they should try to create an oil core group within WTO members. Not necessary under a formal institution, the Core senior experts and officials could exchange experiences and form a collective and coordinated position during WTO negotiation, including those within CTE.

(3) In trying to push the positive interpretation of GATT Article XX(g), one may benefit from the dispute settlement case of the Venezuelan gasoline exports to the United States. A WTO member who adopts measures to conserve his natural resource is not obliged to prove by empirical test that these measures are capable of achieving the conservation goal. No causality test is required in such cases. Therefore, an oil exporter is only required to state that he sets a production ceiling in times of unusually low prices in order to avoid wasting oil resources and preserve a reasonable rate of oil depletion. With this statement the first condition of Article XX(g), which is the conservation goal, will be fulfilled.

(4) The fact that such ceiling decision is taken after consultation with other oil exporters (members or non-members of OPEC) does not make any difference. Since OPEC decisions should be unanimous, OPEC is only a consultation forum and the decision to set a ceiling on oil production by any member is completely determined by his national sovereignty over natural resources which is an indisputable right.
4.2.4 Source Text 1: Extracts from the OPEC Review Paper

The impact of OPEC's production targets and the impact of non-OPEC producers on the global oil market is a topic of considerable debate. The impact of OPEC's production targets and the impact of non-OPEC producers on the global oil market is a topic of considerable debate. The impact of OPEC's production targets and the impact of non-OPEC producers on the global oil market is a topic of considerable debate.

Ahmed

and Gary Bierman

Shoki Chineni, Rezki Lounas

Energy economics and related issues

on OPEC

The Impact of OPEC on the World Economy
IMPLICATIONS OF THE POST-URUGUAY ROUND INTERNATIONAL TRADING SYSTEM FOR PETROLEUM-EXPORTING COUNTRIES AND FOR INTERNATIONAL TRADE IN PETROLEUM AND PETROLEUM PRODUCTS

The descriptions and classification of countries and territories in this study and the arrangement of the material do not imply the expression of any opinion whatsoever on the part of the Secretariat of the United Nations concerning the legal status of any country, territory, city or area, or of its authorities, or concerning the delimitation of its frontiers or boundaries, or regarding its economic system or degree of development.
2.2 Mexico and others versus the United States: The Superfund case

93. In October 1986, the United States Superfund Amendments and Reauthorization Act of 1986, known as the Superfund Act, was enacted. It reauthorized a programme to clean up hazardous waste sites and address public health problems caused by hazardous waste. Among various fiscal measures, the Act imposed a tax on petroleum that was higher for imported products than for domestic ones. It also imposed a tax on certain chemicals and a tax on certain imported substances produced or manufactured from the taxable chemicals. The latter tax is relevant for the discussion of border tax adjustment.

94. Canada, the EEC and Mexico took the case to the dispute settlement system of the GATT, with Australia, Indonesia, Kuwait, Malaysia, Nigeria and Norway intervening as interested third parties. A Panel was created, and it issued its report in June 1987. It concluded that the tax on petroleum was inconsistent with United States national treatment obligations under Article III:2 (first sentence) of the GATT. On the issue of border tax adjustment, the Panel noted that tax adjustment rules distinguish between taxes on products and taxes not directly levied on products; in other words, they do not distinguish between taxes with different policy purposes. The Panel therefore concluded that since the tax on chemicals was a tax directly imposed on products, it was eligible for border tax adjustment, despite the fact that it was designed to finance environmental programmes benefiting only United States producers. However, the Panel found against the United States with respect to another provision in the Superfund legislation, which prescribed a penalty tax in the event that importers failed to provide the required information about the chemical inputs of certain imported substances subject to the Superfund tax. The Panel held that the basis for imposition of this penalty was such that it would not conform to GATT national treatment obligations.

95. The Superfund tax was amended in December 1989 in compliance with the recommendations of the Panel, being brought to a uniform rate for both domestic and imported petroleum products.

2.3 United States: Standards for reformulated and conventional gasoline

96. In December 1993, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) adopted a final rule entitled "Regulation of Fuels and Fuel Additives: Standards for Reformulated and Conventional Gasoline". This regulation implements certain provisions of the United States Clean Air Act requiring that, from 1995 to 1999, only gasoline of a specified cleanliness be sold in areas of high air pollution, and that gasoline sold in the rest of the United States cause no greater air pollution as compared with gasoline sold in 1990.

97. The rule applies to refiners, blenders and importers of gasoline. It requires that certain chemical characteristics of their gasoline conform, on an annual average basis, with defined levels. Some of these levels are fixed by the gasoline rule; others are expressed as "non-degradation requirements", under which each domestic refiner must maintain, on an annual basis:

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31 BISD, 38/160 (17 June 1987).


average basis, the relevant characteristics at levels no worse than its "individual baseline", which is the annual average achieved by the refiner in 1990. For the establishment of the baseline, individual refiners must show evidence of the quality of gasoline produced or shipped in 1990 ("Method 1"); if the evidence in this respect is not complete, they must use data on the quality of blendstock produced in 1990 ("Method 2") or, failing that, use data on quality of post-1990 gasoline blendstock or gasoline ("Method 3").

98. Importers were also required to employ an individual baseline using Method 1 data only (all disputants agreed this was unlikely for any importer). If they could not, they were not allowed to use either of the other two methods; instead, they had to use a statutory baseline which the United States claims was derived from the average characteristics of all gasoline consumed in the United States in 1990 (which included the much higher quality reformulated gasoline sold in California). Before the EPA proclaimed these rules, and as a result of public hearings and views from importers, it set a modification for importers in May 1994, but Congress denied the budget for administering it.

99. According to Venezuela and Brazil, by imposing less favorable standards on Venezuelan gasoline (as compared with those applied to domestic products and gasoline imported from certain countries) the regulation violated GATT Articles III (national treatment) and I (MFN treatment), as well as Articles 2.1, 2.2 and 12 of the WTO Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade. Venezuela also claimed that, apart from any technical breach of trade rules, the gasoline rule had nullified and impaired its GATT benefits under Article XXIII:1(b). The United States argued that the gasoline rule could be justified under the exceptions in Article XX, paragraphs (b), (d) and (g), and did not come within the scope of Article 2 of the TBT Agreement. The European Union and Norway made submissions to the Panel as interested third parties.

100. Venezuela also expressed concern that application of the gasoline rule could justify the fears of many countries about the use of purported environmental measures as disguised restrictions on international trade. It stressed that it was not seeking to avoid legitimate regulations for environmental protection, but merely wanted its gasoline to be subject to the same rules as gasoline produced in the United States and third countries.

101. The WTO Dispute Settlement Body, at a special meeting on 10 April 1995, agreed to establish a dispute settlement panel to examine the complaints of Venezuela and Brazil. The Panel held that imported and domestic gasoline were like products; it also held that under the differing baseline establishment methods, imported gasoline was effectively accorded less favorable treatment than domestic gasoline, in violation of Article III:4. The Panel rejected the United States' argument that the requirements of Article III:4 were met because imported gasoline was treated similarly to gasoline from similarly situated domestic parties. Such an interpretation, it said, would be contrary to the ordinary meaning of the Article and would
mean that imported and domestic goods could no longer be assured of equal treatment on the objective basis of their likeness as products, but rather would suffer from "highly subjective and variable treatment" according to extraneous factors. This, the Panel said, would create great instability and uncertainty in the conditions of competition as between domestic and imported goods in a manner fundamentally inconsistent with the object and purposes of Article III of the GATT.

102. The Panel also rejected the United States' argument that the statutory baseline criteria it applied to imports resulted in treatment "on the whole" no less favourable than that accorded to domestic gasoline under individual baselines. It stated that this view of "equivalence" amounted to accepting that less favourable treatment in one instance could be offset by correspondingly more favourable treatment in another instance -- a balancing that was not supportable under Article III:4.

103. Dealing with the United States' arguments with respect to the Article XX exceptions, the Panel stated that in order to justify a departure from GATT obligations on the ground that a measure was necessary to protect human, animal or plant life or health Article XX (b) three requirements had to be satisfied:

- The policy in respect of measures for which the exception was invoked fell within the range of policies designed for protecting human, animal or plant life or health;
- The inconsistent measures for which the exception was being invoked were necessary to fulfil the policy objective; and
- The measures were applied in conformity with the requirements of the introductory clause of Article XX.

104. The Panel agreed that a policy to reduce air pollution fell within the range of excepted measures for protection of health. Also, it held that it was not the necessity of the policy goal that was in issue, but rather the necessity of the particular measure for achieving that goal -- that is, whether it was necessary that imported gasoline be effectively denied the favourable sales conditions afforded by an individual baseline tied to the producer of a product.

105. Examining the various United States arguments about the difficulties in applying the same or equivalent methodologies to foreign refineries and products, the Panel found that the United States had not demonstrated that this could not be done through the use of various methods available to it. The Panel concluded that the United States had not met the requirement of showing that the concerns raised by it justified a violation of Article III:4. It held also that the United States had not demonstrated that there were no other measures, consistent or less inconsistent with Article III:4, that were reasonably available to it to enforce compliance with foreign refiner baselines or importer baselines based on them. The Panel found that the imposition of penalties on importers was a sufficiently available mechanism for enforcement of standards.

106. As for the United States' argument under Article XX(d) -- that its differing treatment was needed in order to secure compliance with its laws and regulations not inconsistent with GATT -- the Panel found that discrimination between imported and domestic gasoline did not
secure compliance with the United States' baseline system. These methods were not an enforcement mechanism, but simply rules to determine individual baselines. As such, they were not covered by Article XX (d).

107. Regarding a possible justification based on the conservation of exhaustible natural resources (Article XX (g)), the Panel noted that this provision was originally intended to cover exports of exhaustible goods such as petroleum and coal, and its expansion to cover "conditions" could not be justified. The Panel agreed that clean air was a "resource" with a value and could be depleted. That this depleted resource was defined with respect to its qualities was not decisive for the Panel, and its renewability did not constitute an objection. A policy to conserve clean air was hence a policy to conserve a natural resource. The Panel found, however, that while the United States was free to regulate air quality, the treatment of chemically identical products had no direct connection with this objective.

108. In its concluding remarks, the Panel observed that it was not its task to examine generally the desirability or necessity of the environmental objectives of the Clean Air Act or the gasoline rule. Under the GATT, WTO Members were free to set their own environmental objectives, but were bound to achieve these through measures that were GATT-consistent, especially with respect to the relative treatment of domestic and imported products. In sum, the Panel concluded that the baseline establishment methods in the United States gasoline rule were inconsistent with Article III:4 of the GATT and could not be justified by any of the Article XX exceptions. It recommended that the Dispute Settlement Body request the United States to bring its rules into conformity with its GATT obligations.

109. On 20 February 1996 the United States submitted an appeal to the Appellate Body of the WTO. On 22 April 1996, the Appellate Body issued its report (WT/DS2/AB/R), modifying the Panel Report on the interpretation of GATT Article XX (g), but leaving the Panel's conclusions intact. The Appellate Report, together with the Panel Report as modified, was adopted by the Dispute Settlement Body on 20 May 1996, including the recommendation that the Dispute Settlement Body request the United States to bring its baseline establishment rules into conformity with its GATT obligations.

110. Some additional clarifications about how Article XX (g) should be interpreted were offered by the Appellate Body. In its view, the clause "if made effective in conjunction with restrictions on domestic production or consumption" does not require identical treatment of domestic and imported products. In the case in question, in order to invoke Article XX (g), it was essential to prove that restrictions on the "cleanliness" of imported gasolines were established in the light of corresponding measures on domestic production. The Appellate Body also clarified that the same clause in Article XX (g) is not intended to establish an empirical "effects test". In other words, once the United States had proved that the measures concerned imposed restrictions in respect of both imported and domestically produced gasoline, it did not have to prove a causal link between the measure and the conservation of clean air.

111. The Appellate Body stressed, however, that to rely on the exception in Article XX (g), it was necessary to meet the specific requirements of that paragraph, as well as the requirements imposed by the opening clauses of Article XX. This means that the measures

* Contained in Part 80 of Title 40 of the Code of Federal Regulations.
falling within the exceptions in Article XX must be applied reasonably, with due regard to both the legal duties of the party claiming the exception and the legal rights of the other parties concerned.

112. The Appellate Body reconfirmed that Article XX contains provisions designed to permit important state interests—including the protection of human health and the conservation of exhaustible natural resources (such as clean air)—to be protected. WTO Members have the autonomy to determine their own environmental policies and objectives, and to implement the corresponding legislation. With respect to the WTO, that autonomy is limited only by the need to respect the rules of the GATT and the associated agreements.

113. The findings of the WTO, as modified by the Report of the Appellate Body, may give rise to additional difficulties for petroleum-exporting countries. First, it was reconfirmed that WTO Members are free to set their own environmental objectives, and that the WTO's only task is to ensure that they are implemented through GATT-consistent measures. Secondly, clean air is regarded as an "exhaustible natural resource"; its protection therefore falls under the Article XX (g) exception. Thirdly, while it was reconfirmed that in order to apply the Article XX (g) exception it is necessary to implement restrictions on domestic production or consumption as well as restrictions on imports, it was also held that this does not require identical treatment for imported and domestic products. Finally, in so far as there is no requirement to prove a causal link between trade-restrictive measures and the conservation of clean air, this will make it easier to rely on Article XX (g).

114. All three cases discussed above, while ultimately decided at least partially against the importing country (the United States), nevertheless facilitate the implementation by importing countries of trade-restrictive measures which would affect petroleum directly or indirectly. The European Community-United States automobile case allowed for the possibility of differential treatment for fuel-efficient and fuel-inefficient automobiles; in the Superfund case the principle was accepted that environmental taxes for purely domestic purposes can be brought to bear on petroleum-sector imports; and in the gasoline case it was acknowledged that States are free to set their own environmental objectives and may rely on a generous reading of Article XX (g) in justifying measures to meet them. However, these cases also illustrate the advantages of WTO membership—namely, the possibility of relying on a neutral and strong multilateral dispute settlement system to settle commercial disputes with trading partners, independently of relative economic power.

3. Trade and environment

3.1 Committee on Trade and Environment

115. The Marrakesh Agreement on the WTO includes a Ministerial Decision on Trade and Environment. The main thrust of this decision is a concern to avoid contradictions between an open multilateral trading system, the protection of the environment and the promotion of sustainable development, and to ensure that environmental policies and measures do not become protectionist devices. The decision establishes a Committee on Trade and Environment (CTE), which is given two specific functions: to identify the relationship between

See GATT Secretariat, The Results of the ...., pp. 469-471.
trade and environmental measures in order to promote sustainable development, and to make recommendations on whether any modifications to the multilateral trading system are required. In addition, the decision sets out a number of tasks for the CTE to address and provides for a report to the first biennial meeting of the Ministerial Conference. At that conference (held in Singapore in December 1996), the report of the CTE was adopted, together with a Ministerial Declaration (on 13 December), which includes a reference to trade and the environment. The Declaration recognizes the value of the CTE's work to date and calls for more work on all items on the CTE's agenda.

116. A number of topics covered by the work of the CTE are relevant for petroleum-exporting countries — in particular, the relationship between the Multilateral Trading System (MTS) and Multilateral Environmental Agreements (MEAs); eco-labelling; market access; and the relationship between the MTS and taxes and charges for environmental purposes.

117. As to the relationship between the provisions of the MTS and trade measures for environmental purposes taken pursuant to MEAs, discussions in the CTE have revealed different views on whether any modifications of the MTS are required in order to accommodate trade measures, including those taken pursuant to an MEA. It was decided to roll over the work programme to the post-Singapore period, drawing on the work undertaken to date.

118. Various recommendations have been proposed with a view to enhancing the understanding and reducing the scope of conflict between the MTS and trade measures taken pursuant to MEAs. For example, the report of the CTE to the Singapore Ministerial Conference encourages cooperation between the WTO and the MEA institutions, and suggests that disputes between WTO Members that are parties to the MEAs may be resolved under MEAs themselves. However, the report notes that in the negotiation of future MEAs particular care should be taken regarding the application of trade measures to non-parties. It makes a distinction between the treatment of trade measures specifically mandated by an MEA and those which are not, but also notes that "a range of provisions in the WTO can accommodate the use of trade-related measures taken pursuant to MEAs".

119. As the report does not distinguish between existing and future MEAs, trade measures taken pursuant to the Framework Convention on Climate Change (see below) may be of particular interest to oil-exporting countries. While the discussions of the Conference of the Parties to the Framework Convention do not yet specifically authorize the use of trade

* The CTE is also given responsibilities under a separate Decision on Trade in Services and the Environment (see GATT Secretariat, The Results of the ..., pp. 457-458) to examine and report on issues related to services trade and the environment.

* It can be found in Trade and Environment News Bulletin, No. PRESS/TE014, 18 November 1996.

* The CTE held an informal meeting on 7 March 1997 to consider its work programme for 1997. All 10 items originally assigned to the Committee for consideration will be addressed in the course of three meetings, with the first two meetings organized around the broad themes of market access (May) and interlinkages between the multilateral trade agenda and the multilateral trade agenda (September). See Trade and Environment News Bulletin No. PRESS/TE97 (26 March 1997). For a more detailed discussion on the work of the CTE, see Simonaeta Zambelli, "Trade and Environment - the rules, panels and debates in the World Trade Organization, 20 World Competition (1997).
measures, it is too early to judge whether national governments would use such measures to meet their emission targets. If this proved to be the case, trade measures would be considered as measures taken pursuant to an MEA, and any modification of WTO rules which facilitated the use of such measures would be of interest to petroleum-exporting countries. Similarly, the issue of dispute settlement and the discussions on whether disputes should first be resolved under MEAs or through the WTO would be relevant.

120. As to eco-labelling, energy policies often employ information-based instruments. In the context of eco-labelling, energy-related criteria sometimes refer to the accumulated energy inputs required for a product over its entire life cycle. The use of such criteria may result in de facto discrimination against some sources of energy, such as fossil fuels. It also raises the question of possible equivalences, based on the comparability of different sources of energy. As the CTB's work on this item will also be rolled over to the post-Singapore period, the treatment of energy-related criteria in the context of eco-labelling may be of particular interest to petroleum-exporting countries.

121. On the issue of market access, discussions in the CTB have so far focused on whether and how the removal of trade restrictions and distortions — in particular high tariffs, tariff escalation, export restrictions, subsidies and non-tariff measures — has the potential to yield benefits for both the MTS and the environment. Until now, discussions have centred on the agriculture sector, although a proposal on the energy sector has been tabled. The implications of removing both energy and agriculture subsidies would be important for petroleum-exporting countries, because their petroleum exports would be affected and because they are not food importers.

122. As regards the relationship between the MTS and taxes and charges for environmental purposes, one interesting aspect is the possible application of measures such as border tax adjustment to energy products. The WTO allows border tax adjustment, since taxes can affect the competitiveness of domestically produced goods relative to products from other countries. Product taxes can be levied on imported products (at the same rate as on domestic like products), whereas an exemption or remission of taxes can be granted for products to be exported. Key questions that arise in the context of the trade and environment debate relate to the treatment of "like" and "competing" products, and the extent to which border adjustments should be allowed for "prior-stage" taxes, such as taxes on inputs. With regard to the first point, under the WTO rules (Article III:2, first paragraph), countries cannot impose a higher tax on an imported product than on a domestic like product. However, different tax rates may be applied to products which are not "like products". Under the previously discussed Panel decision on automobiles, fuel-inefficient cars are not "like products" when compared with fuel-efficient cars; therefore, they can be subject to less favourable treatment. With regard to the second point — whether border tax adjustments can apply to taxes on inputs — WTO rules allow the adjustment of a specific tax if the taxed input is physically incorporated in the product in question (e.g. carbon content of fuels). A common interpretation of the WTO rules is that taxes on non-incorporated inputs (e.g. carbon-dioxide emissions during production), as

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* Criteria are the requirements which products have to fulfil to become eligible for eco-labelling. They may be product- or process-related.
well as taxes on production processes, are generally not eligible for adjustment. 38

123. While it is true that this particular matter has not had a high profile in the discussions so far, there are concrete proposals by a number of WTO Members that favour the application of this type of tax — not only to products (currently permitted, provided that it is not discriminatory) but also to those production processes in which fossil energy is used as an input. The CTE has concluded that further work is needed on this issue. The WTO becomes all the more relevant for petroleum-exporting countries when one considers the work that the organization is currently doing on trade and environment, and its potential implications for and impact on their present and future trading positions.

3.2 Other issues in trade and the environment

124. Apart from the specific work of the CTE, a number of other trade-environment issues are relevant to petroleum-exporting countries. First, there is the issue of the impact of technical regulations and standards on their competitive position and their access to their main trading partners’ markets. For example, this was one of the underlying issues (apart from national treatment) in the case on reformulated and conventional gasoline (Venezuela/Brazil versus United States) discussed earlier.

125. Second, there is the question of harmonization of standards. This leads directly to the issue of the development of international standards at the multilateral level with the full participation of all countries concerned (including developing countries), and the avoidance of unilateral imposition and extraterritorial application of domestic law. The approach of the WTO Agreement on Technical Barriers to Trade is to encourage countries to base product standards and regulations on international standards. However, uniform product standards may not be optimal on environmental and political grounds. 39 It thus follows that a balance has to be struck between the advantages that harmonization yields in terms of trade and transparency, and the environmental advantages that flow from allowing legitimate differences in national standards. In general, it would seem reasonable to prefer harmonization where no good reasons for differences exist or where differences in standards may cause trade distortions. The objectives of free trade and the desire to set standards at the national level can be reconciled through mutual recognition of standards.

126. In the case of process standards, harmonization would seem justified for process and production methods which have transborder environmental impacts or affect the “global commons”. In this case, measures should be based, as far as possible, on international consensus, with the full participation of all countries concerned. 40 Of growing relevance also is the emergence of new approaches to environmental quality, which differ from the traditional

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39 If, on the one hand, technical regulations for products were harmonized at a “low” level, some countries would be forced to endure product standards below their social optimum. If, on the other hand, technical regulations were harmonized at a “high” level, other countries would be forced to endure product standards more costly than their circumstances warranted.

40 See “UNCTAD’s contribution, within its mandate, to sustainable development: Trade and environment”, TD/B/40(1)/6, 6 August 1993.
use of technical standards and regulations. As was shown by the Panel decision on automobiles, new policy instruments may set requirements for corporations rather than directly for products (for example, with respect to measures related to fuel efficiency and reduction of emissions from cars, instead of measures directly affecting petroleum).

127. Third, there is the problem of internalization of environmental costs, and the application of the Polluter Pays Principle. The application of the latter suggests a greater and more explicit recognition of the environmental costs associated with energy production and consumption. To the extent that this leads to higher prices for energy consumers, this will lead to a reduction in energy demand. Moreover, in so far as carbon-based fuels are regarded as imposing higher environmental costs, and are therefore taxed higher, than other energy sources, there will also be a shift in patterns of energy consumption towards more "benign" energy sources, especially renewables. There may also be a shift in relative pricing (and therefore demand) as between different fossil fuels; for example, natural gas may be seen as less environmentally harmful than oil, and thus taxed more favourably.

128. Finally, the biggest environmental challenge to petroleum-exporting countries probably comes from the United Nations Framework Convention on Climate Change (UNFCCC). The Convention, which entered into force in March 1994, contains principles and obligations, and, as the title suggests, provides a "framework" for future action intended to stabilize and reduce the emissions of greenhouse gases, the primary cause of climate change. Developed countries have committed themselves to returning their emissions to 1990 levels by the year 2000.

129. At the first session of the Conference of the Parties to the UNFCCC (April 1995), it was agreed to initiate a process to develop new commitments for the period beyond the year 2000 (the "Berlin Mandate"). This decision was taken despite the strong opposition of oil-producing and exporting countries. The Ad Hoc Working Group on the Berlin Mandate has come up with some options: maintaining 1990 greenhouse gas emission levels indefinitely after 2000 for Annex I parties; reducing greenhouse gas emissions by 5 to 10 per cent below 1990 levels by 2010 for Annex I parties; and differentiated objectives based on the different economic situations and national circumstances of Annex I parties, using indicators such as gross domestic product, emissions per capita, the amount of sinks and net emissions per capita and per unit of territory, and per capita energy consumption.

130. Carbon and energy taxes may be adopted unilaterally or in concert with other parties, either to meet FCCC-imposed targets and timetables or as a FCCC control mechanism. Carbon-dioxide and energy taxes can be applied directly to fuels, to secondary forms of energy such as electricity, and to energy-intensive products on the basis of the amount of carbon-dioxide emitted or energy consumed in their production.

131. A number of studies have been carried out on the impact of emission-reduction policies on the economies of different country-groupings. In the case of OPEC, for example, it is estimated that at a real (1995) petroleum price of US$16.10/barrel and with a moderate growth rate in the world economy, the introduction of a tax of US$200/ton of carbon could lead to a cumulative loss of (1995 dollars) US$148 billion between 1995 and 2010.

132. The promotion of energy efficiency and conservation has become a priority in many countries. The substitution of renewable energy sources for oil is also being widely pursued. In recognition of the difficulties that changes in energy-related policies may create for oil-
The manuscript by Dr. titled: Impact of Environmental Measures on Oil trade and Revenue is currently under review by expert referees for possible publication as an Emirates Occasional Paper.

One of the referees, Dr. has conditionally approved publication, provided it is revised. However, the comments of the second referee Dr. are very negative and he rejects the paper for publication on the grounds that it is not original research but only a summary and in some places an exact wording of source material.

Dr. claims that the paper “resorts to outright copying of paragraphs and texts from other papers and research without proper reference or quotation.” Dr. has provided two source texts and marked the relevant paragraphs for comparison. These include:

- A paper by Dr. Chokri Ghanem and others published in the OPEC Review (Vol. XXIII, No.2 of June 1999)
- Additionally, Dr. says there are portions of the manuscript which are summaries or exact wording from the US Energy Information Administration’s publication International Energy Outlook, 1999.
These claims made by Dr. seem to be true, based on a comparison of the
texts. It also appears likely that there may be other portions of the paper which are taken
directly from other source material.

This paper, if published by ECSS, would seriously damage the image and credibility of
the center. I seek permission to stop further review of the work, reject its publication for
the above reasons and inform the author about this decision.

In view of this and previous experience with regard to Dr. would suggest that he should definitely not be considered for any future publication/research project by the center, whether as a contributor, author, referee or even a conference presenter.
February 1, 2000

Dear Dr.

Thank you for your Emirates Occasional Paper submission entitled Impact of Environmental Measures on Oil Trade And Revenue. We have recently received your paper back from the expert referees to whom it had been sent for evaluation.

Unfortunately, the overall comments are negative, and your paper has been rejected for publication. Their evaluation suggests that the manuscript is highly derivative, lacks originality, and falls short of acceptable research practice with regard to documentation standards and referencing conventions.

In light of the unfavorable review comments made by these expert referees, we regret that we are unable to publish this paper.

Thank you for your effort and your interest in ECSSR.

Yours sincerely,

Department of Publications and Translation
Dear

Reference is made to my two papers which have recently been rejected by your judges. It may be of interest for you and for them to read a summary of the first one in January 2000 issue of OPEC Bulletin which is highly respectable magazine and circulates 20 thousand copies. I also received a letter of appreciation from The Gulf Cooperation Council which states that it is a highly refined piece of work from the economic, legal and technical point of view. The second paper has also been accepted for publication by a highly respectable publisher. Unfortunately, your judges failed to catch the message that both papers carried in defense of Arab oil and gas industry, and looked only at what seemed to be shortfalls in the form. Things like why the references were not scattered all over the pages as footnotes instead of putting them at the end of paper, which could have been remedied by a slight effort. This is usually what happens when the judges are mainly selected from the academic circles who have the habit of putting heavy emphasis on the form.

However, it was my pleasure to have given you first priority in publication, and I still hope to cooperate with you in future.

Best regards.

Dr.
4.2.9 A Final Note

The last item in Appendix D, the Author-Plagiarist's Response, indicates that perhaps the derivative manuscript made it into the strategic discourse community interchange after all, despite the rejection of the derivative manuscript by the ECSSR's (Emirates Center for Strategic Studies and Research) Publications Department. As indicated in this last letter from the author-plagiarist, he still hopes to participate in the interchange and discoursal interaction of the strategic studies discourse community. Yet as has been demonstrated, he has counterfeited the medium of negotiation within this community; he has submitted falsified texts; he has contributed misinformation to the strategic studies discourse community, thus weakening the quality of the discourse; and, he writes, "I still hope to cooperate with you in future."

Cooperation is not an option with author-plagiarists who continue to pander their misinformation, disinformation, and counterfeit currency. Sooner or later, this author-plagiarist's crimes against the community will catch up with him, and he will be cut off from that community.135

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135 See chapter 7's (volume I) discussion of this case. One of the reviewers was able to identify the author-plagiarist through the prideful act of the author-plagiarist's listing his own previous publications separate from the bibliography, whether or not they related to the manuscript under consideration.
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