STUDENTS’ UNDERSTANDING, PERCEPTIONS AND EXPERIENCE OF PLAGIARISM: A CASE STUDY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL PIETERMARITZBURG CAMPUS

By

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Supervised by Dr. Sharmla Rama
DECLARATION

I, Sihle Pretty Lamula declare that

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ABSTRACT

Plagiarism is a complex and multi-dimensional concept sometimes lacking a universal definition. Universities are socially situated and as such should ensure that they construct their policies in a way that is representative of their students’ history and biography. The institutional policies must therefore be aligned with the country’s copyright laws and accommodate societal and students’ milieus. This study aims to examine students’ pre-university experiences, their socio-cultural and socio-economic background and how these impact on their understanding, perception and experiences of plagiarism.

Qualitative research methods underpinned by interpretivist paradigms were utilised to provide insight into the social phenomena under study. In-depth semi-structured face-to-face interviews were employed as they are compatible with an explorative and descriptive research purpose. Data was collected from 23 students from the University of KwaZulu-Natal’s Pietermaritzburg Campus in the College of the Humanities particularly in the School of Social Sciences. A key selection criterion was level/year of study, and 12 first year and 11 postgraduate honours students participated. This enabled for comparisons in terms of academic practices and perception, understanding and experiences of plagiarism. Purposive and snowball sampling techniques were used to locate the sample, and as such the findings are not generalisable.

The findings show the ways in which students experience, perceive and understand plagiarism are dependent on their academic, social and economic background, peer and adult (teacher/lecturer) interactions and global, institutional or technological contexts. These produce diverse and varied understandings, perceptions, and attitudes towards plagiarism. While, some students heard about plagiarism at school, there were no in-depth discussions. It was only in their first year at university that most participants were introduced to this and grappled to understand referencing norms for written assignments.

Postgraduate students showed a better understanding of what plagiarism is, how to address this and why is it an important academic norm. The findings suggest that academic institutions need to implement a range of cohesive and complimentary strategies to address plagiarism that may entail greater institutional visibility and persistent guidance and interaction between academic staff and students, particularly at undergraduate levels.
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<tr>
<td>CIPRO</td>
<td>Companies and Intellectual Property Registrations Office</td>
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<td>EFL</td>
<td>English First Language</td>
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<td>ESL</td>
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<td>HEI</td>
<td>Higher Education Institutions</td>
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<td>ISAL</td>
<td>Indigenous South Africa Language</td>
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<td>KZN</td>
<td>KwaZulu-Natal</td>
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<td>LoLT</td>
<td>Language of Learning and Teaching</td>
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<td>NNES</td>
<td>Non-Native English Students</td>
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<td>PASA</td>
<td>Publishers Association of South Africa</td>
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<td>SABS</td>
<td>South African Bureau of Standards</td>
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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and problem statement

There are no universal definitions of plagiarism. The concept must be analysed within the context of circumstances, audience and expectations (Park, 2003; Park, 2004; Bloch, 2009; Dores and Henderson, 2009; Sentleng and King, 2012). Anderson and Steneck (2011) argue that there are certain characteristics that make plagiarism hard to define, subjective features that result in various ways of interpreting plagiarism. Definitions of plagiarism revolve around a lack of integrity, morality and ethics which can be interpreted in various ways by different individuals coming from different contexts.

This study proposes that plagiarism be understood within the broader academic cultural context as differences may influence perceptions and understanding of plagiarism (Scollon, 1995; Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2002). Culture is defined as “value systems”, customs, traditions and norms that pervade every aspect of a person’s life (Preisler, Klitgard and Frabricius 2011: 185). In this study culture is analysed within the context of academia and how it may be influenced by student background. The study assumes that students coming from different educational and cultural backgrounds have different understanding of texts and language and different approaches to learning (Pennycook, 1996:226).

Students enter an institutional context in which they have to learn, understand and behave according to its cultural values, norms and traditions. The students have to acculturate themselves with academic culture. This study examines the University of KwaZulu-Natal’s policy and procedures and how students deal with contextual issues associated with plagiarism and if they are aware of these policies. Additionally, a number of studies point to the internet as aiding plagiarism and this study will examine if in fact the internet aids plagiarism amongst the students.

According to Kutz, Rhodes, Sutherland and Zamel (2011:17-18) plagiarism is a manifestation of one’s life influences and experiences acquired from their environment (cultural, social, school or educational environment). The authors view writing as a product of the materials and sources afforded by one’s socioeconomic status (SES) and sociocultural background. These materials and sources refer to both tangible and intangible materials and sources that students have been exposed to overtime and through socialisation. For this reason, then plagiarism could be interpreted as a process of appropriation. The idea of plagiarism as a
process of appropriation suggests that the students’ writing is a product of the habits (academic, social and cultural habits) that they have picked up over time rather than a product of dishonesty or academic dishonesty.

Plagiarism is a series of acquired dispositions learnt by the students which are incorporated into their writing over time. These dispositions may be acquired through exposure to academic sources such as books, the library, lecturers and social stimuli such as the family, peers, the television and the internet. For some students plagiarism is a result of their lack of exposure to academic writing norms, exposure linked with their socioeconomic status (SES) and sociocultural background (or class). SES and sociocultural background may result in the differential exposure to economic and academic sources and materials (Kutz et al., 2011).

Students coming from different backgrounds will have most likely interacted with a range of (or lack thereof) different sources resulting in varying perceptions and understandings and experiences of plagiarism. These differences could manifest in their writing style. What lecturers may view as the students writing aptitude, their vocabulary and their style of writing may be a result of their background influenced by their SES and sociocultural status, including family attributes.

According to Nicholson (2010:17) plagiarism may also be inadvertently fostered by a country’s historical background. For example, in South Africa the apartheid system may have fostered a society that has little to no regard for other people’s rights. Alternatively the author considers whether democracy may have led to a sense of entitlement for the youth today resulting in a lack of respect for other people’s property. Nicholson (2010) therefore concludes that plagiarism may be symptomatic of a deeper underlying issue, which is a lack of strong moral codes and values (in both the social and academic context) that could help deter them from plagiarism. In addition, the author highlights that the family could instil these moral codes through exposing their children to relevant materials (social, economic and academic materials) that would assist in their integration into the academic sphere.

In addition when analysing plagiarism within the context of South Africa it is important to consider the history of the country first. It was only with the end of apartheid that education became accessible to all students regardless of their gender, class and race (Pineteh, 2013). Moll (as cited by Van der Walt and Dornbrack, 2011: 90) refers to families as “funds of knowledge” thus the family represents an intellectual source for the students. Stratification and inequality brought about by the apartheid system led to fragmented “funds of
knowledge” in the form of academic knowledge that could be passed on from one generation to the next. As a result not all students have as their sources, families that can pass on adequate or the desired amount of intellectual knowledge to assist them in adjusting to an academic setting.

Bourdieu (1986) refers to the sources (or resources) accumulated by families and transmitted over to generations as “cultural capital”. Students with high amounts of cultural capital will have little to no issues in adjusting to academic values and norms. This is due to the social positioning of their families which may expose them to different academic sources, in a form of tutors, books, private schools and other extracurricular activities associated with their sociocultural status and SES. However, not all families are positioned within the social spectrum in a way that can allow for the successful and ample transmission of either cultural capital or intellectual knowledge to future generations. This is especially true for those students who are first generation university attendees post-apartheid.

First generation students are those students whose parents’ have never attended university. According to Nunez and Cuccaro-Alamin (1998:6-17) characteristics of first generation students include, coming from low income families and being of low socio-economic status which they associate with low academic achievement. First generation students according to the authors, lack the academic preparation needed for them to succeed in university especially compared to their non-first generation counterparts. When first generation students are enrolled in university they not only need to adjust socially and academically but culturally. They need to adapt to their new surroundings but lack a point of reference because they are the first in their families to attend university.

First generation students’ intellectual background and possible environmental deficits may hinder their university education. Boughey (2000) asserts that students with a high amount of cultural capital are more likely to succeed because they come from families’ whose contexts are similar to those of their professors or lectures. These students are more likely to come to university familiar with academic discourse, unlike their disadvantaged counterparts with families limited to no formal education or with low cultural capital. Given that the study analyses how the students’ life influences and background contribute to whether they will plagiarise or not, historical background relating to the apartheid system gives context as it may account for some differences amongst students in the context of South Africa.
Apartheid is part of the country’s historical background and has contributed to differentials in student’s sociocultural and SES stratifications. Additionally, the students’ history weighs on the cultural, material and academic sources the students are exposed to and therefore their style of writing (Abasi, Akbari and Graves, 2006:104). Sociocultural and SES influence students’ access to cultural and academic sources they need for their successful transition to university. These sources or lack thereof could unintentionally create conditions that give rise to plagiarism.

Language is also another factor relevant to understanding and examining plagiarism in South Africa. Van der Walt and Dornbrack (2011) in their study of Afrikaans speaking students at the University of Stellenbosch explain how language contributes to student plagiarism. The authors explain that South Africa consists of 11 official languages but English is usually recognised as an academic medium of instruction, writing, learning and teaching. Nationally tertiary institutions admit students from diverse educational, economic, cultural and linguistic backgrounds and they are expected to be proficient in English. To some students’ plagiarism might be considered a learning strategy or device to mask their background or second language-status and competence (Starfield, 2002:137).

The students might feel intimidated or under pressure to produce work that is of a high calibre and use sources inappropriately in an attempt to conform to the specific disciplinary expectations (Kutz et al., 2011:22). In this case plagiarism is a device for the student to meet the expectations of what is deemed academically acceptable and enhance their linguistic and literary vocabulary deficiencies. For this reason Kutz et al., (2011:18) and Preisler et al. (2011) argue that, plagiarism could be interpreted as the struggle for Non-Native English Students (NNES) to merge their own voice with a different or dominant in this case language, English. In this context students plagiarise in an attempt to attain textual control and to develop their academic voice and writing style.

Based on the Statistics South Africa 2011 census English is the fourth most commonly spoken home language (first language or mother tongue language) spoken by 9.6% of the South African population. According to the census, IsiZulu is the predominant home language, spoken by 22.7% of the South African population, IsiXhosa second most spoken language by 16% of the population. Afrikaans is spoken by 13% of the South African population, Setswana 8% and Sesotho 7.6% of the population. The rest of the languages in South Africa are spoken by less than 5% of the population. Since the study is conducted in
KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), the census revealed that English is the first language of 13.2% of KZN residents. IsiZulu on the other hand is first language to 77.8% of KZN residents, IsiXhosa 3.4%, Afrikaans 1.6%, Sesotho 0.8% and Setswana 0.5%.

As already indicated English is the first language of 9.6% of the people in South Africa and is spoken by a total of 4 892 623 people. This number represents a variety of ethnic groups, for example it represents 167 913 Blacks, 1 094 317 of Indian and Asian groups, 954 847 of coloured individuals, 1 603 575 Whites and 80 971 categorised as other. However, from 4 892 623 of the people that speak English as their home language 1 337 605 of people in total use English as their home language in the KwaZulu-Natal Province. The statistics show that most students enrolling or most likely to be admitted in universities in South Africa are NNES or English second language (ESL) speakers. These students learn and are taught by lecturers in a language that is not their own.

Students need to constantly interpret and translate academic material in order to complete their tasks (assessments and assignments). Some students may resort to plagiarism due to their lack of proficiency in English. Boakye (2015) asserts that the students with low self-efficacy are most likely to resort to plagiarism rather than students with high self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is defined here as one’s belief in their capabilities to execute tasks successfully which in essence leads to increased motivation to complete the tasks that one is given. Self-efficacy may motivate students to increase their reading proficiency and learning but as Boakye (2015) notes reading and learning are associated with more than just the students’ self-efficacy but their background also plays a role in their educational attainment and success.

While Boakye (2015) associates low income students or students of low SES and sociocultural status and Indigenous South Africa Language (ISAL) speakers with low self-efficacy, this is questionable. Students of low SES, ISAL students and even first generation students could be motivated by their background, more so by their attempt to transcend their background in order to gain upward social mobility (DiMaggio, 1982). Upward social mobility would imply affording or providing their children and future generations with opportunities and resources that were previously inaccessible to them. Self-efficacy would therefore contribute to the students’ resilience and persistence in achieving their goals but not directly to their motivation to achieve their goals.
Plagiarism cannot be resolved by raising the students’ self-efficacy. Firstly, this is because plagiarism is more than an issue limited to reading and learning. Plagiarism is associated with a wide array of social, cultural and academic factors. Secondly, raising the students’ self-efficacy includes constant positive feedback, praise, encouragement and rewards which is to an extent impractical considering the amounts of students admitted into university each year. The lecturers would lack sufficient time and resources required to raise the students’ confidence in their own abilities so they avoid resorting to unacceptable behaviours such as plagiarism.

Luke (2014:2) argues that lecturers assume that students know how to use and locate academic sources which creates little follow up on the students by the lecturers. This follow up could be in the form of the academic staff and lectures teaching the students the differences between sources. The academic staff could teach the students how different sources differ in academic value, more precisely which sources the students should use and which sources they should not when completing their writing assignments and tasks. The academic staff’s failure to emphasise the importance of using correct sources and correct source citations may result in the students reverting to what they know. What the students might know might come as a result of what they have been exposed to in their academic lives which might consist of academically undesirable, misguided and intolerable strategies.

Abasi et al. (2006:102-103), Leibowitz and Van Deventer (2007) suggest that plagiarism is linked with student identity more precisely their social identity. Academically then, plagiarism could emanate from a process whereby ESL students borrow text as a means of constructing their academic identities using their already constructed social identities. Leibowitz and Van Deventer (2007) assert that language represents different cultural, political and ideological stances. Moreover, language reflects stratification power and social inequalities amongst individuals (Kerswill, 2009). For example society is stratified through age, gender, race and class. In every society there are specifically acceptable and unacceptable ways of how people from different age groups, genders, races and social classes interact with one another.

Additionally, one’s accent, pronunciation, dialect, grammar and pragmatics can reflect where they come from and may influence their social positioning. Apart from representing power relations, language use can assist in determining one’s geographical location (where they were born) and their educational background (Kerswill, 2009). The way a South African,
Irishman or American speak or use language (English language) differs with accent as a key marker. These language stratifications also exist amongst individuals within one geographical location as with the case in South Africa as they are 11 official languages. In addition, how an “academic” uses language (often written) differs from that of a lay person. This is the basis of sociolinguistics, language or the use of language by individuals is not “neutral”.

In this context plagiarism is more of a form of textual borrowing rather than literary theft; it is a way for the students to adopt and form their academic identities. Plagiarism becomes an inadvertent consequence of the struggle for the students to master and assume an academic identity. Since the students will often weave their own identity into academic discourse through interpreting academic discourse using their own language, culture and educational background. This process is characterised by constant negotiation between one’s own identity and academic identity (Leibowitz and Van Deventer, 2007). If this process of negotiation or re-negotiation is not reinforced earlier in the students’ life it will most likely be met by constant resistance by the students. However, through persistence by the students and the academic staff the students may master the tenets of academic writing.

Boughey (2000) draws attention to the fact that student plagiarism might be a result of the failure for the students to differentiate between common knowledge and academic knowledge. This failure results from the inability for the students to understand differences between spoken language and written text. Common knowledge is general knowledge (common-sense) that a social collective holds to be true; it requires no reference both in spoken or written text (Chwe, 2013). Academic knowledge, often written text, requires that the students support their arguments (give context) through referencing or citation (Boughey, 2000:278). A common academic error made by students is they often present ideas as their own and fail to cite the source text (they use spoken language and general knowledge principles). This counters the academic writing conventions, values and norms.

The issue in this instance is that each field and discipline in social reality has its own set of guiding principles or a set of arbitrary “rules”. Bourdieu (1993:162) defines a field as “a separate social universe having its own laws of functioning”. As stated by Bourdieu (1993:5) in order for the students to navigate in between fields they need to familiarise themselves with the “rules” of each field they find themselves in “get a feel of the game”. These rules are often in a form of values, norms, habits and practices governing action in a particular field (Spillman, 2002). In this context, what is acceptable in one field may become unacceptable in
another. The students may plagiarise not only because they are ignorant to academically acceptable writing practices. They may plagiarise due to their lack of knowledge of the acceptable norms and practices exercised in and across diverse academic fields.

Alternatively Gullifer and Tyson (2013: 1202-1203) and Sutherland-Smith (2005) explain that the concept of plagiarism is not only a source of confusion when it comes to students but also the staff. Different faculty members within the same institution define plagiarism differently. This is because different disciplines have varying understandings of what is acceptable textual borrowing and this may not be adequately understood and covered within the university or institution’s plagiarism policies. According to Gullifer and Tyson (2013) the students’ exposure to different disciplinary norms and writing conventions further widen the gap in the inconsistencies of what constitutes plagiarism. There is no absolute standard or criterion to recognise plagiarism for both experienced staff and academics therefore no way to effectively manage and safeguard against it consistently from students.

Most often the staff and students define plagiarism subjectively. Moreover, different disciplinary academics will define and detect plagiarism according to their understanding, perceptions and experiences of what is appropriate and relevant in that discipline. This might contribute to varying perceptions, understandings and attitudes towards plagiarism. Conversely, one might argue that the university cannot cover in its policy and procedure documents plagiarism in its entirety as different disciplines may regard different features of textual borrowing as plagiarism.

In this context institutional policy and procedure documents can only be pertinent when applied as guidelines rather than safeguards. Guidelines do not necessarily need to be specific about the contextual issues associated with plagiarism but can inform both the students and the academic staff on procedures followed when dealing with plagiarism. Howard (1995:791) adds other dimensions for consideration. The author argues that the conditions of modern society further negate overarching definitions of plagiarism.

Conditions such as technological advances, globalisation and multiculturalism, amongst other, result in the further diversification of perception of what constitutes plagiarism. For example globalisation has led to many universities around the world attracting a number of students from culturally diverse backgrounds who have gained particularly different types of literacy training over time (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2002; Macfarlane, Zhang and Pun, 2014). Beute, Van Aswegen and Winberg (2008: 203) argue that the level of cultural diversity in
South Africa may also render the university policy on plagiarism inadequate, ambiguous or contested.

Jackson, Meyer and Parkinson (2006:265) explain that the level of cultural diversity in South Africa produces differences in understandings, perceptions, and experiences of plagiarism. Another factor to consider is that academic institutions undergo transformations brought about by forces such as democratisation, globalisation and massification. Altbach and Knight (2007: 2-4) state that globalisation has led to increased student mobility and the emphasis of the English language as the main international language. Mass access has led to the significant expansion of higher education institutions (HEI). HEI have to continually cope and adapt to the changes occurring in the economic, social and cultural spheres. These institutions need to be able to compete on the international stage which might disadvantage academic institutions in developing countries increasing inequalities in-between the HEI.

Moreover, HEI in South Africa have widened participation to previously excluded racial and ethnic groups from varying economic and cultural backgrounds. The transformations occurring within these institutions have positive and negative effects, in that it might hinder the quality of education the students receive. Open access through widening participation in HEI leads to increased diversification in the students being admitted which places pressure and strain on the academic staff as their background may also differ from the students they teach. In a context of diversity, multiculturalism and transformation these are important factors for higher education institutions to consider.

In the academic world plagiarism can result in punishment and penalties involving disciplinary hearings, disgrace and expulsion (Gu and Brooks, 2008; Bennett, 2011). This too has implications on institutional standing and governance with respect to policies and how plagiarism is ‘policed’. The implications might be for instance that the policies may lack educational value and therefore prioritise the identification and prosecution of the so called plagiarisers. In essence, this would disadvantage the students. Kutz et al., (2011:20) proposes that academic disciplines be more open to textual borrowing and remixing as a set of different eyes might produce new insights on topics that have been already published.

Less policing of plagiarism may result in progression of already existing information and data. The excessive policing of the so called ‘plagiarisers’ by lecturers may restrict the students’ abilities to think “out of the box” when they do their work. Although Kutz et al., (2011), proposes that institutions become more lenient when dealing with plagiarism and
should allow for remixing as it might produce new ideas; the author is not saying that students should be allowed to plagiarise. Students would be allowed to remix within the accepted bounds of textual borrowing.

Ting, Musa, Mah (2014:74) suggests that the only way to decrease plagiarism would be treating it as a serious "academic misdemeanour" because if the students are not penalised it would facilitate an environment of academic dishonesty. Even though both arguments by Kutz et al. (2011) and Ting et al. (2014) are credible, both strategies have their advantages and disadvantages. Academically the institutions are faced with the challenge of having to teach the students and establish acceptable amounts of textual borrowing. (Institutions have to police plagiarism according to the guidelines they have set on acceptable and unacceptable writing practices.)

This study examines some of the above assumptions by considering not just the teaching and learning dimensions but the cultural and social dimensions associated with plagiarism (Eisner and Vicinus, 2009; Dawson and Overfield, 2006). This means acknowledging and examining the students’ identities, particularly their sociocultural backgrounds and SES. Research in this study has been conducted in a context specific manner. The study was conducted at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg Campus) in South Africa. The location was also suitable because much research revolves around Western countries and how they define plagiarism. This study yields significant insight on how different students from different backgrounds within one institution (the University of KwaZulu-Natal) define, understand and perceive plagiarism.

1.2 Purpose of the study

Plagiarism is not only a complex and multi-layered concept but a cross-cultural phenomenon (Currie, 1998; Macdonald and Carroll, 2006; Sutherland-Smith, 2005; Gu and Brooks, 2008; Ouellette, 2008). It is therefore, important to understand plagiarism before addressing it (Beute et al., 2008). Definitions of plagiarism may differ when placed against different cultural and historical backgrounds (Koul, Clariana, Jitgarun and Songsriwittaya, 2009: 506). The main assumption held in this study is that the students’ backgrounds warrant a closer look when determining why they plagiarise (Abasi et al. 2006:103; Burgess-Proctor, Cassano, Condron, Lyons and Sanders, 2014:131). Students’ coming from widely varying sociocultural and socioeconomic backgrounds may have varying writing skills and attitudes towards academic writing (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014:131).
The purpose of this study is to understand why students plagiarise and raise awareness on the contextual issues associated with the definition of plagiarism thus encouraging students to be critical thinkers and competent writers. The long term goals of the study are to assist lecturers better understand the differences between their definitions, perceptions and understandings of plagiarism in contrast to those of the students. In addition another goal is to assist the University of KwaZulu-Natal and other tertiary institutions formulate policies on plagiarism that are compatible with the students who enrol within them.

1.3 Research questions and objectives

1.3.1 Research questions
1. What is plagiarism? How do students understand this notion and its significance in academic scholarship?
2. Why do students plagiarise?
3. Does a student’s academic, education, social and background mediate their actions, understanding and perception of plagiarism?
4. Are the students in the University of KwaZulu-Natal aware of and understand the policy and procedures on plagiarism?
5. Can the awareness of anti-plagiarism detection software influence student learning and writing processes?

1.3.2 Research objectives
Student assumptions and reasoning of why they ‘plagiarise’ maybe key in understanding and coming up with the different strategies to help them overcome plagiarism in the long run. The main objectives of this study are to explore whether the students’ backgrounds influence their understanding and interpretation of plagiarism in relation to academic policies at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. The study will attempt to establish whether different values and practices act to contradict established notions of plagiarism (Sowden, 2005). The study does this by investigating how the students understand and define plagiarism paralleled to Western, Eastern and institutional definitions of the term. Furthermore it explores the role of anti-plagiarism software in the students learning processes. If they successfully curb plagiarism and inspire students to produce original work essential for their academic growth.
1.4 Key concepts

This section focuses on defining and outlining the different dimensions, aspects and nuances of the key concepts (Babbi and Mouton, 2001).

1.4.1 Plagiarism

Plagiarism is inundated with various complexities in that it has varying acceptable cross disciplinary and cross-cultural definitions (Vogelsang, 1997; Gu and Brooks, 2008). Vogelsang (1997: 422) indicates that in the American Medical Association Manual Style plagiarism is defined as the:

“(1) direct verbatim lifting of passages, (2) rewording ideas from the original in the purported author’s own style, (3) paraphrasing the original work without attribution, and (4) noting the original source of only some of what is borrowed.”

Legally plagiarism is tantamount to the crime of theft, piracy, larceny and fraud (Vogelsang, 1997; Green, 2002:170; Langdon-Neuner, 2008). In accordance with copyright law, plagiarism is a violation of other people rights (Vogelsang, 1997).

The Oxford dictionary (as cited by Gu and Brooks, 2008:338) defines plagiarism as taking the work or an idea of another person and passing it off as one’s own. Plagiarism is taken from the Latin word plagiarius or plagium meaning to hold captive words and slaves (Howard, 1995; Green, 2002: 170; Gu, and Brooks, 2008). Throughout history plagiarism has been defined as literary theft going beyond common or general knowledge (Park, 2003). Roig (2001: 309) argues that plagiarism is characterised by subtle and apparent features, subtle substitutions of words, rearrangement/restructuring of phrases, deletions. These features may be committed one at a time or all at once.

Most definitions of plagiarism revolve around non-ethical practices involving some type of deceit resulting in redundancies of intellectual property (Hexham, 2013). Plagiarism may be the intentional or unintentional misappropriation of someone else’s thoughts, ideas and illustrations (Parmley, 2000; Park, 2003; Ercegovac and Richardson 2004). Roig (2001: 308) proposes that plagiarism maybe be committed unconsciously by the students due to what he calls “cryptomnesia”. Cryptomnesia is a condition where students unconsciously believe that certain ideas are theirs while they are not and thus they do not reference.

Plagiarism is associated with various individual and contextual issues (McCabe, Trevino and Butterfield, 2001; Gullifer and Tyson, 2010). McCabe et al. (2001) argue that contextual issues are more prevalent in plagiarism than individual factors. Individual factors resulting in
plagiarism may include, ignorance or unfamiliarity with academic sources, self-esteem, dishonesty, feelings of disinterest or boredom directed at a particular module, laziness and “cryptomnesia” (McCabe et al., 2001; Roig, 2001; Gu and Brooks, 2008). Contextual issues include student background (social, academic, economic, cultural background), linguistics, peer influence etc. (Gu and Brooks, 2008).

In the absence of one clear definition of plagiarism that can be applied universally across different fields and faculties. One can only define plagiarism in terms of its features and manifestations, namely the lack or absence of acknowledgement and reference from where one has taken their information whether intentional or unintentional. This definition however may only be applicable when one is referring to cross disciplinary practices used in the identification of plagiarism. Cross-culturally, the definition provided is unsuccessful due to the various cultural beliefs and practices taking place in either one or various geographical locations. (Further issues relating to the definition and identification of instances of plagiarism are discussed comprehensively and in-depth in chapter 2, the literature review chapter).

1.4.2 **Textual borrowing**

Textual borrowing is a process where students borrow words from other academics or academic text as means of providing supporting evidence in their research papers and academic essays (Yu, 2010). The students borrow text in order to adhere to the norms and standards of academic writing. Academia requires that students provide extensive supporting evidence in their work; consequently the students must summarise, paraphrase and use quotation marks (Jahic, 2011; Ting et al., 2014). ESL students find it difficult to convert source text into their own and textual borrowing in this context becomes synonymous with plagiarism (Yu, 2010).

1.4.3 **Academic dishonesty**

Academic dishonesty is the unlawful assistance from either academic literature, the internet or from any and other sources (Maramark and Maline; 1993). Academic dishonesty is not exclusive to plagiarism but includes the fabrication and falsification of research information, duplication of results, cheating in tests or exams, fraud and various other unethical behaviours associated with academic misconduct conduct (McCabe et al., 2001; Roig, 2001; Langdon-Neuner, 2008; Gullifer and Tyson, 2013: 163). Punishments vary and can range from being reprimanded, suspended or even expelled (Langdon-Neuner, 2008).
The term “academic dishonesty” comes from the assumption that a student has violated acceptable academic values and norms and has therefore engaged in an unethical practice (Howard, 1995). Gullifer and Tyson (2013: 163) state that academic dishonesty is attributable to student ethics, as academic dishonesty is the intention for the students’ to deceive their lecturers. Academic values associated with plagiarism revolve around ideas of morality, truth, honesty, fairness, respect or a lack thereof (Vogelsang, 1997; Gu and Brooks, 2008: 339). Furthermore, plagiarism is associated with the lack of professionalism and integrity (Vogelsang, 1997).

1.4.4 Copyright infringement

According to the Publishers Association of South Africa (PASA) guide (2007), a copyright is the legal right given to an originator of a concept, idea, image, video and other types of intellectual property to protect their work. Copyright infringement is the reproduction, publication, distribution as well as the adaptation of work without permission from the originator or acknowledgement of the originator. Essentially work can be copied but only for personal use, individuals cannot gain financially from work that belongs to others especially without securing permission first from the relevant parties. Moreover, the history of the country will affect its copyright laws (Glendinning, 2014).

1.4.5 Context

Bazire and Brezillon (2005: 29) define context as “a set of circumstances framing an event or an object.). Dey (2001) defines that context as “information that can be used to characterise the situation of an entity” (entity referring person or object). Schilit and Theimer (as cited by Betz, Ley, Pipek, and Wulf, n.d: 790) and Dey, 2001: 4) define context “as location, identities of nearby people and objects, and changes to those objects”. In short context refers to environmental, conceptual and situational circumstances and their changes in relation to an individual and their interactions with other individuals and objects (Dey, 2001). In psychology context is defined as features of stimulus reflecting an individual’s mental settings (Anderson, 2015).

Social context however is characterised by the individuals’ interaction with other individuals and collectivities (Nouri, Erez, Lee, Liang, Bannister and Chiu, 2015.). According to Nouri, et al. (2015) and Betz et al. (n.d: 789) context is essentially socially constructed in that people have shared or common “communal understandings” of what characterises different contexts. From these shared understandings they are able to interpret different contexts in relation to
themselves, other individuals and objects. Dey (2001) emphasises that individuals cannot exercise their agency (act) without context. Individuals need to be “context aware” in order to adapt to social, situation, and environmental changes (Betz et al., n.d: 790). Context therefore not only reflects shared meaning but guiding principles of behaviour and action (provides rules of engagement in specific settings).

Thus context in this study refers to academic, institutional (environmental), social, linguistic, economic, socio-historical and cultural factors associated with or that influence the students’ understanding and perceptions of plagiarism in the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus located in South Africa.

1.4.6 Socioeconomic status (SES)

According to Bradley and Corwyn (2002) socioeconomic status is associated with an individual’s parents or family and their social positioning within society (class). This is in relation to their access to resources either economic (material resources) or social (social connections). The authors assert that the SES of a family will determine the type of schools the children attend and the type of neighbourhood they grow up in; to the type of occupation they choose as adults. SES is linked with the child’s educational, health and emotional stability. In addition, SES affords children certain social connections that could be beneficial to the child’s life depending on the position and class of the family.

In this study SES is associated with access to different sources or resources students have at their disposal. In addition the concept of SES in this study has been linked with what Bourdieu (1989) refers to as “Cultural Capital”. The concept of cultural capital will be defined and discussed in-depth in the subsequent sections (refer to 1.4.8. Culture: academic culture vs. cultural capital). Both SES and cultural capital are perceived as having either a positive or negative correlation with the students’ academic achievement. Although both SES and cultural capital are acquired through the family, cultural capital can be accumulated by an individual over time while SES is solely determined by the family’s social class (or economic condition).

1.4.7 Culture, academic culture and cultural capital

Boesch (2003) explains that culture is what separates humans from animals. According to the author culture is characterised by shared meaning, attitudes, beliefs, assumptions and social knowledge held by a collective. Alone an individual cannot create culture as culture consists
of shared meanings amongst groups or group members in a particular social environment. Culture is socially learned and not inherited by individuals. Individuals may internalise culture through observation and participation within a particular group or environment they are situated in. Culture could therefore be referred to as the knowledge accumulated and practiced by social actors in a social space. Culture consists of social practices that guide and pattern human behaviour (Patterson, Page, Page and Page, 2010).

Culture is not exclusive or limited to the family, it merely categorises an individual as a member of a particular group or collective. In sociology culture is about ascertaining meaning (making sense of human social relations) and how these meanings vary across different contexts and how they influence human agency or action (Spillman, 2002). These meanings derive from both structure and agency (Patterson et al., 2010). Bourdieu (1993: 29) defines structure as invisible or visible social relations through only their effects that reflect social positions that are occupied and manipulated by social agents. Agency on the other hand represents the social agents’ ability to act within a given social space or structure. Spillman (2002) explains that culture is the basis of all human interaction and action and not limited to a set of practices.

Culture can be a representation of a specific set of activities, products and ideas held by a particular individual, group or institution, since it can represent popular culture, music and other material artefacts. In sociology, culture is a social product produced and internalised by individuals or social agents. The social agents come to embody the very structures they produce (Patterson et al., 2010). The main objective of analysing culture is to find out how culture shapes meaning and human understanding as people or individuals are perceived as being both cultural products and the producers of culture. According to Patterson et al. (2010: 4) sociologists analyse culture because social phenomenon cannot be explained without reference to the conditions that produce it.

Culture can account for issues taking place on an individual and societal level and macro and micro level, issues of inequality and power (Spillman, 2002: 5). Individuals are only able to formulate certain opinions and attitudes on societal issues because of their background and social context both of which are contingent on culture. Since culture is not necessarily hereditary individuals are not limited to one culture they can draw freely from other cultures which makes it complicated limiting culture to one specific environment (Kärtner, 2009). Although culture implies a certain level of uniformity and conformity people from the same
culture can have different understandings, perceptions and experiences as they may be influenced by different cultures. These influences may take place both on a macro and micro level, influencing either just an individual or a whole group of individuals and their actions.

In short meanings are socially constructed and vary across cultures and on an individual, group and organisational, institutional and societal level. Through culture social actors are able to distinguish between themselves and others. Fischer and Schwartz (2011) assert that culture consists of values which are abstract goals held by a group or collective. These abstract goals reflect common understanding between members. Generally values are derived from a group’s cultural practices and beliefs. Culture represents conformity within a particular social system. To attain membership status within a particular group or culture an individual has to conform to a set of practices and beliefs held by the collective. Alternatively Fischer, Ferreira, Assmar, Redford, Harb, Glazer, Cheng, Jiang, Wong, Kumar and Kärtner (2009) propose that values or value systems do not only exist on a collective level but on an individual level.

Individuals may have individualistic values that slightly differ from those of the collectives. They may be prone to viewing themselves as “unique” in comparison to the other members of their culture (which may be facilitated by differing experiences). According to Kroeber and Parsons (1958) culture can differ within certain disciplinary contexts. For example Anthropology sees the basis of all human interaction as influenced by culture, while sociology is inclined to view culture as a product of social systems. Thus these disciplines define culture differently, one in societal relationships and the other in cultural aspects. Different disciplines therefore socialise the students with their own set of practices and beliefs (Tierney, 1988). Students then have to internalise these belief systems and practices of their respective disciplines in order to thrive in these fields.

Tierney (1988) introduces the idea of academic culture. Academic culture in particular is layered and consists of different cultures, namely organisational (or institutional culture), disciplinary and student culture. Academic culture has its own set of expectations, attitudes, goals and perceptions (Hurtado, Milem, Clayton-Pedersen, and Allen, 1999). Tierney (1988) refers to universities as cultural social entities influenced by a wide array of internal and external social factors such as the history, economy, politics and demographics. Similarly Hurtado et al. (1999: 6) argues that learning and teaching practices within higher institutions of learning are shaped by socio-historical conditions of a particular environment.
Words such as, diversity and multiculturalism, race and ethnicity are synonymous with institutional culture (Hurtado et al., 1999). Many institutions have integrated policies that are aimed at accommodating students coming from diverse backgrounds. Tierney (1988) suggests that lecturers are responsible for teaching the students, the norms, values and customs of an institution so they become competent actors within the institution. The process in which the teachers instil institutional and academic cultural values onto the students is referred to as a type “cultural conditioning” (Sowden, 2005).

Cultural conditioning also includes the degree to which the students’ cultural background (upbringing) shapes their perceptions towards academia. Institutions enforce their belief systems and norms through policies. Policies can differ from institution to institution depending on where they are located. For example the University of Stellenbosch integrated a language policy because it was historically an Afrikaans institution that to this day attracts a significant number of Afrikaans students (Leibowitz and Van Deventer, 2007).

According to Bourdieu the academic world creates transferable cultural dispositions that are actively and unconsciously transferred to the students (Bourdieu, 1993: 23-24). These cultural dispositions are transferred to the students in the guise of eliminating social stratifications amongst them but instead they perpetuate the existing inequalities between the students. Academic institutions neutralise the students’ academic talents by academic by classifying them as “natural”. According to Bourdieu (1993) this process of neutralisation is detrimental especially to the disadvantaged students or students of low SES and beneficial to the high SES students. Academic institutions treat the students as if they are equal (with equal capacity to lean and retain academic knowledge) instead of products of cultural transmission. Culture is transmitted to the students by their families through active and passive efforts (Anderson and Jaeger, 2015).

The type of culture Bourdieu refers to above as being transmitted to the students by their families is cultural capital. The author strongly links cultural capital with the students’ educational attainment and success in the academic field. In his works Bourdieu identifies three distinct types of capital, namely cultural, social and symbolic capital (Bourdieu, 2011). Capital according to Bourdieu and in the context of this study refers not to the traditional ideas of capital, such as financial capital (or money). Capital refers to the resources (both material and immaterial) at an individual’s disposal (Bennett and Silva, 2011; Bourdieu, 2011; Gaddis, 2013:2; Warin, 2015). Individuals can accrue capital through their family or
accumulate it while exercising agency in the social space. The varying types of capital, their function and definitions will be explored in-depth in the subsequent sections and chapters.

Sociocultural theory (or sociocultural background as referred to in this study) is a theory suggesting that learning is a social process rather than an isolated process. Individuals gain their knowledge through society and their interactions with others (“Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory”, n.d, para.1). According to John-Steiner and Mahn (1996) individuals internalise external structures within themselves. This is referred to as a process of appropriation a process where individuals absorb social tools availed to them (occurs in early childhood). These tools could be in a form of signs, symbols and texts that mediate an individual’s perception, memory and knowledge construction (Kozulin, 2003: 15).

In addition, each culture has its own unique tools that it imparts on individuals. Turuk (2008: 245) explains that the tools reflect specific cultural and historical conditions that the individual grows up under. These tools exert pressure on the individual and influence their interactions with formal and informal settings. Parents act as “culture conduits” passing their practices onto their children. The children in return transform the knowledge inherited into their personal values that they use to navigate the social world.

Capital refers to the resources an individual has at their disposal (Gaddis 2013:2). There are 3 main types of capital, namely cultural, social and symbolic (Bourdieu, 1989). According to Bourdieu (1986), Dumais and Ward (2010:85) and Anderson and Jaeger (2015) cultural capital takes 3 forms which are the embodied, objectified and institutionalised forms. The embodied form comprises of long lasting dispositions such as language proficiency, preferences and demeanour, objectified is music, books, art, pictures and other instruments, the institutionalised form, is an extension of objectified but presented in a form of qualifications.

Social Capital refers to social networks or connections the individual has access to, afforded by their membership in a particular social group. Lastly symbolic represents material capital or otherwise known as economic capital; all the other types of capital can be a consequence of this type of capital (Bourdieu 1986). According to Bourdieu (1986) and Gaddis (2013) all three forms of capital are not only inherited but can be accumulated over time and over different social spaces. Hence individuals have equal opportunities to access resources through their gradual accumulation of the different types of capital.
1.5 Theoretical framework

This study adopts Bourdieu’s theory of habitus to analyse the formulation of perception, thoughts and actions (Bourdieu, 1989). The theory of habitus was chosen in order to help analyse how students formulate their understanding and perceptions of plagiarism. Understanding the formation of habitus would account for what influences the students’ experiences and interactions with plagiarism. In its broadest sense habitus is a structuring structure (Swartz, 1997: 100). This structuring structure reflects the conditions under which the structure was created. This means is that different individuals from different backgrounds are endowed and inherit different categories of perceptions and these perceptions reflect their society, class, SES and sociocultural status.

What this means is, individuals will navigate and interpret the social world according to the circumstances unique to their upbringing. These circumstances may reflect where the individual is situated within the social spectrum, in terms of their SES or class. In addition to exhibiting the social characteristics under which they grew up under individuals will both consciously and unconsciously replicate their social conditions as they exercise agency in the social world. According to Bourdieu (1989) and Swartz (1997) conditions in which the individual grows up become deeply embedded into their psyche; therefore they become the basis of all their action and perception.

Consequently Bourdieu (1989) posits that the social world consists of structures not visible to individuals and that individuals were not aware of. These structures act to guide and constrain social agents (in this context, the students), more specifically their thoughts and actions therefore their perception of social reality. These structures are in a form of capital, presented in different forms, which are cultural, social and symbolic (or economic capital). Capital in this context refers to the resources (material and immaterial resources) available to the social agents’ inherited through family. Each form of capital has transformative potential. For example both social and cultural capital can be transformed to economic/ symbolic capital and economic capital influences one’s cultural and social capital.

Individuals have access to certain resources because of their membership in their networks and social structures (Portes and Vickstrom 2011: 4262). Social agents are thus distributed within the social space according to the structure of their capital. Bourdieu (as cited by Jaeger, 2011) states that cultural capital is possessed by the individual’s families and is transferred over generations. Cultural capital is a resource which contributes to the
individual’s educational success. Cultural capital is a resource that equips individuals with knowledge and certain practical skills in academia and therefore has a direct correlation with educational success and attainment.

Families who possess high levels of cultural capital also possess other socioeconomic resources, such as money that have an effect on the children’s educational success. For example these families could take their children to private schools, buy them educational materials not available to other children, and give them access to resources associated with their privileged status. Cultural capital endows individuals and families with certain attitudes, preferences, formal knowledge, behaviours, goods and credentials (Gaddis, 2013). Moreover cultural capital is embedded in the children’s knowledge, language and mannerism. Cultural capital affords the individual access to certain privileges and resources in line with their social position in society.

In light of the above the assumption of this study is that students from the University of KwaZulu-Natal come from different backgrounds. They are equipped with different amounts of cultural capital resulting in the differential access to resources; resources that may influence the students’ awareness and perception of plagiarism. This is because students with high amounts of cultural capital will have more exposure to resources as opposed to students with less amounts of cultural capital.

The study explores how the students understanding of the concept of plagiarism may be influenced by the different cultural capital they bring to academia (Starfield, 2002). The study proposes that habitus more specifically cultural capital has an influence in the way that students interact with the concept of plagiarism as their social positioning results in different ways of speaking, writing and thinking (Starfield, 2002:125). Students from different backgrounds have different access to knowledge because of differential access to social, cultural and economic capital. They might see and define plagiarism within different contexts, depending on their engagement with the term.

1.6 Methodology

This study uses qualitative research methods. This data collection method was chosen for its ability to provide understanding of peoples personal experiences and viewpoints. This research method is suited to the explorative and descriptive nature of the research study and underpinned by the interpretivist paradigm. Interpretivist approaches generally consists of the
researcher coding, organising the research findings while also giving detailed descriptions of what they might mean (Berg, Lune and Lune, 2004). Participants were encouraged to provide in-depth and detailed information on their experiences and perceptions of plagiarism. From the research findings it is possible to extrapolate whether the students ‘definitions of plagiarism were “culturally conditioned” or if they were influenced by their social, economic and academic background (Sowden, 2005).

Prior to conducting the data collection process, relevant authorisations were obtained from the relevant gatekeepers. Since the study involved students, permission was requested and obtained from the Registrar of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Additionally, permission was obtained from the ethical clearance committee. Data was collected from the School of Social Sciences from the first year and postgraduate honours students in the second semester in 2015 and then collected again in the first semester 2016. The whole data collection process took place in the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus. First year and postgraduate honours students were chosen so as to compare how different levels/years of study influence understanding, attitudes and perceptions towards plagiarism and the students’ academic writing conventions.

The sample consisted of 23 students from the College of the Humanities in the School of Social Sciences, 12 first year students and 11 postgraduate honours students, doing different modules within the university. This was done in order to increase sample diversity as students from different levels of study had different institutional requirements to fulfil in relation to academic writing practices in the institution. Students from different levels or years of study are required to produce different standards of work in line with their year of study; the groups of students selected would likely use different strategies when dealing with the concept of plagiarism. This relates in particular, to the University of KwaZulu-Natal policy and procedure document, which states that plagiarism, will be recognised as a developmental tool for first year students and a disciplinary offence for postgraduate students (Vithal, 2009).

The sample was located using both snowballing and purposive sampling techniques. Once the participant was recruited and in-depth face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted. In-depth or semi-structured interviews were chosen as a data collection instrument because the study aimed to focus on exploring the student’s understanding, perceptions and experiences (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). In-depth semi-structured interviews would allow for the attainment of in-depth data on key themes in the research study. Prior to conducting
interviews, a consent form was administered to the participants. The consent form explained in-depth to the participants informing them of all the processes to place in the study.

It was explained to the participants that interviews were to be recorded using a voice-recording device and that each interview would last an approximated 20 to 30 minutes. Once the interviews were completed, the interview recordings were then transcribed using verbatim transcription. The study utilised thematic content analysis for the analysis of the data collected.

1.7 Thesis chapter structure

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter consists of a brief description of the highlighted topic; it gives background and the context to the research problem. The chapter highlights key concepts associated with the students’ formulation or generation of their perceptions, understandings and experiences. The chapter highlights briefly, some of the factors (discussed throughout the study), that are perceived as contributing and influencing incidences of plagiarism. This chapter highlighted the study’s key questions and objectives of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter outlines the broad and specific issues associated with plagiarism. The main aim of the chapter is to explore in-depth various surface and contextual factors that contribute to the prevalence and incidence of plagiarism through the extensive review of literature.

Chapter 3: Theoretical Framework

This chapter focuses on the theoretical framework to explain and understand how students formulate their definitions, perceptions and understanding of plagiarism. The chapter details the apparent and underlying social factors influencing the development and formation of the students’ perceptions and interpretations of plagiarism which may eventually determine whether they will plagiarise or not. Bourdieu’s theory of habitus was used in the study in order to explain and account for the students’ attitudes, understanding and experiences of plagiarism.
Chapter 4: Research Methodology

This chapter consists of the research methodology utilised in the study in order to obtain the data sought. The chapter outlines the methods, instruments, techniques and procedures that were implemented in order to collect and analyse the data. It also focuses on the sampling criteria, sampling size and the rationale.

Chapter 5: Key Findings

This chapter identifies and highlights key themes extracted from the participant interviews. The discussions in this study are mainly based on the data collected (the students’ responses and views) and the literature that had been reviewed prior and throughout the data collection process. This chapter is meant to stimulate well rounded discussion on the key findings and themes, particularly how they either contradict or support the literature reviewed. The key findings in this study are not generalisable due to nature of the methods and techniques that were used during data collection and analysis. The key findings reflect the University of KwaZulu-Natal’s students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences of plagiarism in the College of the Humanities, particularly in the School of Social Sciences.

Chapter 6: Discussion

This chapter identifies the key findings in the study and linking these to both the theoretical framework and discussions in the literature review chapter. This chapter has been thematically organised in order to address the various themes that immerged about plagiarism in both the literature chapter and the key findings chapter.

Chapter 7: Summary and Recommendations

This chapter contains a summary of the findings that were obtained in the study. It provides recommendations and strategies that can aid institutions in combating plagiarism. Moreover, recommendations for further research have been proposed as the study might have not sufficiently covered fully some of the themes that arose in the data.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The main purpose of the literature review chapter is to highlight and discuss factors that may influence or affect the students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences of plagiarism. The chapter examines existing literature on how plagiarism is defined and understood, why students plagiarise while addressing the contextual challenges and issues associated with this. The chapter is divided into two parts; part one examines the notion of plagiarism, its evolution, ambiguities and contradictions and highlights the different forms, types and sources of plagiarism. Part two of the chapter consists of a broad review of culture and identity and how they might impact on the perceptions of plagiarism. In addition, part two assesses any and all inconsistencies in the way the students’ perceive, understand and experience plagiarism in relation to the academic staff.

PART ONE:

2.2 Plagiarism: Its evolution and contradictions.

2.2.1 Plagiarism in the context of copyright law

Sentleng and King (2012) explain that plagiarism is a modern Western construct that arose with the introduction of copyright laws in eighteenth century England. Koul, et al. (2009: 507) suggests that the West began to view text as a commodity with individual ownership rights after the printing press was invented. Pecorari and Petrič (2014) indicate that the concept of plagiarism arose in response to the economic, social, and technological conditions unique to eighteenth century England and therefore carries historical and cultural connotations that may not be applicable to all cultures.

Definitions of plagiarism are immersed within Western cultural traditions that stress possession over ideas and words therefore putting emphasis on individual efforts (Foltynek, Rybicka and Demoliou, 2014). Similarly, Sutherland-Smith (2005:84) explains that plagiarism as an act of stealing warranting prosecution stemmed from the evolution and development of copyright laws and commodification of text as property. According to Block (2009) and Park (2004) a country’s development of intellectual property laws greatly affects how they define plagiarism within the context of that region and so definitions of plagiarism may vary from country to country.
Moreover the definition of plagiarism could differ from institution to institution on an international, regional and local level. Nicholson (2010) indicates that a copyright is a right legally given to an individual (considered the originator of a certain idea, recoding, video, image etc.) to protect their work so it is not copied, sold or distributed without permission. An individual with the copyright can pursue legal action if they feel someone has either taken credit for their work or is passing their work off as their own.

Copyright infringement and plagiarism are interchangeable words in that if an individual has plagiarised, it is assumed that they have at some level committed copyright infringement vice versa. Nicholson (2010) specifies that work that has been copyrighted can be plagiarised. Lobanov-Rostovsky (2009) highlights that plagiarism on its own is not a crime but an individual found to have plagiarised can be charged with copyright infringement. The author asserts that copyrights arose with the commercialisation of words (specifically written text). Words or text became about making money and gaining profit.

In the modern industrial capitalist society stealing someone else’s words, is not only taking away recognition but their livelihood and source of income. This is because copyright infringement is not only about stealing another person’s work for recognition but it is most often for financial gain. For instance, copyright infringement is associated with acts of piracy which is the illegal distribution of videos, images, and music downloaded illegally and sold for profit. Clement and Brenenson (2013) on the other hand argue that for students plagiarism is a means to an end; they plagiarise to get good grades, get a certain qualification, advance unto the next grade etc. Thus to students plagiarism or copyright infringement is less about financial gain and more about subterfuge.

2.2.2 Knowledge construction, knowledge economy and plagiarism

According to Polio and Shi (2012:95) an individual’s academic writing is contingent on their interpretations and experiences of reading and writing academic texts. This results in differences in perceptions and understanding of plagiarism. Thus the students will deal with plagiarism based on their knowledge and experiences of plagiarism (East, 2006). The students will use their subjective judgements to detect and identify instances of plagiarism. This complicates development of one definition that will apply to all individuals or students across different fields. Rovai (2004) explains that students are processors of information, constantly and gradually picking up knowledge and information through interactions with
their environment and others. This would mean that the students learning processes are based on constructivist notions.

Constructivist theory states that individuals construct their knowledge by engaging with their environment and other individuals (Rovai, 2004). As a result learning becomes a continuous social process which gradually evolves as the students’ engage with different contexts or environments. Thompson (2005) indicates that individuals process the knowledge they gain from their environments and they use this knowledge to adjust to new contexts. Based on constructivist theory, the students adjust to university using the knowledge they have accumulated over time across various contexts (academic, cultural and social).

East (2006) on the other hand proposes that learning is a collaborative and interactive activity between the student and the teacher. Students’ learn academic discourse through the constant guidance, reinforcement and negotiation between the learner and teacher (Thompson, 2005). The students will go back and forth presenting their work to their teachers for them to assess. They will at every step be reinforced by their teacher or teachers and so they work hard to meet their teachers’ expectations. The teacher and the student engage in the co-construction of text until the student succeeds in gaining textual control and authority. In this context, the teachers’ assume the position of both facilitator and guide to the students (Corachán, 2008).

Besides learning from their teachers or the teacher-learner classroom dynamic, the students’ perceptions and understandings are also influenced by their communal attitudes (Polio and Shi, 2012). The students are also influenced by their societal, beliefs, norms and values (Thompson, 2005). For example, Asian and Western societies differ in how they define, understand and perceive plagiarism. These differences in perception and understanding are mainly facilitated by the differences in norms and values in-between the two societies. According to Thompson (2005) while Asian societies value the collective Western societies value the individual and for this reason the students will most likely hold different perceptions of what is acceptable and unacceptable both academically and socially.

Students use their cultural attitudes in order to engage with whatever context they find themselves in or engage with. In short, the students’ learning processes are complex (Thompson, 2005). The students construct their knowledge on plagiarism in various ways. Their perceptions, understanding and interpretations of acceptable academic conventions are influenced by institutional factors, academic staff as well as external social factors such as society, societal norms and values, communally held beliefs and their families.
Additionally, the knowledge students accumulate overtime has a certain amount of value attached to it. Knowledge as a concept is attached to ideas of learning, understanding, competence, discovery and innovative potential (Smith, 2002). Individuals often demonstrate their knowledge through skill, understanding and competence while in the process of exercising their agency (Brinkley, 2006). According to Smith (2002: 11-19) there are different types of knowledge, there is factual information, knowledge based on scientific principles and specific and selective social knowledge. Knowledge can at times refer to shared communal norms, values and understanding.

Knowledge is extensive and continuous and has the potential to fuel constant and continuous innovation (Powell and Snellman, 2004). Knowledge construction, accumulation and sharing require either internalising a new principle or using the information one knows to do something (Smith, 2002:7). Knowledge is an integral part of the students’ or social agents’ experiences. Both students and social agents accumulate and retain the information they acquire throughout their lives and use it when they need it. The type and structure of the knowledge they have becomes more valuable when it is compatible with a particular field (Brinkley, 2006: 4).

Overtime society has increased the value attached to knowledge and because of this knowledge has increasingly become an important part of the economy (Adler, 2001; Brinkley, 2006). Knowledge in the form of formal education is especially significant to the economy as it can determine the employability of an individual and the money they earn. In addition economically and academically speaking, knowledge accumulation means capital accumulation because knowledge underlies all economic activity (Smith, 2002). This occurrence has led to what is referred to as the knowledge economy. Typically economies get labelled according to the work people do in them. The knowledge economy emphasises the use of one’s brain and intellect moving away from the brawn, factories, machinery to the office, information technology and the sciences (Seidman, 2014).

Powell and Snellman (2004: 200) explain that the knowledge economy covers:

1.) the rise in new science based industries and their role in social and economic change, 2.) professional services and other information rich industries, such as publishing and the growth of employment in these sectors, 3.) theoretical knowledge, as a source of innovation / new growth theory economics.”

The knowledge economy predominantly covers intangible information goods and is service driven. Knowledge disseminating mechanisms can be (but not limited to) universities and
research institutes etc. (Adler, 2001: 21). Knowledge intensive industries involve research and development industries, IT and Consultancies etc. (Smith, 2002: 14). The idea of knowledge economy emphasises the role of learning especially in the economic sector.

The term knowledge economy has no one precise or specific definition or meaning. The term is used to describe accelerated technological advances and scientifically inspired innovations (Powell and Snellman, 2004). The knowledge economy revolves around the idea of the accumulation, production and dissemination of information. Adler (2001) asserts that in developing countries the knowledge economy accounts for the rise in the tertiary level educated workforce and the growth of the scientific and technological fields. Gradually, more and more individuals are able to make a living, using the knowledge they have and through exercising their innovative capacity. Powell and Snellman, (2004: 200-206) argue that patents have become the closest way to measure the knowledge economy.

The authors explain that nearly three million patents in the United States were granted between January 1963 and December 1999. This to them is evidence or an indication that society values now more than ever knowledge based fields and the expansion of the knowledge workforce. Moreover, there has been an increase in the production, dispersion and exchange of ideas and information, knowledge and information have become more readily available and easily accessible especially through the use of the internet and emails. The internet and emails stand at the forefront of the knowledge economy as well as the dissemination of information. The internet has changed the nature of how businesses, institutions and individuals do business and communicate. Businesses, institutions and individuals are now able to exchange information and ideas effortless across various boundaries around the globe.

Plagiarism in this study in particular concerns intellect and brings into play the idea of intellectual property rights. Since, society attaches value in the knowledge one has and recognises and rewards genius and innovation, individuals are able to sell and distribute the knowledge for economic gain. In this context, knowledge becomes a product that can be sold and distributed by social agents. Individuals can capitalise on the knowledge they have (Smith, 2002:10). As a result, the rapid growth of the knowledge economy has fostered the strict enforcement of intellectual property rights.

According to the South African Bureau of Standards (SABS) intellectual property guide (2008), intellectual property refers to intangible goods and products of the mind. Intellectual
Property rights are given to individuals or proprietors in an effort to protect the unlawful use of their intellectual property by any other individuals other than themselves. Intellectual property could refer to designs, trademarks, ideas and other types of intangible works produced by individuals. Intellectual property rights ensure that the “products of the mind” are protected by law so no other individuals except the originator or creator can benefit financially or otherwise from them. Intellectual property rights protect the rights and interests of the creator. Additionally only the creator has the right to give permission or can license their works so other individuals or businesses can use or capitalise from them.

In the SABS intellectual property guide (2008) it is also indicated that the Companies and Intellectual Property Registrations Office (CIPRO) is responsible for registering intellectual works and giving copyrights. CIPRO keeps records of all intellectual works as well as the details of the people who created them and their proprietors. CIPRO came about from merger between the former South African Companies Registration Office (SACRO) and the South African Patents Trade Marks Office (SAPTO). Intellectual property law or rights may slightly vary from country to country or on a national to an international scale but in principle intellectual property rights or more precisely intellectual property rights enforcement is the same. The purpose of intellectual property rights is to control and regulate the use of intellectual goods.

Intellectual property rights are a way to regulate and monitor how information is distributed (Adler, 2001). Plagiarism directly infringes on the intellectual property rights of an individual. Intellectual property rights ensure that the so-called “plagiarisers” do not capitalise on other people’s ideas or knowledge but instead that they use their own knowledge to create original work. Conversely, Adler (2001) argues that intellectual rights not only protect intellectual property but restrict access to knowledge as it is owned by particular individuals. Businesses may invoke their intellectual property rights just so they reduce competition between them and other businesses.

For purposes of learning and development however, intellectual property rights are seen as slowing down the dissemination of information as permissions have to be granted prior to accessing or using a certain idea or design. Since intellectual rights are enforceable by law, violating the terms and conditions or the misuse of intellectual property is prosecutable by law. People who violate the terms and conditions as underlined in a particular country or locations may face more than just accusation of plagiarism, they may face criminal charges.
Furthermore, the structure and the amount (quality and quantity) of knowledge possessed by an individual may influence how they accumulate and process new knowledge. Smith (2002:15) argues that an individual normally uses the information they have in order to adapt to other forms of knowledge. For this reason the students learning processes may be amplified or restricted depending on the structure and the amount of the knowledge they already possess and bring to the classroom. Academic achievements may be determined by whether students bring to the classroom less valued or more valued information or knowledge. The institutionally valued type of information is normally reduced to the students’ natural talent (Bourdieu, 1993).

The ‘naturally’ talented students will often succeed academically and their academic success may increase their chances of employment. As stated by Powell and Snellman (2004) there is a correlation between the levels of formal education received by the students and their employment. Plagiarism in this instance may be viewed as a way of achieving academic success and acquiring the qualifications needed for employment. The ‘natural talents’ as indicated by Bourdieu may produce stratified and unequal knowledge capacities (Bourdieu, 1993).

While some students are placed at an advantage because of the knowledge they have others are disadvantaged. In terms of the knowledge economy, the knowledge embodied by the students’ and that they bring to the classroom could be referred to as tacit knowledge. Tacit knowledge is the type of knowledge that is hard to transfer as the actors themselves are not sure how this knowledge occurs. Adler (2001) explains that tacit knowledge is especially hard to transfer as it is knowledge that cannot be taught, it is hidden knowledge and therefore it is knowledge that is tricky to capitalise on.

Families unconsciously or subconsciously equip various generations with a type of tacit knowledge or hidden knowledge. Students’ then, use this tacit knowledge to adapt and process various other types of information they come across. This type of knowledge equivalent to cultural capital (covered in-depth later in the study). Cultural capital for instance refers to both intangible and tangible resources transmitted through the family. These tangible and intangible goods according to Bourdieu and various other authors are linked with the students’ academic achievements. Tacit knowledge then can be viewed as a type of cultural capital and cultural capital as increasing the students’ knowledge capacity.
2.2.3 Academic and social constructions of ‘originality’

According to Pennycook (1996:206-207) creating something new rests a great deal on constantly reviewing the old, thus the new always holds within it accents of the old. There is a continuous interplay between what is new and old. Thus within the term “new” are several borrowings and pretended originalities. Language is marked by constant circulation and recirculation of words and ideas therefore accepting textual borrowing or recycling as a process of creativity is better than romanticised attempts to define originality. People should seek only to “think it again” in different ways, that is the only way to be original. This is because something cannot be created out of nothing. Human beings are not born knowing, but they have the capacity to learn which requires a significant amount of imitation (Pecorari, 2003).

Kutz et al., (2011:17) suggests that most of what we write has probably existed in many contexts before. The words written by the individual are a product of the work they have been exposed to and have interacted with. The notion of “originality” is attached to out-dated and romanticised ideas of creativity that suggest a person can create work solely unique to them isolated from their environment (Howard, 1995; Johnson-Eilola and Selber, 2007: 378). Knowledge, whether general or academic is cumulative rather than individualistic, it is formulated collectively and collaboratively rather than individualistically (Howard, 1995: 789-791).

Johnson-Eilola and Selber (2007: 378) suggest that academic writing comprises of a more acceptable form of plagiarism. This is because institutions devalue normative ideas of “originality”, rewarding work that is extensively supported through citations. Academic writing is presented as a social phenomenon rather than a solitary one which reinforces the notion of collaborative effort between the students and the source text. The process of reading is a collaborative process in itself between the reader and the writer, the student and the authored material. When students read they engage with the authors ideas, which can form the basis of their own ideas. The student for instance can use the source text as the basis of their argument or to support their argument.

The twenty-first century is characterised by what is known as a "remix culture” which is also a prominent feature of academic writing (Johnson-Eilola and Selber, 2007: 375). This is because academic guidelines to producing original work consist of paraphrasing,
summarising, quoting and citing source text in support of one’s own ideas (Kumar, Priya, Musalaiah, and Nagasree, 2015: 193). To Kumar et al. (2015) academically originality is evaluated through analysing the students’ ideas rather than those found in the source text. Lecturers evaluate the student’s problem solving skills and their ability to interpret and understand the source material. Academic sources and citations show the lecturer that the student has critically engaged with the source material (Johnson-Eilola and Selber, 2007: 376).

Originality is thus the ability of the student to balance between the source text and their own ideas. The main function of source text is legitimising the students argument through support or the amplification of ideas (Johnson-Eilola and Selber 2007; Kumar et al. 2015). The objective is not to formulate and argument from thin air, it is introducing different perspectives to different subject matters. It is to elaborate further or “think again” as Pennycook (1996) indicated. Johnson-Eilola and Selber (2007:378) state that originality academically is characterised by the student’s ability to remix, restructure, reinvent, reconceive, revitalise, reorganise and reuse what they have learnt. Plagiarism is less about stealing but about distinguishing the ideas of others in relation to the students own.

Kumar et al. (2015) on the other hand suggests that originality in academia is about students proving that they have extensively reviewed scholarly documents, articles, and journals to lay the foundations to their own work. When the students present an academic piece in the form of an assignment, dissertation or publication, they need to demonstrate explicitly that they have done their research in a particular field through references. As a result the citations demonstrate to the academic community that one is knowledgeable and that they have contributed to existing literature.

In addition, institutions require that students be open about their borrowings as opposed to concealing them or claiming them as their own (academic honesty as opposed to dishonesty) (Johnson-Eilola and Selber 2007: 399). Pecorari (2003: 318) suggests that plagiarism to an extent is a developmental tool as writing is not inherited; it is a skill that deserves constant nurturing as individuals do not become good writers overnight. They need constant guidance from other writers that came before them in order to find their own writing style and develop their voice. Writing is a process relying heavily on the work an individual has been exposed to, and accumulated over time as opposed to a skill unique to a particular individual.
Howard (1995: 789) argues that the failure by the lecturers to recognise plagiarism as a developmental tool is detrimental to the students learning processes. Specifically types of plagiarism such as patchwriting are a necessity, a way for the students to develop their authorial voice, build their confidence and gain textual control. Pennycook, (1996:213) and Howard (1995) thus point to the hypocrisy of the academic world for its emphasis on creativity and original thinking, while stressing that students’ constantly draw their ideas from pre-existing literature and to reference.

McKay (2014) and Kumar et al. (2015: 194-195) suggest that student plagiarism is analysed through two criteria’s, minor and major. What is analysed is the degree to which the student has incorporated un-cited work from the source into their own work. ‘Originality’ is determined through the evaluation of the amount of the source text incited. Punishments for the apparent or alleged plagiarism are contingent on extent to which one has plagiarised (Kumar et al. 2015: 195). A range of punishments could be issued, from the students redoing their work, receiving a zero mark, suspension, expulsion, loss of reputation or even facing criminal charges (dependent on the extent of the plagiarism).

According to Howard (1995: 788-797) institutions define plagiarism in moral terms thus referring to it as academic dishonesty. In so doing they alienate the students because they do not account for student intentions, cultural diversity, societal beliefs, values and their academic background in the form of the literacy training they have received over time. Moreover institutional policies do not accommodate for the ever-changing contextual issues associated with student plagiarism. Plagiarism should therefore be viewed in terms of the conditions it arises, the different contexts it arises and manifests from.

In the University of KwaZulu-Natal policy and procedure document for example, as authored by Vithal (2009: 3-4) plagiarism is defined as constituted by (but not limited to); “any attempt to pass another person’s work as one’s own as means to mislead and deceive the reader”. This could occur through the failure to acknowledge properly or correctly the original source. The original source could be printed and electronic text, images, sounds, performances and other creative works. However, this definition does little in accounting for social context and the social conditions to which text arises.
2.3 Defining plagiarism: forms, types and sources of plagiarism

2.3.1 Plagiarism

General definitions of plagiarism revolve around the idea that plagiarism is an act of taking, claiming and using other people’s thoughts, interpretations, ideas and illustrations without acknowledgment or consent from the original author (Parmley 2000; Park 2003; Ercegovac and Richardson 2004). According to Ercegovac and Richardson (2004) and Stephens (2009) some cases of plagiarism can go unnoticed because an up-to-date bibliography is not enough to avoid plagiarism. Plagiarism includes, improper paraphrasing and summarising, the use of texts without quotation marks and the use of information beyond what is considered common knowledge (Parker, 2003). McKay (2014) also explains that excessively quoting other people’s work also constitutes plagiarism. Other forms of plagiarism include altering words, grammatical structures, and the exchange of synonyms (Hosny and Fatima, 2014: 3).

Plagiarism not only undermines work that has been previously published but interrupts other author’s chances to produce serious discussions and conclusions in particular subject matters (Williams, 2007). Clearly, the concept of plagiarism does not conform to any one definition and results in countless purposeful and unintentional academic writing mishaps (Larkham and Manns, 2002; Pecorari, 2003; Park, 2004). The majority of these are usually unintentional rather than purposeful (Gunnarsson, Kulesza and Pettersson, 2014). Regardless of the intent plagiarism is still considered unacceptable, as it is associated with unethical behaviours such as cheating on examinations, fabrication and duplication of research findings and false declarations (Li and Casanave, 2012; Park, 2004: 292).

Deliberate acts of plagiarism include, downloading work directly from the internet and inserting it in one’s assessment or assignment through various copy and paste methods. It includes copying or buying another person’s work and claiming it as one’s own. The students may go as far as hiring ghost writers, the ghost writer may be a friend, colleague or relative (Glendinning, 2014: 16). Unintentional plagiarism can be caused by the student believing that the author’s thoughts are their own, unfamiliarity with academic discourse, or a failure to express themselves (Pecorari, 2006).

Plagiarism could be perceived as a moral issue or an attack on another person’s human right (Park, 2003: 472). Ho and Koo (1995) assert that for a person to claim work that has taken months or years to gather and publish as their own in a matter of minutes is not only a matter of breaking sanctions or laws but a moral issue. Plagiarism can be seen as an unethical
practice because writing and publishing work is tedious and time consuming (Robinson, 2014). This is especially true for the publishers as plagiarism for them may result in an increased workload, as they may be forced to invest resources to investigate alleged plagiarism and to carry out retractions of the published work.

The issue of plagiarism contains “a complex cluster of social practices” (Robinson, 2014: 266). When a person is found guilty of plagiarism it not only affects their reputation but the institutions and publishing company’s reputation as well. It lowers confidence in a particular author, institution and publishing company. The loss of prestige of a particular institution may go as far as affecting the student’s career prospects (Robinson, 2014). Kolich (1983) suggests that lecturers are especially hesitant to understand the student perspectives on why they plagiarise because plagiarism ultimately reflects badly on them. It reflects a lack of competence for the lecturer and the students’ ability to make fools out of them. Thus punishments for plagiarism are administered not only to combat plagiarism but as an attempt to save face by the lecturers.

On the other hand Sentleng and King (2012) state that in spoken language we are rarely required to quote what we are saying. Individuals freely share ideas all the time in different kinds of interactions but are never required to cite each and every word that comes out of their mouths. This is therefore contrary to the norms of academia which require citations and references in assignments and other academic essays (Ting et al. 2014). Consequently this confuses the students because when plagiarism occurs within the social sphere it is viewed as acceptable and does not warrant further pursuit which conflicts to the set of expectations held in academia (Anderson and Steneck 2011:91).

Koul et al., (2009:511) proposes that academics are stricter or overly against plagiarism in academia in order to reduce competition in the academic field. In academia education is considered a valuable resource which can result in the further attainment of other resources, economic and social (education results in social mobility that can be attained through one’s qualifications). Thus it is considered a valuable commodity desired by most but can be accessed by a few who adhere to academic conventions and excel in their disciplines. The academic community acts as gatekeepers ensuring that truly deserving individuals have access to academic circles. The more the academic community ‘gate keeps’ against undeserving students or individuals, the more the value of education increases resulting in its exclusivity.
Hence, the more successful the academics are in policing plagiarism, the more guarantees that a small number of truly exceptional individuals enter into academia. Often the strict policing of plagiarism will form stratifications between academics and the layperson (Anderson and Steneck, 2011). These stratifications are a result of the value placed on different types of knowledge in society. Academic knowledge is a type of privileged or privileging discourse in that it is not open to every individual and not all people pursue academics. Individuals with this type of knowledge are often perceived as being educated and knowledgeable in their fields. Left unchecked or unregulated plagiarism undermines the value of academic knowledge as anyone can mindlessly pass-off work as their own without having put any effort in what they are doing.

Practices of learning how not to plagiarise are common from undergraduate to postgraduate years of study (Stephens 2009:57). Indicated by Vithal (2009) in The University of KwaZulu-Natal policy and procedure document plagiarism is theft or fraud and will be treated as such. In particular, plagiarism amongst senior and postgraduates students will be treated as a disciplinary offence, but viewed as a developmental and educational issue for students in early graduate years (Vithal, 2009). As a result, institutional efforts to deter students from plagiarising are focused mainly on postgraduate students and doctoral students who are publishing their dissertation and theses papers (Glendinning, 2014: 13-14).

Institutional attention and effort needs to be directed to the development of the students’ academic writing skills, promotion of good academic conduct and practice throughout the duration of their years in university. Additionally, academic institutions need to ensure they adequately disseminate information to the students about plagiarism so they are aware of the correct academic writing practices and the institutional policies and procedures in place. Institutions could also initiate, on an on-going basis, developmental training courses for both the staff and the students in an attempt to improve their academic writing skills. Acts of plagiarism and other forms of academic dishonesty evolve over time and so developmental training courses would assist institutions adapt and accommodate for changes and issues associated with plagiarism that may arise over time.

In addition institutional honour codes could be implemented as a way of deterring student plagiarism (McCabe, Trevino and Butterfield, 2001; Park, 2003; McKay, 2014). Institutions would go about this by speaking and addressing instances of plagiarism openly and publicly in campuses. The honour or ethics codes would be implemented and enforced on an
organisational, campus and student level (McCabe et al., 2001). To McCabe et al. (2001) honour codes are about facilitating an environment with an atmosphere that promotes academic honesty. This atmosphere would be created by strongly embedding onto the students’ institutional policies and procedures, in a way that they internalise them and abide by them. This internalisation of acceptable academic norms and practices will overtime create a sort of campus culture or student culture where students are less likely to plagiarise.

McKay (2014: 1318) further suggests that institutions conduct public pledges that promote academic integrity and that all academic assignments must be accompanied by student declarations. Prior to submitting the students would be required to sign declarations that stating that their work is in fact theirs and original. McCabe et al. (2001: 220-225) cautions against the overreliance on honour codes as they are not a guaranteed way of eliminating plagiarism. The authors explain that honour codes might have less impact on larger campuses and that institutions might run the risk of having long standing honour codes which are improperly coordinated therefore ineffective. In addition institutions may have honour codes in place but students may feign ignorance of when they are caught plagiarising (McKay, 2014: 1324).

East (2006:18) proposes for there to be a deconstruction of plagiarism for students to understand what it is. This is because students are usually told that plagiarism is wrong and that they should not do it and are taught correct citation methods and techniques. The issue of plagiarism is seldom deconstructed to for the students, through teaching the students about the various complexities associated with defining plagiarism. Deconstructing plagiarism would assist the lecturers avoid the oversimplification of the issues associated with plagiarism thus providing proper guidelines for the students to follow on what is acceptable and unacceptable textual borrowing. This could be one way of ensuring that students become competent writers and improving their learning experiences in academic discourse.

Alternatively, since student ideas on plagiarism may be underpinned by their historical cultural assumptions (Gunnarsson et al., 2014:414). Thus deterring plagiarism with punishments and sanctions may be futile unless the students are explicitly taught of the Western expectations they need to adjust to. This is why universities should give critical consideration to student background, how their pre-university experiences, socio-cultural, economic and academic backgrounds might impact their understanding of academic discourse (Dawson and Overfield, 2006). Universities ought to formulate context based
education on plagiarism that accommodates the students’ experiences. They should communicate effectively their policies of plagiarism to the students (Macdonald and Carroll, 2006).

2.3.2 Improper citation

According to Larkham and Manns (2002), Park (2004), Pecorari (2006), Sentleng and King (2012), Gunnarsson (2014), Hosny and Fatima (2014), Sutton, Taylor and Johnston (2014) plagiarism can occur as a result incorrect paraphrasing, writing texts without quotation marks, the alteration and exchange of synonyms and grammatical structures while keeping the general idea of the original author. Moreover plagiarism is copying passages of written sources whether published or not without acknowledgement. Plagiarism is a failure to use proper citation methods, such as footnoting, end-noting, in-text referencing or the failure to produce an up-to-date bibliography. Essentially written text that goes beyond what is considered common knowledge has to be referenced otherwise it is considered plagiarised.

2.3.3 Copy and paste

Buete et al. (2008) explains that students rarely commit plagiarism by coping from their peers. Students would rather use cut and paste methods readily available through the use of the internet. In addition students approach paper mills, hire ghost writers, etc. (McKeever, 2006; Embleton and Helfer, 2007). Copy and paste is when the students copy’s an academic essay or assignment word-for-word from a source with no alterations (considered as intentional plagiarism). Students will often do this without acknowledging the information source. Plagiarism through cut and paste techniques, is the most easily detectable as the lecturers can use anti-plagiarism software’s specifically created to deter student plagiarism from the internet (Scanlon and Neumann, 2002; Howard, 2007; Glendinning, 2014).

2.3.4 Patchwriting

According to Pecorari (2003) patchwriting is most often committed by NNES or ESL students because of their inexperience and lack of textual control. Textual control refers to the student’s ability to master academic writing conventions (Pineteh, 2013). Patchwriting is marked by a constant struggle for students to master academic writing (Thompson, 2005). Thus the students develop their academic identities through different acceptable and unacceptable strategies such as patchwriting which is most prevalent amongst novice or ESL students. Patchwriting occurs when students follow too closely the ideas of the original
author (Pecorari, 2003). For example the students will have different summaries from different sources patched together in their academic essays rather than expressing their own ideas.

Gu and Brooks (2008) suggest patchwriting takes place when students are confused about paraphrasing, when they struggle to present their own ideas and when they are trying to familiarise themselves with a language different from their own. McKay (2014:1317) suggests that if the students’ home language differs from the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) students will struggle academically. These students will tend to be weak academically as opposed to students with a home language similar to that of the LoLT. As a result the academically weak students will often try and exchange synonyms and change the structure of the passage while retaining much of the original author’s ideas (Gu and Brooks, 2008; McKay, 2014).

Gu and Brooks (2008) claim that although patchwriting constitutes textual plagiarism it is often perceived by lecturers as a valuable component in developing the students writing abilities. Patchwriting is classified as unintentional plagiarism. It is considered as a developmental tool for the students to familiarise themselves with a particular author’s language and ideas. It is hoped that through patchwriting the students will over time learn to develop their own voices from the materials they have read. Thus recognising patchwriting as intentional plagiarism would be detrimental to the students learning processes and they would not grow as writers.

McKay (2014: 1315) proposes that tertiary institutions adopt a “prevention and development approach”. The approach consists of different mixed strategies of dealing with student plagiarism. For example, the enforcement of institutional honour codes through the signing of declarations, formalisation of research ethics courses, employment of tutors, institutional awareness initiatives. Additional ways to deter plagiarism would include one-on-one consultations with students by lectures and tutors and also student resubmissions of assignments.

According to McKay (2014), the prevention and development approach is a more effective way of dealing with plagiarism unlike the acceptance of patchwriting which promotes rewriting material. The approach would offer students with a deeper understanding of academic discourse which would improve their academic literacy over time. McKay (2014:
does however note that the prevention and development approach is “time and human resource intensive”.

2.3.5 Collusion

According to Sutton et al. (2014) collusion is when a group of students work together to deceive the lecturer. Students do this by collectively working on an individual assignment together and then submitting similar work together. Collusion can also occur when a student gives their work to another student to copy or when a student does work as part of a group but does not acknowledge the other group members (Park, 2004). There is often confusion differentiating between collusion and collaboration. Collusion and collaboration have similar features in that students work together as means of completing their work. Collaboration however, is when two or more students work together towards a common goal (Razera, 2011:12).

Collaboration is essential in developing the students’ critical thinking abilities in that they get the opportunity to be exposed to different ideas and opinions. This allows the students to be able to develop well-rounded discussions on topics having considered different perspectives from their group members and peers. Instances of collusion occur regularly in collectivist societies such as Asian societies (e.g. Japanese and Chinese students) over societies valuing individual achievements such as Western societies (Pecorari, 2003; Sutton et al., 2014; Ting et al., 2014:75). Ting (2014) states that Asian societies tend to value society as a whole over the individual. Individual contributions in these societies are less valued.

To help deter collusion amongst the students the University of KwaZulu-Natal policy and procedure document states that:

“3.6 Where a group of students are required to all contribute to the creation of work, the work must correctly reflect the contributions made (where a single piece of work is collectively generated, all of the group must carry responsibility for that piece of work);

3.7 Where a published work contains the name of more than one author, each must have made a contribution to the work.”

(Vithal, 2009:4)

Unlike Pecorari (2003); Sutton et al. (2014); Ting et al. (2014:75), the University does not recognise student background and ethnicity as having any influence on collusion. The policy addresses mainly issues pertaining to collaboration or collaborative efforts.
2.3.6 Internet plagiarism

Plagiarism is as old as writing itself and with increased internet accessibility it is on the rise (Park, 2003; Howard, 2007; Razera De Azevedo, 2011). Rapidly accessible information such as eBooks, electronic journals and other downloadable sources on the internet make it nearly impossible to safeguard against plagiarism (Ashworth, Bannister, Thorne, 1997: 187). Internet plagiarism detection tools such as Turnitin, plagiarism.net, plagtracker and so on were developed in response to the growth of internet plagiarism (Scanlon and Neumann, 2002; Howard, 2007 Glendinning, 2014). The various anti-plagiarism detection software tools however are not always able to detect similarities to indicate whether plagiarism has occurred or not. In particular if documents are not in the databases anti-plagiarism detection tools are of no use.

Studies reveal that students plagiarise from both conventional sources such as text books as well as internet sources (Schrimsher, 2011: 3-4). Plagiarism either from hardcopy books and journals has always existed but with the use of the internet as a source of learning, opportunities to plagiarise have expanded greatly (Park, 2003; Ali, Ismail and Cheat, 2012). Rapidly accessible information such as eBooks, electronic journals and other downloadable sources on the internet and the lack of their regulation have made it nearly impossible to safeguard against plagiarism (Ashworth et al., 1997: 187). Preventative measures against plagiarism are hard to accomplish mainly because students are deeply immersed in a world where they are able to easily download documents, music and movies free online without any restrictions (Park, 2003:481; Wood 2004; Ali et al. 2012).

Scanlon and Neumann (2002:377-378) and Howard (2007) suggest that students use the internet to search for sources and cut and paste into their documents, solicit papers from others, and purchase papers online. Online plagiarism includes copying text and inserting in a paper or assignment, copying entire papers without citation, buying custom papers online and handing in someone else’s work (including other students) without acknowledging the sources. Wood (2004: 237) suggests that this is because the students today live in a highly technological era. They are constantly engaging with these technologies, going on the internet, streaming videos, downloading files and sharing them with their peers, and so on.

Ellery (2008:611-612) suggests that student plagiarism from electronic sources is facilitated by the students’ differences in handling electronic sources and print sources. The students treat electronic sources differently than print resources in that they view the latter as more
authoritative. In high schools students are taught with single sources often text books. The internet has vast amounts of information both accredited and unsubstantiated which may foster a culture of heavy reliance on some questionable sources (Howard, 2007; Li and Casanave, 2012; Averill and Lewis, 2013). Students who have access to the internet may fall victim to plagiarism because of their failure to distinguish between credible and unreliable sources (Li and Casanave, 2012).

The students may regard the information they find on the internet fair game because they are unable to distinguish their differences in value. For instance, students may fail to distinguish between the value of the information they find on a personal blog and a recognised scholarly journal. Embleton and Helfer (2007:23) state that the internet has made plagiarism or academic dishonesty significantly easier and faster and it is for this reason it has been blamed for the decline in academic integrity. Plagiarism detection websites’ such as Turnitin, plagiarism.net and plagtracker etc. although helpful do not solve the issue of plagiarism as the students find different ways to evade them (Gunnarsson, 2014).

The students may do this by rearranging words which is referred to as the ‘judicious use of synonyms’, some students may go as far as buying papers from other students or ghost writing companies and buying customised papers online (McKeever, 2006; Embleton and Helfer, 2007). In addition, there are different strengths and limitations associated with anti-plagiarism software. For instance, while considered as plagiarism detection tools anti-plagiarism websites are reliant on human judgement. The purpose of these websites is solely to check similarities between one’s work against documents and papers already published or uploaded onto the internet. On their own these plagiarism detection tools cannot determine whether one has plagiarised or not. As a result the human support component of these websites could be considered a weakness.

Moreover, the more the students become “technologically savvy” (good at using computers) the harder it is to tell whether they have plagiarised from the internet or not (Ercegovac and Richardson, 2004:309). Fiedler and Kaner (2010) uncovered that various plagiarism detection websites such as Turnitin and MyDropBox (Safe Assignments) did not include password protected academic materials (journals and dissertations). These websites were only able to detect materials or text copied from the open web or public websites. Similarly McKay (2014:1320) states that plagiarism detection software tools are an inefficient way of policing plagiarism because they only check for plagiarism against what is on the internet, thus
password protected materials and printed materials are vulnerable to student plagiarism. Additionally, students can fake references (both in-text and out-text references, as a way of evading anti-plagiarism software.

Fiedler and Kaner (2010) along with McKay (2014) therefore advocated for using mixed methods of dealing with plagiarism. Lecturers would be required to check again the students’ work after their work had been checked by the anti-plagiarism software. Moreover, Beute et al. (2008: 202) argues that anti-plagiarism software’s only detect plagiarism after it had been committed. Li and Casanave (2012) assert that anti-plagiarism software only identifies copied texts but cannot account for the students’ intentions. Anti-plagiarism software’s are devoid of any educational value for the students and therefore a superficial way of trying to decrease plagiarism. Institutions should implement different strategies to educate students on issues associated with internet plagiarism (Howard, 2007). The goal should be to deter students from plagiarism in the first instance not to catch them when they plagiarise.

2.3.7 Self-plagiarism

Robinson (2014) defines self-plagiarism as, redundant dual duplicates. According to Stephens (2009:57) it involves having similar work being published by the same author (or student), submitting work or a journal to two different institutions. Moreover, when an author references himself and fails to reference contributions from other individuals who have done similar studies. Additional ways to duplicate work include, writing using different languages, or citing work as being done by completely different authors, this can be done by providing an appearance of further data, or combining data (Robinson, 2014:267). Self-plagiarism is a serious violation of academic norms, the fact that the work plagiarised is one’s own does not make it any less serious (Hudson, 2010:73).

When a person plagiarises themselves by repeating words and ideas that already exist they disrupt the contributions made in a particular field (Boquiren, Creed, and Shapiro, 2006; Anderson and Steneck, 2011). It undermines the efforts of those who have made significant contributions to the field. According to Robinson (2014) and Li and Casanave (2012) the perceived seriousness of self-plagiarism varies across different academic disciplines. For example one discipline such as the natural sciences might consider work self-plagiarised but when the same case arises from the humanities it may not be necessarily considered plagiarism. This is because different disciplines hold specific attitudes regarding detecting plagiarism (Abasi and Graves, 2008).
Both students and people can intentionally or unintentionally self-plagiarise, for one specific fact, the style in which one author writes can be similar, an academics passion or area of expertise may inspire a similarity in their findings. Experienced academics and researchers self-plagiarise for various reasons. It could be due to time restrictions, intense pressure to publish and advance one’s career, gaining status and acclaim and money (Lancet, 2009; Robinson, 2014). Robinson (2014) states that, self-plagiarism slightly differs from the ‘normal’ kind of plagiarism. Self-plagiarism as ‘theft’ insufficiently covers the issue because it is considered impossible to steal from one's self. At most self-plagiarism is a crime of misrepresentation of data, where the author gives the illusion of having found further information in a certain area when they have not.

Alternatively Robinson (2014) considers the fact that text-recycling might be a good thing rather than a bad thing. Some academics do not mind this text-cycling phenomenon because they view it as a way to provide more polished or clearer results. It might help widen, or extend a particular area of interest, and certain concepts or theories could be associated with a particular author.

2.4 Plagiarism policies

2.4.1 International policies on plagiarism

Horn (2013: 21) asserts that there are four principles of good academic integrity; these are honesty, accountability, professional courtesy and fairness. These principles were formulated on the 22nd of September 2010 in the Second World Conference on Research integrity; the principles were formulated by 380 individuals from 51 countries across the globe. In academic communities research is based on trust; trust that an individual is presenting valid research findings. In addition, there is evidence to suggest a correlation between unethical research behaviours committed by academic staff and the prevalence of student plagiarism (Horn, 2013; Sheikh and Mohamed, 2015; Thomas and De Bruin, 2015). Consequently, academic staff that engages in unethical academic behaviours are reluctant to report students who commit similar transgressions which further perpetuates the prevalence of plagiarism (Thomas and De Bruin, 2015: 2).

Accountability on a national, institutional and individual level is required in order to rectify the prevalence of plagiarism (Horn, 2013). Across nations academics should always be aware of international conferences, policies and initiatives to promote research integrity. Institutional courses on ethics should be conducted for both staff members and students.
Academic staff should try and adhere to producing good quality and ethical research so these behaviours trickle down to students. Essentially, policies and procedures on plagiarism should be implemented and adapted accordingly nationally and institutionally. For example, academic institutions should adopt policies that are in line with their country’s copyright and plagiarism laws.

2.4.2 National policies on plagiarism and copyright infringement

According to the Publishers Association of South Africa (PASA) guide (2007), the only difference between plagiarism and copyright infringement is that while a violation of copyrights constitutes breaking the law plagiarism has an element of dishonesty and deceit. According to the PASA guide (2007) an individual need not do anything to get copyrights in South Africa. An individual’s copyrights are automatically invoked from the time they create their work (published or unpublished work). The originator, author, inventor of a particular material (book, video, image, etc.) has the right to challenge whomever they feel has stolen their material. They only need to provide or produce proof (records) of their work so it is recognised as theirs in the eyes of the law. In South Africa copyrights last for the duration of the author’s life plus an additional 50 years from the year the author dies.

Thomas and De Bruin (2015:1-3) in their study based on 317 Management journals in South Africa discovered that government subsidies (funding) paid to the Department of Higher Education Training (DHET) may be a contributing factor in plagiarism. Approximately R 120 000 is paid by the government for each peer reviewed article published by a member of a higher education institution. An estimated R 32 400 000 was paid by the government for the 317 Management journals reviewed for plagiarism. Thomas and De Bruin (2015) discovered that 21.3% of the 317 journals reviewed were excessively plagiarised, worth an estimated R 7 000 000 in subsidiary money paid by government to higher institutions.

It is not the incentives that are an issue but the pressure for academics to publish, the pressure to publish results in an academic culture that encourages quantity over quality (Thomas and De Bruin, 2015). Higher Education institutions become more output oriented so they can reap the rewards, in a form of government subsidies, promotions, and recognition as opposed to focusing on producing good quality research papers (Sheikh and Mohamed, 2015). Additionally Sheikh and Mohamed (2015) argue that developing countries such as South Africa lack sufficient resources needed to make significant research contributions or rather producing new ground-breaking contributions as in developed countries. Thus the lack of
resources and pressure for institutions (academic staff) to publish stimulates academic dishonesty amongst the academics. Academics forgo ethical considerations associated with good academic research.

Glenn (2006) acknowledges plagiarism in the academic sphere but addresses specifically the issue of media and journalism in post-apartheid South Africa. The author asserts that South Africa has a long way to go in terms of addressing plagiarism in both the academic and media sphere. Compared to developed countries such as the United States of America, South Africa is not as open in dealing with the issues of intellectual property theft and plagiarism. For instance there are a few people who lodge and pursue intellectual property theft claims in South Africa (Glenn, 2006).

An additional issue associated with plagiarism is the commercialisation of words. Commercialising words encourages individuals to recycle texts especially in journalism not only because of the pressure to publish but as means of cutting costs and for profit (Glenn, 2006: 125). Glenn (2006) explains that the abundance of foreign material coming from developed countries (books, magazines, newspapers, materials found in the internet) coming in to South Africa makes it that much easier for South Africans to recycle and localise content. It becomes a matter of slightly altering names and locations. Thus the author concludes that instances of plagiarism are rampant in South Africa due to the pursuit of profit, a lack of monitoring and the lack of awareness of intellectual property laws (people fail to invoke their intellectual property rights).

2.4.3 University policies and interventions

Plagiarism undermines academic integrity and the idea of scholarly study and qualifications (Walker, 1998: 90). Since, HEI reward students with qualifications in the form of degrees, plagiarism inadvertently ends up undermining the value of the degrees given to them. This is because plagiarism results in the general public thinking that academic staffs within the institutions are not doing their jobs properly in conveying to the students sufficient instructions on how to avoid plagiarism. As result, the credibility of these HEI and the qualifications they offer suffer (trust within and between the institutions and the public suffers).

There is no one strategy that has been formulated and empirically proven to show the effective deterrence of plagiarism (Brown and Howell, 2001). One attempt to curb and
decrease student plagiarism is policy and procedure documents on plagiarism. HEI have in some form or another policy and procedure documents on plagiarism that are constructed in an attempt to guide both students and academic staff in dealing with plagiarism. The issue with these policy and procedure documents on plagiarism is that they are general in nature. They do little to account for the differences in definition that emanate when dealing with plagiarism as plagiarism may mean different things to different individuals (Howard, 2001: 2).

Thus policy and procedure documents on plagiarism may not be a sufficient strategy of dealing, addressing and managing the issue of plagiarism in HEI on their own. Moreover, lecturers task the students with the activity of seeking and reading these policy and procedure documents. It is left to the students to read these institutional policies and procedure documents on plagiarism (Howard, 2001). Lecturers could try to be more proactive in directing and defining to the students these documents. According to Howard (2001: 2) and Walker (1998: 95) lecturers could do more in assisting the students put into context the concept of plagiarism by discussing different contexts in which plagiarism can occur.

In addition, both the lecturers and policies should emphasise not only definition and context of plagiarism but they should emphasise the severity of the act of plagiarising (Brown and Howell, 2001). Emphasising the severity of plagiarism is important in that, students would not perceive plagiarism as less of an offence. Brown and Howell (2001: 115) assert that highlighting the severity of plagiarism to students would alter their perceptions of the concept. The increased perception in the severity of plagiarism will discourage the students from plagiarising. In addition, another strategy that might assist in portraying to the students the seriousness of plagiarism are clearly written, unambiguous, precise policy and procedure documents on plagiarism (Walker, 1998; Brown and Howell, 2001).

Carefully worded documents may limit misunderstandings amongst students and academic staff members. Furthermore, academic staff would be able to identify and deal will plagiarism as indicated in the policy and procedure documents instead of randomly dealing with plagiarism as they saw fit. Additional strategies in dealing with plagiarism include the construction of faculty based policies (Walker, 1998). Faculty based policies would be accompanied by faculty members overseeing the implementation and enforcement of these policies.
Additionally, procedures on plagiarism and ways to produce good ethical research should be visible, easily accessible and well-advertised on a national and institutional level (Horn, 2013:24). Moreover, universities need to be aware of where they are located and the demographics of students who enrol within them just as in the case with Stellenbosch University. The university integrated both English and Afrikaans as mediums of instruction because a large majority of students spoke Afrikaans (Van der Walt and Dornbrack, 2011). Thomas and De Bruin (2015: 2) on the other hand since observing that multiple authored material contained significantly less plagiarised material propose strict peer review as another solution to dealing with plagiarism.

**PART TWO:**

**2.5 Plagiarism, culture and identity**

**2.5.1 Cultural attitudes towards plagiarism**

Culture is an abstract concept that can be used to describe a series of social phenomena; particularly culture describes the patterning or patterned behaviour of individuals (Patterson et al., 2010). Culture is not reducible only to a certain group of people and individuals and their practices but the concept of culture may refer to context. Context has the ability to shape and influence individuals from different cultures in a way that they conform and organise their behaviours in a way that is acceptable within their environment. Therefore, from different contexts arises different cultures and so even individuals of the same ‘culture’ may be diversified by the various subcultures existing within and between the contexts they occupy.

East (2006:17) argues the existence of academic culture, stating that academic culture is unintentionally exclusive. The academic world inadvertently imposes its cultural values on the students without acknowledging their social positioning. It is accepting of those who are already participating in academic culture but excludes those who struggle and who are newcomers. Thus in instances where students are unaware of academic norms, values and practices, academia gradually ensures that they become ‘acculturated’. Prior to the acculturation process the academic world excludes newcomers and novice writers positioning them as outsiders. Only after the students transcend their own cultures and assimilate to academic culture they become recognised as part of the academic community.
The students are expected to conform to institutional practices in academic culture. In this process they are guided by lecturers charged with the role of familiarising the students with academic discourse. In addition to familiarising the students to academic discourse the lecturers play the role of gatekeeper ensuring the preservation of academic culture. The lecturers achieve their gatekeeping by enforcing institutional rules and instilling fear to all those who do not adhere to academic practices by punishing, expelling and suspending offenders (East, 2006). As a result the students may become less likely to engage in plagiarism because of their awareness of the consequences of being caught plagiarising.

Plagiarism or more precisely the definition of plagiarism is inundated with cultural undertones (Larkham and Manns, 2002; Introna, Hayes, Blair and Wood, 2003; Maxwell, Curtis and Vardanega, 2008; Liu, 2005; Gu and Brooks, 2008). This is not to say that each culture has its own culturally specific definition of plagiarism, more likely that individual attitudes on plagiarism may differ according to cultural context. Liu (2005) particularly argues that it is not plausible to believe that certain cultures promote plagiarism; rather it is more practical to believe that different individuals have different approaches in dealing with plagiarism. These approaches may only be problematic when they are pinned against Western academic standards of evaluation as what one culture may see as improper attribution of texts, others may see as correct (Introna et al., 2003:11).

In this instance, different teaching and learning strategies may facilitate different academic practices within and in-between cultures or countries (Introna et al., 2003: 10). Institutionally there is little consideration for the fact that the concept of plagiarism holds culturally specific ideologies. Sowden (2005:226-227) for instance, explains that the cultural values of multilingual students may sometimes differ to those of Western academic practice as the different cultures may have different ideas of what constitutes plagiarism.

Thus plagiarism may not accommodate to those students coming from non-Western backgrounds (Sutherland-Smith, 2005: 85). For example, Western and Eastern values on the issue of plagiarism differ greatly. However, plagiarism is often judged on the basis of what is considered right in Western societies (Foltýnek, Rybička, and Demoliou, 2014). In most Eastern cultures information is free and something that should be shared, not something that can be owned by any one person, but something that should be passed on (Koul et al., 2009). There is more respect for the people that share information than those who keep it to themselves. Western countries on the other hand hold individual effort and self-reliance in the
highest regard (Koul et al., 2009). According to Koul et al. (2009) in the Japanese culture students in an early age see themselves in relation to the whole group which manifests itself in the classroom.

The students in this culture are more likely to share information with one another in the classroom as they are culturally and socially predisposed to devalue monopoly over information. Additionally, Koul, et al., (2009: 506) highlights that Western and Eastern values on the issue of plagiarism differ greatly because while Western societies value logic above all, Eastern societies are more ‘context’ based. They consider not only the situation but the surrounding factors of that particular situation, and decisions are based on personal relationships. The author therefore sees this as evidence of how culturally based values and customs of each society (the West and the East) influence attitudes on plagiarism. The author further emphasises the fact that differences between these groups cannot be overcome using superficial means as they are on an existential level, therefore dictating meaning and agency between individuals.

When highlighting differences between the East and the West Macfarlane et al. (2014:346) refers to a Chinese cultural practice of "guanxi" which refers to building social connections. This practice includes reciprocation of favours which is highly troublesome in the Western context, where merit is achieved through personal merit rather than social connection. Similar to the study conducted by Koul et al. (2009) into the Japanese student culture, the Chinese culture values sharing information rather than promoting individual successes. They do so because they hold social connections in the highest regard over ideas of individualism.

In some cases and cultures plagiarism may be considered as a sign of humility (Introna et al., 2003). Specifically, this is with regard to the Chinese culture. According to Chan (as cited by Introna et al. 2003) Chinese learning practices are influenced by Confucian Philosophy (Introna et al., 2003; Maxwell et al., 2008; Liu, 2005). Confucian teachings place an emphasis on obedience and respect of authority. In the Chinese culture individuals are taught to respect authoritative figures such as their elders or individuals above their social stations in order to preserve and maintain social harmony (Introna et al., 2003; Maxwell et al. 2008). Introna et al., (2003:14) thus argues that, this culture of obedience and respect may permeate other aspects of the Chinese students’ lives such as their learning and teaching practices.

The Chinese students may commit acts of plagiarism as they may be hesitant to challenge the authority of their knowledge givers. From this context one can conclude that plagiarism to
Chinese students is a sign of respect. Furthermore, this might be considered to mean that culturally diverse students favour or even prefer methods of teaching and learning that are in line with their cultural beliefs and upbringing. Moreover, Chinese students’ teaching and learning practices revolve around memorisation and repetition of text (Introna et al., 2003; Liu, 2005; Maxwell et al., 2008). These techniques are valued and viewed as ideal in the Chinese culture.

While valued in the Chinese culture, these teaching and learning practices may be viewed in other cultures, particularly in the West as poor, as they may comprise what they feel is surface learning. Western teaching practices require students to critically engage with the literature and formulate ideas based on their understandings of what they have read (Introna et al., 2003:15). At times this process of engaging the literature requires that students challenge, critique and discuss the ideas of the author or critique their body of work. In this instance, academic teaching and learning strategies (or ideologies) between the Chinese and the West differ considerably.

Another example of how culture influences attitudes and the perception of plagiarism would be that various European countries can be seen as more sensitive on the issue of plagiarism. This is in contrast to some countries in Eastern Europe who do not consider plagiarism as a serious issue (Foltýnek, et al., 2014: 22). Bennett (2011:55-56) in the academic journal *Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft: The Geopolitics of Academic Plagiarism*, notes an unspecified country in Central Europe as regarding information as something to be shared instead of monopolised. This further highlights the fact that each culture holds itself to a different criterion of detecting and identifying plagiarism (Koul, et al., 2009: 506; Ali, Ismail and Cheat, 2012:605). Hence student plagiarism needs to be understood within a specific context.

Additionally in the Republic of Lithuania, students may not only plagiarise solely due to their cultural ideologies but also due to the fact that their country lacks coherent policies on plagiarism on a national to institutional level. In the Republic of Lithuania plagiarism is not defined on a national level or in legal acts such as “Law on Copyright and Related Rights” and “Law on Higher Education and Research” (Sarlauskiene and Stabingis, 2014: 639). Furthermore author’s Sarlauskiene and Stabingis (2014) note that plagiarism is not addressed in Civil Codes, Criminal Codes or Code of Administrative Offenses. The lack of the definition of plagiarism for the students in Lithuania may foster within them different ideas of
what constitutes plagiarism when compared to students from other countries. As a result these students may perceive, understand and define plagiarism differently to other countries but also amongst themselves.

Special attention should be especially given to non-Western students as the concept of plagiarism may be “culturally conditioned” thus resulting in misunderstandings of plagiarism (Larkham and Manns, 2002). Plagiarism, in this context should be seen as a violation of norms rather than theft. In addition, in a country like South Africa where there is a demographically diverse society, acquiring values, attitudes, norms, beliefs and practices that help prevent plagiarism is a long-term process (Ellery, 2008: 507). The least that academic institutions can do is to be sensitive to where they are located (their surrounding population). Once this is attained, the institutions could then implement policies that are in accordance with the students enrolling within them.

Notwithstanding the East and West dynamic, their academic practices and cultural interpretations of academic institutions may inadvertently enable the incidence of plagiarism. Introna et al. (2003:53-54) argues that in cases where definitions of plagiarism are oversimplified or lack context students’ may impose their own culturally based justifications. The students will use these justifications to bypass the definition of plagiarism in a way that makes the act of plagiarising permissible to them. What is more, students may be easily influenced by peer-behaviour, competition, issues of fairness and issues of trust between lecturer and student in their efforts to justify their plagiarism. Some students may feel that lecturers do not trust them enough to create their own work as they police student plagiarism or in some cases that they are targeting them while letting other offenders get away.

On the other hand, it would be important for academic institutions to recognise that even for students from the West the concept of plagiarism may be an ambiguous concept (Introna et al., 2003; Maxwell et al., 2008). Moreover, recognising plagiarism as culturally conditioned brings its own set of issues. Apart from facilitating the assumption that people of the same culture perceive certain concepts the same, there is no way to safeguard or formulate strategies that could be used to deter plagiarism academically (Liu, 2005).

In view of the fact that tertiary institutions do not primarily accept local students but admit students from all around the world. It would be improbable for institutions to come up with one uniform meaning for the concept of plagiarism that would be able to encapsulate or accommodate each and every culture. Accepting plagiarism as “culturally conditioned”
would therefore force HEI’s to formulate culturally specific (or ethnocentric) strategies. These strategies would be incapable of accommodating for the differences of students enrolling within HEI’s and therefore they will be useless. Thus Liu (2005: 240) suggests that academic resources instead should revolve around improving the students’ language and text handling skills and language development. The author proposes that this would be the strategy most likely to assist in reducing the prevalence of plagiarism amongst culturally diverse students.

2.5.2 Plagiarism and identity

Conventionally academic writing is thought of as scientific and objective rather than a subjective activity. Individuals perceive academic writing conventions as devoid of the “self” and positivist in nature (Hyland, 2002: 1095). Contrary to popular belief academic writing is not isolated from social practice, the way the students write is an expression of their social identities (Abasi and Graves, 2008). Academic writing in a sense is a reflection of ‘who’ an individual or student is, their socio-cultural identity, values and beliefs (Hyland, 2002; Hyland, 2005). Academic writing is an expression of the individual’s judgements, feelings, viewpoints and ultimately their attitudes towards certain topics and subject matters.

Academic writing therefore, cannot be viewed as neutral or context free activity (Hyland, 2002:1092). In fact, writing academic or otherwise can be seen as being ‘as act of identity’ a representation of an individual’s social networks, social relationships and the type of cultural discourses an individual has been exposed to (Hyland, 2002; Pittam, Elander, Lusher, Fox and Payne, 2009). Moreover, an individual’s style of writing could be considered to be associated with how they make sense of the world around them (their interpretations of the world around them). Thus students should be analysed as socially situated actors within the context of a specific situation since their writing is not isolated from social and cultural practice (Pineteh, 2013: 13-20).

The students write in relation to the source or resources (tangible and intangible) they have been exposed to socially, culturally and academically throughout their lives. For instance, one can argue that a student’s choice of words is influenced by the types of discourses they have been exposed to overtime either in the home or prior to coming to a HEI. Furthermore, the students writing practices is affected and influenced by power relations and social relationships. Their writing involves the constant negotiation of these relationships as they facilitate within the students different values and attitudes towards knowledge. In light of this
view, writing is not merely spelling grammar and sentence construction. Writing is a representation of an individual’s communal identity or value system (Hyland, 2005: 175).

When the students engage in writing processes they express unintentionally, how they have been socialised and positioned within a particular social context. For example, students from cultures that value social connections are more likely to perceive information as something to be shared. These students in particular, might experience difficulty when they are required to assume more individualistic identities, often valued in the West or in academic discourse.

Hyland (2002) particularly highlights that ESL or NNES are reluctant to use pronouns such as ‘I’ as they invoke certain level of writer authority and individual responsibility. The author further notes that ESL or NNES specifically have trouble when summoning the authority required in academic writing. This might reflect their difficulties in mastering academic prose or the students’ abilities to express themselves in a language that is not their own. Alternatively, the students might struggle with academic prose as they have to align their views and opinion to those considerably different than theirs. In this context, plagiarism for ESL students represents a struggle to weave their identity into their writing (Abasi et al. 2006). Moreover, writing for ESL students can be more challenging as they are “rooted in different epistemologies” (Hyland, 2002: 1094).

When the students write they are assumed to draw on different aspects of the ‘self’ which namely are the autobiographical self, discourse self and self as author. The autobiographical as shaped by previous history and experiences, discourse self is when the author consciously or unconsciously injects their values, beliefs and power relations onto their writing and self as an author as the position or authority the writer assumes (Ouellette, 2008:255-259). These identities are linked to the development of a writer or authorial identity. Authorial Identity is the level to which a student perceives themselves as a writer (Pittam et al., 2009: 1).

According to Pittam et al. (2009:1) aspects that contribute to authorial identity are confidence in writing, understanding authorship and knowledge to avoid plagiarism. Whether or not students identify as writers influences their writing processes greatly (Pittam et al., 2009; Maguire, Everitt Reynolds and Delahunt 2013). Pittam et al., (2009: 7) asserts that the students’ authorial identity is hindered by the fact that they do not see themselves as authors. They see the title of author as applying to professional writers outside of the academic realm. Plagiarism therefore may manifest due to the students struggle to develop their identity as writers.
Additionally, other factors such as maturity, experience, the students’ first generation status and their reading and writing efficacies influence the students’ development of their writer identities (Maguire et al., 2013: 1111). Within the academic writing context the students are required to rely heavily on other people’s work rather than produce their own ‘original’ work. Inadvertently, multiple source citation may limit the students’ affiliation with the text and therefore their ability to identify as writers. The students may feel as if their opinions are devalued within the academic context (Hyland, 2002: 1094). Pittam et al., (2009: 4) argues that students will most likely see themselves as writers only when they have a strong sense of ownership over the work they are doing. Moreover, they will have more enthusiasm in completing academic writing tasks when they are allowed by their lecturers to choose their own topics rather than being given topics.

Academically, the students are required to demonstrate their understanding of the literature through critiquing; discussing and analysing what they have read. This process enables the students to critically think and gain textual control in order to become competent and diligent writers, contributing to their authorial persona. Authorial persona refers to the students’ personality, confidence, experience and ideological preferences (Hyland, 2005:175). Maguire et al. (2013) and Boakye (2015) propose that the students’ academic self-efficacy, their perceptions and beliefs in their capabilities is a significant factor to whether or not they will plagiarise. Self-efficacy informs the students’ motivation, persistence, resilience and emotional responses (Maguire et al. 2013:1112). Students’ with high self-efficacy are likely to try harder to improve their writing, persisting even when they encounter setbacks (Maguire et al., 2013; Boakye, 2015).

Self-efficacy is separated into two aspects, vicarious experiences, and the students’ perceptions of others doing the same thing and social messages or feedback (positive or negative encouragement and reinforcement) (Maguire et al., 2013). Maguire et al. (2013: 1112-11115) argues that there is a connection between the students’ academic self-efficacy and their development of authorial identity. Rather, academic self-efficacy predicts academic performance and whether students will engage in negative activities such as plagiarism. The author asserts that self-efficacy assists students’ develop their identities as writers by equipping them with confidence as they engage with varied academic tasks. Thus self-efficacy and the development of authorial identity reflect “on-going development processes”.

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It is important for lecturers to understand what or how their students think and perceive their writing in order to give them the adequate support their require. Conversely, since academic discourse is not particularly anyone’s language White (as cited by Ouellette, 2008) rejects the idea of plagiarism arguing that it undermines the purpose of education. The author proposes that students to an extent should be afforded leeway as they develop their academic writing skills instead of being penalised. Similarly, Pineteh, (2013:18) states that the criminalisation of plagiarism provides a platform that leads to the condemnation of the students rather than facilitating an environment where students can grow academically.

Focus should be directed on the development of the students writing skills, literacy skills, and their overall adjustment in the academic arena. Correspondingly, Abasi et al. (2006:102) states that plagiarism is not only an issue that deserves prosecution and punishment but should be viewed and analysed as a “complex issue of learning”. Moreover, in the context of South Africa it is important to note that previously universities could only be accessed by the financially and intellectually privileged. As articulated by Angelil-Carter (2014:9), a substantial number of students in post-apartheid South Africa come from poor educational background and so their primary discourse may be significantly different than that of the university (academic discourse). For this reason, some students may fail to adjust in university.

The students whose language resembles the one valued by the institutions have more chances of succeeding academically. Plagiarism to ESL students or NNES represents complex learning difficulties (Angelil-Carter, 2014). These complexities relate to the nature of the educational environment, the nature of academic discourse, the nature of language and cultural diversity (Larkham and Manns, 2002). In addition they relate to the fact that the students find themselves in an environment where lectures and academic staff devalue the ideologies they bring to the classroom. To remedy the situation, academic institutions should therefore consider the fact that NNES have to adopt the meaning of plagiarism, as it is interpreted in a culture different from their own (Ouellette, 2008:259-269).

HEI in particular should consider that students may be prone to the act of plagiarism because of the discrepancies that may exist between personal and institutional ideologies. The students have to constantly negotiate their identities against a background of different cultural ideologies. Cultural awareness (sensitivity) and the knowledge of how students are positioned within academic contexts in relation to their background will place lecturers and academic
staff in a better position to assist them (Hyland, 2002; Introna et al., 2003). Gaining an understanding of how sociocultural factors and contexts impact on the students learning and writing practices, will assist academic staff implement and develop strategies better suited to help students gain textual control and authority.

2.5.3 Key ideas to consider about student plagiarism

While sociocultural context and identity might strongly influence an individual’s writing style or overall academic achievements they are not always deterministic as individuals are constantly being influenced by different contexts and discourses (Hyland, 2002; Gu and Brooks, 2008). These varied contexts may be similar or significantly different from what an individual has been exposed to earlier on in their lives. In other words, students are not limited to the resources that their background or socio-cultural context has afforded them. Since students are not ‘isolated’ agents (isolated from their environment) they can accumulate knowledge over time, they can also learn or unlearn certain discourses in different contexts.

Most importantly institutions and institutional staff have to stop trying to make students fit into already established institutional policies and procedures but instead formulate policies that will accommodate the students (Introna et al., 2003: 12). The formulation of more inclusive policies will ultimately give rise to better learning and teaching practices that breed good academic outcomes. Additionally, it is not only cultural identity that influences students to plagiarise so much as much as their context of circumstances. Students’ from the same cultures are also likely to perceive the concept of plagiarism differently. Plagiarism in this light becomes an issue of contextual factors rather than cultural ones as definitions and instances of plagiarism may vary depending on the context.

2.6 Experiences and understandings of plagiarism: factors and contexts

In the academic or more broadly the writing community plagiarism is the greatest offense, worse than murder (Pecorari, 2003; Pecorari, 2006). A new set of expectations are required from the students when they reach university. It is the norm in higher education institutions to require citations and references in assignments and other academic essays (Larkham and Manns, 2002). University education revolves around educating students about appropriate ethical practices in academic writing (Ting et al., 2014). It is where students are taught academic integrity, why it is valued and how to carry it out. The academic world especially is a highly restrictive community and values individual achievement above all.
The students are expected to know how to reference, footnote, use endnote and be familiar with other forms of citation (Buete et al., 2008). Consequently this may result in students’ difficulty in finding their own voice in the rich and extensive studies of other scholars. This section therefore examines and reviews some of the literature on students and why they might plagiarise but it begins with a review of academic staff experiences, perceptions and understandings of student plagiarism. The section, explores academic staff perceptions of why student plagiarise.

2.6.1 Lecturers and academic staff

While this study focuses on students it is also important to present a review of some of the literature on lecturer and academic staff experiences, perceptions and understandings of plagiarism. How lecturers and academic staff perceive plagiarism influences how they teach students about plagiarism, monitor and regulate plagiarism. Although students can locate by themselves and read materials made readily available by lectures by means of institutionally provided platforms, lecturers are there to give support to students. They are there to guide, teach and familiarise students with academic discourses and practices so they become competent and diligent academics.

Horn (2013) in particular, asserts that academic staff practices have an influence on the students’ academic practices. Academic practices trickle down from the staff to the students. This is because academic staff attitudes towards issues such as plagiarism influence how they monitor and regulate incidences of plagiarism. Thus any unethical transgressions amongst the lectures and academic staff within an institution may result in the prevalence of the same transgressions amongst the students (Horn, 2013; Sheikh and Mohamed, 2015; Thomas and De Bruin, 2015). Beside the issue of staff practices trickling down to the students, plagiarism is not only subject to various interpretations amongst students but also academic staff. Staff members themselves have different ways of defining, detecting and addressing the issue of plagiarism (Walker, 1998).

Most often academic staff address the issue of plagiarism based institutionally provided disciplinary norms or guidelines and on their individual subjective definition of what they feel it is. This however, can result in lack of consensus in-between staff members in same the discipline and different disciplines. In addition, another issue to consider is that just as students are prone to certain biases brought about their cultural and contextual circumstances so are lecturers. As a result, it further complicates the implementation and development of
full-proof strategies to address the issue of plagiarism in HEI’s. What is more is, just as plagiarism is subject to interpretation, institutional policies are also subject to being interpreted differently by both student and academic staff.

Lecturers play a key role in teaching students about plagiarism and so they could try and open a dialogue between them and the students about plagiarism. An open dialogue would assist lecturers understand plagiarism from the students point of view, instead of dealing with it based on why they feel students do it. Furthermore, it would assist in the construction and development of contextually relevant strategies to tackle plagiarism as opposed to the formulation of haphazard strategies that may not work. Alternatively, Howard (2001:1-4) argues that lecturers should be weary in their formulation and implementation of strategies to curb plagiarism. The author indicates that the strict policing of plagiarism may have an inadvertent effect in that it may put the lecturers at risk of being perceived by the students’ as enemies.

The strict policing of plagiarism may breed the “criminal-police relationship” instead of the intended “student-teacher relationship” (Howard, 2001:1-4). What is more is that, the lecturers or academic staff should ensure that they themselves sufficiently know what plagiarism is before they attempt to tackle the issue of plagiarism. Consensus amongst the academic staff members regarding the issue of plagiarism would decrease inconsistencies that students might exploit. Moreover, Walker (1998) recommends regular staff training and workshops on institutional policies and procedures on dealing with plagiarism regularly.

2.6.2 Reasons for student plagiarism

Dawson and Overfield (2006) suggest that a significant number of students express confusion exercising proper practices for plagiarism avoidance. Larkham and Manns, (2002) in conjunction with Sentleng and King (2012) stress this is because there is no single understanding of plagiarism and that is why some students view it as acceptable while others do not. Definitions on plagiarism may differ significantly against different backgrounds and as a result students do not always have a clear understanding of plagiarism (Beute et al., 2008). Students are not always aware of what constitutes plagiarism. In some cases where students are able to define plagiarism, there might be difficulties in the application of what they have learned (Foltýnek and Čech, 2013:74).

Ercegovac and Richardson (2004) alternatively explain that students regardless of their exposure to literacy training are bound to react in countless ethical or non-ethical ways to the
concept plagiarism. Teaching the students the acceptable academic practices, does not ensure that they will not plagiarise. This complicates trying to figure out why they plagiarise as their intent is nearly impossible to determine. Students’ can therefore plagiarise in spite of the exposure they receive during their years in high school or university on plagiarism.

Moreover, Abasi and Graves, (2008: 222-230) argue the concept of plagiarism is immersed in socio-cultural relations. The students’ racial and social positioning, for example in South Africa some students may be at a disadvantage when they are compared to their white counterparts because of systems like apartheid. Institutional policies and procedures not unlike the University of KwaZulu-Natal do little to account for the students’ background and social positioning. Moreover, they do little to accommodate for the fact that students are social actors therefore shaped by their social experiences. Thus institutional policies are misleading in that they outlaw plagiarism and promote its avoidance while some students are not adequately familiarised with the concept and the contextual issues associated with it. Ultimately, how university policies are structured influences teacher- student dynamics.

If university policies are altered the ways in which plagiarism is policed would change also. Szabo and Underwood (2004), in their study to investigate the attitudes and beliefs of 291 science students, found that guilt and moral reasoning were significant factors in forming attitudes towards plagiarism both of which were developed in the students early experiences. Early experiences may refer to (but not limited to) the students’ high-school experiences where they are first introduced to academic content. Similarly, Ercegovac and Richardson (2004: 301) and Nicholson (2010) refer to plagiarism as a “moral dilemma” as students engage with the term using their morals. In support of this theory is the fact that plagiarism is often equated to academic dishonesty and considered an unethical practice.

This idea however has an underlying assumption that students know fully and are aware of plagiarism. As discussed earlier in the section and throughout this document student plagiarism may occur due to their unfamiliarity with academic discourses. Plagiarism may be a condition facilitated by the students’ ignorance as opposed to an intentional action. Thus viewing plagiarism in terms of morality is not sufficient in judging and evaluating student plagiarism as morality implies intentionality to plagiarise which may not always be the case. Wood (2004) and Thompson (2005) suggest that students do not resort to plagiarism solely because they are dishonest, immoral or lack ethical values. In some instances the students are
crippled by their desire to produce work that is deemed academically acceptable by their lecturers.

The students succumb to feelings of powerlessness, marked by a failure to present new ideas from the work they have read. They succumb to what they feel is required from them rather than critically engaging with the topics they have read. Furthermore plagiarism may occur as a result of differing experiences or a failure for the students to recognise the importance of their work. Moreover, plagiarism may occur when the students fail to see the repercussions of taking someone else's work and claiming it as their own (Luke, 2014:3).

Plagiarism may be a result of ignorance, unawareness, lack of understanding or perhaps the fact that English may not be the student’s first language (Dores and Henderson, 2009; Volkov, Volkov and Tedford, 2011). Further contextual influences on plagiarism include perceptions of peer behaviour, the perceived certainty of being reported for cheating, and severity of campus penalties against plagiarism (Scanlon and Neumann, 2002: 375). Students may continue to plagiarise because of time constrictions or due to their unawareness and uncertainty of the existence of punishments for academic dishonesty, while others do it in spite of knowing the consequences (Scanlon and Neumann, 2002; Park, 2004). Additionally Sentleng and King (2012) suggest that students may plagiarise because they have negative attitudes towards their courses, while some do it because they claim that everyone is doing it.

Sometimes for the students the benefits of cheating just outweigh the risks of getting caught when the chances of getting caught a perceived as little. At times however, students’ may plagiarise because they are confused about summarising and paraphrasing in their own words, they are focused on the end product and they are eager to share information with their peers, disregarding the implications of their actions. All information to them is equal and has the same value and is free and available. The students may not even consider their work as something important and worthwhile and should be protected. Burgess-Proctor et al., (2014:132-133) propose that ways of discouraging plagiarism could include fostering a culture of solidarity amongst students by having them check plagiarism from their peers or assisting each other in the teaching of plagiarism.

Asking the students to exercise practically what they learn on plagiarism might lead to the development of their critical thinking skills as well as foster a sense of confidence during their writing processes. Additionally, compulsory writing workshops would offer the students guidance on academic writing. Students would learn common errors to avoid when writing
which would improve their writing over time. Whatever the case may be, Sentleng and King (2012) suggest that students with lower grades tend to cheat more often than students with higher grades. The students may plagiarise because in certain cases they struggle to juggle the demands of their academic and social lives. For example, plagiarism would be more common amongst students who party a lot and have very active social lives.

Based on Koul’s et al. (2009:506) goal orientation and social comparison theory, students that perform well in class are more likely to be strict against plagiarism. Low performing students on the other hand are more inclined to focus on the motives of why one cheats. Clement and Brenenson (2013) and Luke (2014) state that plagiarism is a means of achieving goals for the students. They plagiarise because they want to complete their assignments, get their degrees, acquire credentials (qualifications), get their dream jobs, and eventually money. Alternatively social comparison theory implies that, students evaluate their opinions and abilities by comparing themselves with others. Thus rather than following institutional perceptions of plagiarism, students define plagiarism in terms of what their fellow peers are up to.

This is because social currents have an influence in what students do. Social life exerts pressure on the individual, so one can never adequately view motive and intent without considering one’s social ‘situatedness’ within society. Koul’s et al. (2009) emphasises that the way a person has been socialised within a society influences their attitudes towards plagiarism. Thus if one were to be born within the upper class, they would view plagiarism within a different context than lower class people and if one were to be born male or female, this would also influence their definition of plagiarism. In other words how one is socialised within society affects the way they perceive matters in general.

Kutz et al. (2011:16) argues that the number of students who see plagiarism as a serious offence is decreasing because in part society has adopted a culture, based on borrowing and remixing. Borrowing and remixing have become a new way of appropriating and acquiring information in academia. The author states that plagiarism is no longer a matter of academic dishonesty and a violation of the codes of conduct but the formation of new norms and values within society. Therefore efforts to try and understand plagiarism in the academic context should include cultural context. If institutional policies do not embrace this method they may be at risk of becoming out-dated and perpetuating what they are trying to avoid.
Additionally, wider participation and mass access to higher education institutions may result in a lack of or an unfamiliarity of the concept of plagiarism (Hosny and Fatima, 2014; Macfarlane et al., 2014). Large classes will result in the inadequate time to teach and find out whether all the students understand what plagiarism is or is not. In other words it would be tough for the lecturers to provide constructive feedback in large classes, as students need constant feedback while engaged in the processes of drafting and redrafting their work (Pineteh, 2013:19). Hosny and Fatima (2014) further correlate the fear of future employment, high family expectations and competition among students as a contributing factor as to whether the students will plagiarise or not. Moreover, before anything else universities are businesses within the larger international economy; it is only natural that they admit a large number of students for profit (Bennett, 2011).

It is therefore not surprising that their policies are modelled on Western tertiary institutions so they are recognised internationally. Pecorari (2003: 322) suggests that policies on plagiarism in universities are broad in nature, thereby subject to interpretation. There is no clear criterion of determining that a student has plagiarised. As a result plagiarism remains subjective (Lobanov-Rostovsky, 2009). What might appear as plagiarism to another person might be perceived differently by another, not all cases of plagiarism are easily detectable or simple copy and paste issues. In addition lecturers may sometimes stray away from institutional policies and assess plagiarism based on their individual views on what it is (Ercegovac and Richardson, 2004:309).

Park (2004: 294-304) articulates that the university could adopt proactive strategies such as integrated campus initiatives, communication and support for academic staff, disciplinary policies and processes targeted at promoting academic integrity. The author emphasises that consistency and transparency are important. The dissemination of the necessary information to the students should take precedence. First and foremost however, the institutions should apply policies and procedures that best suit their own culture and circumstances.

Similarly, Glendinning (2014:13-17) proposes that strategies to discourage plagiarism amongst students need to be active rather than passive. Assignments and assessments must require students to apply their knowledge in order to develop the students writing skills. Postgraduate students need to actively engage and have close relationships with their supervisors through frequent consultations throughout the students’ dissertation and writing process. The university needs to do away with techniques that encourage students to
memorise and cram notes. It needs to facilitate an environment that revolves around encouraging critical thinking and innovation which would foster a culture of ‘curiosity and honesty’ amongst the students. The institution could adopt a culture of reflection and action which would assist in doing away with poorly defined policies.

2.6.3 Transition from high school to higher/ tertiary education

Pecorari (2006: 4) postulates that postgraduates more often than others have to adhere to high standards of writing, as their work not only reflects on them but their institutions. Postgraduates more often than undergraduates are expected to know how to think critically and produce good original work to show off the skills they have learned over time in their disciplines. Moreover postgraduate students are guided while undergraduate students are spoon fed information. This is counterproductive for institutions as it places undergraduates at a disadvantage. Early familiarisation with the rules of academia and university would prove advantageous for both undergraduate and postgraduate students. This would ensure that first year students learn about plagiarism and that postgraduate are able to meet the standards of work required from them.

There are many contributing factors to plagiarism but the most noteworthy is the fact that most first year students come to university with little to no understanding of what constitutes plagiarism (Sentleng and King, 2012). Li and Casanave (2012) stress that first year undergraduate students are required to complete their assignments and assessments while having inadequate knowledge on ways of avoiding plagiarism. A large percentage of these students according to Sentleng and King (2012) have no academic writing skills, no research skills, little to no knowledge of referencing and time management skills. This is because many were allowed to summarise text without acknowledging the source. Most often high schools do not adequately prepare the students for the challenges they will encounter in university (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2002; Li and Casanave, 2012).

High school students have little if any experience in academic writing, rules and requirements suited for tertiary and often find themselves struggling to produce acceptable standards of work. For them often overusing and memorising materials is not considered academic dishonesty or plagiarism, but a successful grasp of the material covered in class (Kutz et al., 2011:22). Ting et al. (2014:78) in their study uncovered that student perception on plagiarism and citation requirements in university are stricter than those in pre-university and diploma programs.
In the context of South Africa, Jackson (2006: 265) asserts that students come to university from a wide range of secondary schools. Some previously disadvantaged students have been fortunate to gain access to previously all white schools with resources, while some are in poorly sourced schools from rural and urban areas. These students come to universities, using the same study techniques that they acquired in their high schools. They use these uncultivated study techniques to adjust to their new environment (university). Thus in these cases the students’ academic backgrounds can be seen as playing a vital if not deterministic role to whether they are going to plagiarise or not.

For Pecorari (2003: 318) knowledge gaps amongst students appear to be the problem. Students who have been exposed to concepts of plagiarism for a substantial amount of time such as postgraduate students for example, are less likely to plagiarise unintentionally. While less experienced students or students who have little to no exposure to concepts of plagiarism such as the first year students are more likely to cheat not only intentionally but also unintentionally because they lack understanding and experience with plagiarism. Thus, in cases such as these university students are products of their prior learning experiences and background factors in their understanding (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2002:96).

Early nurturing of critical thinking skills in academic writing would therefore produce more well-rounded students and decrease the gap between students (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2002:96). Pecorari, (2006) together with Averill and Lewis (2013) propose that changing high school perceptions and experiences of plagiarism would be a significant way of combating plagiarism within universities. It would go to addressing the issue of plagiarism and literacy training on multiple levels not only at tertiary level. The earlier the students engage with the concept of plagiarism, the more they will learn of its complex contextual issues while building their writing self-esteem.

The more students engaged with writing assignments and assessments that stimulate critical thinking, the more universities will breed a new age of productive scholars and critical thinkers. This is because plagiarism is not solely a result of academic dishonesty or wrongdoing but can reflect a lack of understanding, skill or inexperience in academic writing (Beute et al. 2008:201). Only in tertiary institutions are extensive literacy training practices enforced (Averill and Lewis, 2013). The students come to university heavily relying on internet sources as a means of completing their assignments and tasks. Moreover, in the context of schools that lack internet, the recitation, memorisation and regurgitation of
information found in textbooks may be viewed as the desired system of learning by the students (Bennett, 2011).

This consideration on the part of the staff could assist students in writing proper research papers and dissertations in the academic world. According to Kobayashi and Rinnert (2002:98-104) literacy training within high schools is the key to decreasing plagiarism. First language students unlike ESL students engage more in writing techniques because they are more familiar with the language. Second language speakers, have to one, sufficiently learn their new language and two, learn how express themselves with their newly acquired language. Both of these are highly important in the formulation of critical expressive thinkers. This requires high amounts of dedication from both lecturers and students. Students are not given much time to nurture their own abilities as writers and are unaware that they have to save the knowledge they have read for future writing.

The requirements of sources vary in different levels of study. For example in first year students work plagiarism is recognised as a developmental tool (Vithal, 2009). Lecturers will mostly penalise students for plagiarism in their second year and third year, but the punishments become severe for postgraduate students. This system in is erroneous because the goal is for students to constantly demonstrate their referencing skills over time. Ting et al. (2014:74-75) refers to Ryan who identified that awareness of plagiarism did not increase with more years spent at university. The students instead found various inappropriate strategies and textual borrowing techniques to use. For that reason there should be constant familiarisation with anti-plagiarism techniques. There should be skills training for both students and staff alike so there is a constant practice of good academic writing (Pecorari, 2006; Beute et al. 2008).

Ting et al. (2014: 73) says teaching the students how to cite or reference on its own is not a sufficient way of dealing with plagiarism. Special attention should be given to the function and purpose of writing, reliability of information and how to become thoughtful, careful and critical writers (Dell, Kaposi, du Sautoy, Burton and Morgan 2011). Pecorari, (2003: 318) on the other hand emphasises that there is no guarantee that students will stop plagiarising because of continued discouragement from plagiarism. Admittedly, the author acknowledges however, that prevention is better than cure and if the issue of plagiarism were to be addressed at its early stages by proactive lecturers who factor cultural differences incidences of plagiarism may decrease.
Students’ who plagiarise purposefully will significantly be distinguishable from students who unintentionally plagiarise especially at university level. There would be a significantly smaller gap to bridge between first year and postgraduate students, because the same type of values would have been implemented from the time one starts schooling. In conclusion the prevention of plagiarism is much better than the penalties that students must go through as punishment of being caught plagiarising (Hudson, 2010). It would be beneficial for anti-plagiarism techniques to be implemented as early as high-school, rather than enforcing them at a tertiary level.

The application of these laws would ensure low levels of plagiarism in institutions of higher learning because people absorb norms and values early in life and the more people absorbed the “wrong structures” the more they are going to be resistant to the new ones (Hudson, 2010: 73). Thus the early prevention of plagiarism amongst students becomes better than inflicting penalties or only trying to deal with the issue when it is already so far gone.

2.6.4 Plagiarism and second language students

English Second Language (ESL) students might not be aware of what is appropriate and not appropriate in terms of academic writing especially when they move to unfamiliar territories (Pecorari, 2003: 318). For example, imitation is often condemned and considered as plagiarism academically, but in some cultures especially to second language speakers imitation is a way of adapting to new cultures and languages. Imitation for these students (ESL students) is a learning tool to learn as opposed to a way of undermining any person in particular. NNES may have difficulty expressing themselves in English and so they will use sources inappropriately (Gurnasson et al., 2014:414).

ESL students or NNES may doubt their abilities to express themselves in a new different language and in such instances plagiarism might be considered as a device to mask their background or second language-status (Starfield, 2002:137). A process whereby the NNES try to merge their own voice with English through copying and repeating large amounts of texts in order to attain textual control (Kutz et al., 2011:18; Preisler et al. 2011). Moreover, because students in schools are not taught in their mother tongue it should be expected that some students may have difficulty when writing in a language different than their own (Gurnasson 2014).

In addition, since academic discourse and text are not indigenous to any one culture even English First Language (EFL) students may struggle with the concept of plagiarism. The
confusion over what constitutes plagiarism is not limited to ESL students and NNES but is a source of confusion for all students (Maxwell et al., 2008: 30). Thus plagiarism should be seen as a gradual “process of acculturation” within academia or academic discourse for all students (East, 2006; Maxwell et al., 2008). The term acculturation refers to the process of familiarising ESL students, NNES and EFL students with the “academic language”. Nevertheless, Pineteh (2013:12-13), in his study of first and second year students at the University of Technology, discovered that the students linguistic and literacy backgrounds were general reasons of why students plagiarised.

Educating these students therefore about plagiarism without teaching them how to apply what they have learned might be counterproductive to combating plagiarism (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014:132-133). Ting et al., (2014:75-84) emphasises that plagiarism is more apparent in students who have language difficulties. What happens is that the students simply rewrite the words of a particular author because they may feel that they are unable to present the words better than how they have been written. Their lack of proficiency in English results in them resorting to mosaic plagiarism or patchwriting, because it is an easy way out for them. According to Williams (2007: 2535) students who lack proficiency in English will most often “succumb to the temptation to use eloquent phrases, sentences or even whole paragraphs” from the source text.

Both Williams (2007) and Ting et al. (2014) imply that the more the students master the English language the less likely they are to plagiarise. Since plagiarism may occur frequently for second language speakers because of their failure to properly articulate themselves (Hosny and Fatima, 2014: 3). Leibowitz and Van Deventer (2007) explain that for the students to enhance their learning experiences in University “a mother tongue education policy” would be advantageous but not feasible in terms of policy implementation.

Linguistic policies in tertiary institutions may result in linguistic exclusionism of the non-mother tongue speaker’s (the dominant groups “mother tongue” in a particular university may result in feelings of exclusion to the non-mother tongue students). Thus these institutions will no longer be able to accommodate diverse students looking to get into tertiary. The concept of linguistic exclusionism is much similar to the concept of language stratification. Language stratification is a system where language is viewed as socially constructed and therefore can be perceived as reflecting conditions relating to an individual’s background and status and identity (Kerswill, 2009).
Thus if HEI’s were seen as favouring one language over other languages it may spark conflicts amongst students as it may be seen as promoting a certain social group or culture over others. Therefore, mother tongue language policies in HEI’s would be detrimental as mechanisms to decrease plagiarism as they may end up stratifying or in particular grouping individuals according to the languages they speak. Most likely individuals would gravitate towards institutions where their mother tongues were being used as for teaching and learning.

2.6.5 International students and plagiarism
Most HEI’s have become highly multicultural they should ensure that they accommodate for cultural diversity (Maxwell et al., 2008). In his study Kaplan (as cited by Introna et al., 2003) ascertained evidence that would suggest that the way students wrote was influenced by their cultural background. Kaplan’s study suggests that the students’ academic writing and learning processes including their understandings and perceptions of them are influenced by the students’ cultural background. For that reason, international students or students studying abroad face many issues that come as a result of their cultural differences. International students in particular are faced with a unique set of issues and challenges that complicate trying to come up with uniform coherent meanings concerning academic issues such as plagiarism.

Common reasons of why international students are prone to plagiarism include different cultural values and norms, different attitudes toward learning and teaching, their second language status, financial/ external pressures, language proficiency (Sarkodie-Mensah, 1999; Bamford and Sergiou, 2005; Introna et al. 2003). Overall, international students may be demotivated in learning as they may harbour negative feelings brought about their failure to adjust in a new environment.

Plagiarism amongst international students is characteristically unintentional rather than intentional because of varied perceptions of what constitutes it together with the perceived seriousness of the act (Bamford and Sergiou, 2005; Sarkodie-Mensah, 1999). Sarkodie-Mensah (1999: 198) argues that no country necessarily promotes plagiarism but some countries are lenient on plagiarism than others. Thus international students may encounter difficulties when engaging with plagiarism in countries where the perception of plagiarism significantly differs from where they come from.

Robertson et al. (as cited by Olshen, 2013:10), stated that typically International students exhibited the following characteristics:
“Less worldly and knowledgeable about past and present events, past and present social and political issues, Reluctant to give personal opinion or involve themselves in tutorial/class discussions due to cultural differences, Female students are reluctant to argue with older persons especially if in a position of authority. Different attitudes to learning and go about learning differently, tend to take the word of the book or lecturer as the truth and don’t question it, Regurgitate text from books etc., seen as normal learning. Come from cultures that have different discourse patterns. Need to learn the discourse conventions both written and spoken.”

Before going in-depth on the issues facing international students, there is often an assumption by academic institutions that the term ‘international students’ refers to a homogenous group. According to Olshen (2013:6) international students should be thought of as heterogeneous entities that consist of small groups or even single individuals. Perceiving international students as homogenous groups may lead to incorrect generalisations and assumptions about certain cultural groups or individuals. Hence, in order to avoid generalisations academic institutions should ensure that they are well aware of the various students enrolling within them. Being demographically aware of the students, their cultures, background and so on will ensure that international student support services and lecturers are sensitised to their specific needs and challenges.

Moreover, there is a distinction between international and foreign students. International students are those students who move from one country to another to study while foreign students may be newly permanent students and residents or students from migrant families (Olshen, 2013: 9). The distinction made by the author is to further highlight the heterogeneity of the overarching term of “international student”. Consequently, regardless of the differences in-between international students they all, to some extent face similar issues. These students need to significantly adjust their sociocultural values in order to adjust to a new culture’s definition of plagiarism (Gu and Brooks, 2008: 340; Introna et al., 2003). These students not only need to adapt physically but also culturally and academically to their new environment.

They need to learn how to write and learn in a different language, adapt to different writing styles and deal with different ideologies concerning academic texts (Introna et al., 2003: 11). Gu and Brooks (2008) argue that this process entails a process of learning and unlearning for the students in order for them to adjust to their new institutional setting and context. Since, learning and teaching ideologies differ across countries, it takes time for the international students to conform to their host country’s norms and standards of learning (Sarkodie-Mensah, 1999; Olshen, 2013).
Lecturers should thus be more sensitised to their students’ needs, perceptions, understandings and attitudes towards their academic environments in order to assist them and teach them (Introna et al., 2003: 10). In addition, international students require a clear articulation of the desired academic requirements they need to fulfil, all of which should be articulated on an institutional, faculty and classroom level (Sarkodie-Mensah, 1999; Olshen, 2013). Furthermore, international students in particular require a “teacher centred approach” as opposed to a “student centred approach” (Introna et al., 2003:12). According to Introna et al. (2003) the “teacher centred approach” is a more hands on approach where the lecturers guide the students through academic practices.

Lui (2005: 239) also emphasises that institutional focus should be directed in improving the students’ language proficiency. The author asserts that it is not that international students’ lack critical thinking skills but they resort to plagiarism because they lack sufficient linguistic resources. Rather, than focusing mainly on how students from different cultures perceive plagiarism, attention and institutional focus and efforts should be directed at language proficiency. Additionally, cultural strategies directed to resolve plagiarism amongst international students might come across as unfair to domestic students. Academic staff and lecturers may be perceived by the domestic students as prioritising or even favouring the international students (Olshen, 2013). Academic staff and lecturers should not forget that plagiarism is not endemic to international students only (Sarkodie-Mensah, 1999:197).

2.7 Summary

There are various contextual considerations in defining, detecting and decreasing plagiarism. Plagiarism is entangled within a wide range of ethical, cultural, interdisciplinary, linguistic and social circumstances. The reoccurring solution to addressing, avoiding and understanding plagiarism appears to be the constant reinforcement of academically acceptable writing conventions. This reinforcement would come from revised institutional practices and teaching and learning practices as proposed by Howard (1995). Moreover institutions should beware when constructing policies and procedures of the demographics of the students that enrol within them, so that the policies are compatible with students.

In addition, awareness and accessibility (or lack thereof) of policy and procedures appears to be a recurring theme. Institutions and academic staff should ensure that in addition to constructing suitable policies, they provide students with copies of these policies, publically and openly talk to students about plagiarism. Formalised or even compulsory ethical courses
should be integrated into the school’s syllabus, in an attempt to promote good ethical work (Horn, 2013; McKay, 2014; Sheikh and Mohamed, 2015). Students, academic staff members and institutions should collectively engage in proactive initiatives in dealing with issues relating to plagiarism (shared accountability).

Moreover, important factors to consider when dealing with plagiarism are the students, motivations, attitudes and perceptions towards academic knowledge. These may ultimately determine whether the students’ plagiarise or not. In the case of anti-plagiarism software’s, these are not a full proof in dealing with plagiarism. These software’s have innumerable shortcomings that students can exploit (Beute et al., 2008; Fielder and Kaner, 2010; McKay, 2014).
CHAPTER 3: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to identify, describe and explain the theoretical assumptions underlying the issue of student plagiarism. The chapter addresses the broader social issues associated with plagiarism, particularly why students plagiarise based on existing scientific theorems. In the course of generalising on the various social aspects associated with plagiarism, the study is able to provide a “framework” to account, explain and understand the key variables that influence student plagiarism. Specifically, it is argued within this chapter that the way students are positioned within the social context, their history and experiences (in the social and academic context) result in differences in perceptions and understanding of academic discourse and therefore plagiarism.

3.2 Bourdieu’s ideas on credentialism and the credential society

The use of habitus theory in this study is not without its limitations. The theory at times can have deterministic undertones but Bourdieu’s ideas on credentialism or the credential society can help overcome some of the deterministic insinuations implied by the theory of habitus (DiMaggio, 1982). According to credential theory, students from disadvantaged backgrounds can accumulate cultural capital through credentials in a way that allows them to transcend their economic, social and cultural circumstances. Cultural capital and the students’ acquisition of varied credentials can in this context, help mediate between the students’ backgrounds by minimising the gaps existing between the privileged students and the disadvantaged students (DiMaggio, 1982).

According to the theory of habitus students of low social status are said to inherit from their families low levels of cultural capital while students from privileged backgrounds inherit high levels of cultural capital (DiMaggio, 1982; Dumais and Ward, 2010; Andersen and Jaeger, 2015). Contrary to this, DiMaggio (1982:190) proposes that the accumulation of cultural capital must be seen as “status culture participation” rather than “status group membership”. Status group membership would stipulate that cultural capital is a characteristic held by individuals which they obtain through their memberships in particular social groups. Status culture participation means that individuals participating in cultural activities of the privileged, can exhibit the characteristics of a privileged culture without having been born privileged.
Participating in privileged cultural activities means the participation of individuals in extracurricular activities that are seen by individuals in a society as being done by the advantaged groups (DiMaggio, 1982; Gabler, 2004). These could include a wide array of activities, such as joining art clubs, drama clubs, sports clubs, book clubs and music clubs etc. Through these activities individuals can accumulate and give off a sense of having high amounts of cultural capital regardless of their disadvantaged backgrounds. In this way the accumulation of cultural capital becomes less deterministic, rather, familial background becomes less a deterministic factor in the students’ academic outcomes and successes (DiMaggio, 1982).

In addition, the students’ acquisition of credentials can help them present the image of having high amounts of cultural capital just as their participation in extracurricular activities. In this study, the idea of credentialism or a credential society is similar to that of Koul’s et al. (2009:506) goal orientation theory. Goal orientation theory has as its assumption that students will use any means necessary to achieve their goals, including the use of undesired academic practices. Using Bourdieu’s ideas of credentialism and analysis of a credential society, students may be perceived as using undesired academic practices such as plagiarism as means of acquiring credentials.

Bourdieu (1989:21) defines a credential as a school diploma, degree or qualification that is recognised universally by individuals on all markets. This universally recognised certificate is an act of knowledge recognition. It is a symbolic guarantee that one is competent; therefore it represents the “symbolic value” of an individual. During the process of “acquiring” credentials lecturers will impose upon the students their values and those of the institution. Unlike in the theory of habitus credential theory supposes that cultural capital is not as deterministic and restrictive as seen through habitus. The students’ ambitions, aspirations, motives for studying play a huge role in the accumulation of cultural capital (Dumais and Ward, 2010:87). Moreover, influential factors, such as aspirations, ambition, go a long way in securing academic achievements (Gripsrud et al., 2011).

Students work towards acquiring credentials as the acquisition of a credential validates to the outside world their skill, competence and knowledge capacity. The acquisition of credentials is especially prized by the students and individuals because of their ability to open doors, in that they open up job opportunities. These job opportunities may be used by the students as means of obtaining financial security and upward social mobility. According to Kaufman and
Gabler (2004: 165) credential theory states that cultural capital is irrelevant through habitus due to the fact that if one possesses a number of credentials they give the appearance of having high amounts of cultural capital. Students who lack cultural capital, or perceived as being of low socio-economic status can acquire cultural capital through extracurricular activities.

Kaufman and Gabler (2004) further assert that in the social world, language competence, dress code, attitude, demeanour, serve as basis of stratification, separating the elite from the non-elites. Exposure though to objectified forms of cultural capital such as art, music, sports and the library may boost one’s cultural capital, more so if their parents are supportive of their children's pursuits. DiMaggio (as cited by Kaufman and Gabler, 2004) indicates that often, for students with low cultural capital or of low SES, background will act as a barrier to both their academic success and upward mobility. Gaddis (2013: 3-9) alternatively argues that people can evolve over time through their experiences and capacity to accumulate cultural capital. In fact, a credential can comprise of accumulated cultural capital.

Additionally, a credential might ensure that the individual’s future generations acquire more cultural capital than they initially inherited from their families. Thus individuals not only obtain credentials to elevate their own amounts of cultural capital but also accumulate it for their future generations. In this regard cultural capital and the attainment of credentials are especially advantageous to disadvantaged youths, in the sense that they can adjust and evolve, attaining greater upward mobility through their capacity to learn. Although students come to university already predisposed to certain behaviours they can overcome their circumstances. The issue is the means the students may use in their endeavours to achieve their credentials. Particularly, students may use plagiarism as a mechanism to achieve academic success for purposes of obtaining their degrees or credentials.

3.3 Different types of capital

Bourdieu (2011: 83) explains that social reality consists of a series of invisible relations and “accumulated histories” (often unnoticed) that constitute a space of positions exerting force on the agent. These invisible structures are in a form of capital, presented in different forms, namely cultural, social, and symbolic capital. Capital refers to the resources that an individual has at their disposal and accumulates over time (Bennett and Silva, 2011; Gaddis, 2013:2; Warin, 2015). Cultural capital in particular is linked to one’s “scholastic achievement”, social capital, is comprised of the social connections one has and symbolic
capital is one’s perceived value within society often associated with privilege or title, if one is a noble for instance (Bourdieu 2011: 83-91).

According to Gaddis (2013: 1-9) social, economic and cultural capitals are attained through habitus. Social agents or individuals accumulate capital depending on where and how they are socially positioned within social reality. All individuals have the capacity to accrue capital regardless of their social position; this in Bourdieu’s opinion gives a sense of equal opportunity to all (Bourdieu, 1986). Regardless of their status, social agents can accumulate the different types of capital. Whether they are of low SES or high SES agents are able to add to the amounts of capital they already possess. However, since the social agents accumulate capital in relation to their socio-economic backgrounds, the amounts of capital accrued by individuals of high SES and individuals of low SES will not be the same. The structure of the capital these individuals accumulate will differ according to their social stratifications.

Social agents are distributed within social space according to the capital they possess and the structure of their capital. Thus they have differential access to resources; they acquire access to resources through their membership in their respective “social” networks (Portes and Vickstrom 2011: 462). Warin (2015: 691) states that individuals will often exhibit amounts of capital offered by their objective/external structure and because of social stratifications in social reality; capital is unequally distributed in different social fields. The author explains that in that capital contains cumulative properties in that individuals can use the amounts (whether high or low) of capital they possess in order to accumulate even greater amounts of wealth (economic capital). This is especially true for already advantaged or well off groups.

Bourdieu (1989) explains that the structure or the amounts of capital individuals possess, lead to differences in their field of perception. Individuals will perceive and interpret and interact with social phenomena in different ways. More specifically they will do so according to the external structures they have inherited or internalised. The individuals’ point of view or their perceptions of social reality will thus reflect the social position the individuals occupy within the social space (Bourdieu, 1989: 15; Dumais and Ward, 2010:85). Consequently these opinions, thoughts or standpoints influence and motivate behaviour. Actions therefore cannot be analysed independently from the structures that give way to them in the first instance. It becomes important to analyse the degree to which these structures account for the social agents’ struggles within a given context (Bourdieu, 1989).
One can therefore argue, that students will often interact with and define social concepts such as plagiarism using their “accumulated history” or background (economic, social and cultural background) (Bourdieu, 2011). The degree to which students struggle to adapt within an academic environment might be influenced by the incompatibility of institutional and individual values. Students’ with high amounts of institutionally and academically desirable capital and might struggle less in an academic setting than those possessing low amounts of institutionally desired capital (Kaufman and Gabler 2004).

3.3.1 Cultural capital and plagiarism

According to Bourdieu (1986), Dumais and Ward, (2010:85) and Anderson and Jaeger (2015) there are three forms of cultural capital, the embodied, the objectified and the institutionalised. The embodied form of capital includes verbal skills, language proficiency, attitudes, preferences (tastes), demeanour etc. while the objectified is music, art, books, dictionaries and other objects perceived as exclusive to the privileged. The institutionalised form relates to one’s educational background For example, it could be reflected through the students’ certificates (degrees, diplomas etc.). All three forms of cultural capital combine reproduce the conditions under which they were created. This process is referred to as social reproduction (Kaufman and Gabler, 2004; Dumais and Ward, 2010; Gripsrud, Hovden and Moe, 2011; Jaeger, 2011; Gaddis, 2013; Anderson and Jaeger, 2015).

Lizardo (2004:26) criticises Bourdieu’s failure to make explicit how exactly the objectified and institutionalised forms of cultural capital come to be embodied within the individual. Thus it can be interpreted that individuals accumulate both objectified institutionalised forms of cultural capital through exposure. Ultimately the consumption and mastery of both forms (objectified and institutionalised) of cultural capital contribute to the embodied form of capital. Primarily, cultural capital is attained through one’s social class, period, and society but it is not as evident or as obvious as economic capital (Bourdieu, 2011: 84). Cultural capital is immaterial but is as valuable as economic capital (Kaufman and Gabler, 2004).

Cultural capital occurs on an individual level and can act to enhance or constrict individuals’ capabilities and choices. Moreover, unlike economic capital, cultural capital does not exist independently from its bearer it is a sort of hereditary capital (Bourdieu, 2011). Bennett and Silva (2011) assert that cultural capital is not only inherited but can be accumulated and cultivated through the individual’s engagement with different environments and activities. Thus cultural capital has to be analysed within context; the conditions in which it arises. For
instance there are varying degrees of capital even amongst the people of the same class. This challenges the idea that cultural capital is class based and that is why it is the important to analyse it within context.

According to Andersen and Jaeger (2015) cultural capital is a resource that is principally used by socioeconomically advantaged groups to promote social and cultural reproduction. Socioeconomically disadvantaged groups are thought to possess too little cultural capital to make social mobility possible. For instance, Gripsrud (2011) states that social reproduction occurs when students pursue careers similar to those of their parents in university and this is because the students hold certain attitudes similar to those of their parents. Cultural capital equips individuals and families with certain attitudes, preferences, behaviours, goods and credentials in line with their social positions and familial contexts (Jaeger, 2011; Gaddis, 2013).

Everyone possesses cultural capital; the level of cultural capital an individual possesses predisposes them to certain privileges (Andersen and Jaeger 2015). Cultural capital is a result of the different social and symbolic resources individuals possess inherited from the family (Starfield, 2002:124). These resources are not equally distributed because of social stratifications or differences that exist amongst individuals and social groups. Social stratification produces different interactions with social structures thus resulting in differences in experiences.

Cultural capital is inherited in early childhood it is possessed by families and is transferred across generations (Jaeger, 2011). Cultural capital may be passed on both passively and actively by the parents to their children (Anderson and Jaeger, 2015). Through this active or passive process the children gain their parents dispositions. Dumais and Ward (2010) suggest that cultural capital is the most important in academia because it influences the perception of education and educational institutions. Cultural capital is an important resource contributing to an individuals’ educational success (Anderson and Jaeger, 2015). It is a resource that equips individuals with knowledge and certain practical skills in academia that have a direct correlation with educational success and attainment (Kaufman and Gabler, 2004).

Families who possess high amounts of cultural capital also possess other socioeconomic resources that have an effect on their children’s educational success. For example, families with high amounts of cultural capital could have money to take their children to well-equipped schools, buy their children books, hire tutors, acquire private lessons etc. Cultural
capital therefore becomes embedded in the children’s knowledge, language and mannerisms which ultimately assist them in adjusting to academic settings such as university. Cultural capital assists the students in navigating through the academic sphere (Jaeger, 2011; Gaddis, 2013).

Dumais and Ward (2010: 87-102) argue that families from different socioeconomic backgrounds transmit different quantities of cultural capital. Thus students from upper class families will possess large amounts of cultural capital as opposed to the students from lower class families or disadvantaged backgrounds. It is assumed that working class parents lack the resources to expose their children to objectified forms of cultural capital. It is therefore assumed that students from working class families do not accumulate as much cultural capital as the students from privileged homes. In addition families or parents of low socioeconomic status are perceived as not as supportive in school activities as much as their higher socioeconomic counterparts, who believe in their children will attain their university degrees.

Students from disadvantaged backgrounds are perceived as having less desirable discourses in academia (Gaddis, 2011). Students coming from disadvantaged families are thought of as having attended schools that had little if any appreciation for cultural capital (Andersen and Jaeger 2015:180). This becomes a factor when the students attend universities, as universities favour the students who portray the cultural capital in line with their values and policies. Gripsrud et al., (2011) affirms that privileged students embody certain attitudes in line with that of tertiary institutions, while less privileged students do not. This is because the privileged students are considered to have had extensive exposure to resources that the less privileged did not have.

Furthermore Dumais and Ward (2010:87-88) suggest that academia is not as neutral as it may first appear. Academia is a social field with certain conditions that foster social inequalities among the students. These inequalities are not created by academia; academia provides the field in which these inequalities are realised. This is due to the fact that students use both their habitus and cultural capital to gain certain advantages and privileges in these academic institutions which result in either their educational success or failure. Hence educational success in academia is not only based on merit but on the students’ habitus and the structure of their capital further reinforcing the idea that educational institutions are not neutral.

Andersen and Jaeger (2015:179) explain that the academic sphere constructed in a way that is biased to the students who possess higher cultural capital. These students are perceived as
having ‘academic brilliance’. This is because students who possess large amounts of cultural capital have been exposed to similar values and practices to those held in academia. In the context of South Africa Apartheid may have disadvantage certain races thus resulting to some parents passing low cultural capital to their children. Certain students have had the privilege of attending private schools from a young age, their parents’ investing in their potential, and therefore familiarising them to institutional rules and practices.

Yamauchi (2005) explains that these differences in learning affect career paths which inadvertently results in some parents imparting low cultural capital to their children because of their low income jobs. Consequently this results in a never ending cycle of educational inequality. Inequalities facilitated by family contexts and the schools themselves, may result in certain families and schools passing on to their children or pupils low amounts of cultural capital. Educational inequality is attributable to the unequal access to resources. Poor academic achievement might be seen as a result of low cultural capital and thus a result of low socio-economic status.

Low socio-economic status might result in low cultural capital which facilitates poor academic achievement among students. Moreover, differences in amounts of cultural capital lead to stratification amongst the students resulting in differences in learning (Dumais and Ward, 2010:84). Kaufman and Gabler (2004:147) state that cultural capital serves a mechanism that stratifies the students’ and therefore their success in university. This stratification is crucial to whether the students will understand the relevance of plagiarism and commit academic dishonesty or not. Lecturers may favour students with high amounts of cultural capital as opposed to the ones with low cultural capital. Cultural capital becomes a mechanism demonstrated in class, via language, writing, gestures etc.

The classroom becomes a “field” where students inadvertently demonstrate their socio-economic position (Kaufman and Gabler, 2004:146). Particularly, tertiary institutions do not actively seek out students with high cultural capital but instead they favour these students and perceive them as being intelligent or having academic genius (Kaufman and Gabler, 2004:145-150). Higher education institutions do not teach the students the desired values they look for from them, but students can overtime learn and adjust to institutional views and values. This is how institutions unintentionally ensure that students with a high amounts of cultural capital thrive while students with low amounts of cultural capital (or undesirable cultural capital) struggle.
The students’ with low amounts of cultural mainly struggle because their values are not in-line, or desired by their lecturers or in the classroom (Dumais and Ward, 2010). Van der Berg (2008) on the other hand states that just as there are socioeconomic differences among student’s there are socioeconomic differences amongst schools and institutions. Some institutions are considered as being “rich” and others “poor”. The disadvantaged schools are seen as transferring lower cultural capital to the students compared to private schools or schools with an abundance of resources. Furthermore the standard of teachers working in privileged schools is perceived higher than those from disadvantaged schools.

One could say that the stratifications existing among the students are exacerbated by the stratifications amongst institutions and staff (Andersen and Jaeger, 2015:178). They are exacerbated in that certain lecturers are going to be attracted to certain student’s cultural capital over others. In other words the lecturers might hold similar norms and values similar to certain students. Consequently the students will succeed in the classroom based on the type and amount of cultural capital they have in relation to that of their lecturers. Dumais and Ward (2010:102) contend with the idea of favouritism (lecturers favouring students with similar cultural capital) stating that there is little evidence to show that lecturers favour children with high cultural capital or cultural capital is even a factor when marking.

Conversely, the existence of socioeconomic differences amongst the genders has been indicated by various authors (Kaufman and Gabler, 2004:145-150). They point to evidence suggesting that there are differences in perception facilitated by differences in gender because of sociocultural and socioeconomic backgrounds. For example females can be seen as possessing higher cultural capital than males (DiMaggio, 1982). High status women especially reflect higher cultural capital as compared to high-status men. In addition, Bennett and Silva (2011: 434) express that Bourdieu’s theory on cultural capital leaves a lot to be desired because social class is only one factor on cultural capital; gender and race are other dimensions that could affect an individual’s exposure to and certain resources.

In his study of Norwegian students Gripsrud et al. (2011) argues that Bourdieu’s overall theory on cultural capital was a means of portraying the ‘elites’ domination over the rest of the less privileged classes. Bourdieu’s theory does not account for the technological advances and globalisation. Moreover, how they have weakened the theory of “high culture”. For instance technology has made working class individuals highly competent and exposed to a variety of cultures. Thus rendering what was “high culture” or the elites irrelevant. Both the
working class and disadvantaged groups have exposure to popular culture and other activities that were once exclusive to the elite. This renders “cultural snobbery” obsolete. Instead of outright class inequality society is somewhat parallel and that is what accounts for the steady increase of students going to university whether first or second generation in their families.

3.3.2 Identity capital and plagiarism

Warin (2015: 697-698) expands Bourdieu’s notion of the three types of capital, introducing identity capital. Warin states that, the self is a product of various socio-economic and cultural influences all of which are contingent on privilege. According to the author people know the self only when exposed to opportunities that can assist in engaging with the self. These opportunities might for example include life coaches, psychiatrists, academic advisors or counsellors. For that reason the self is not opened to everyone as it is linked with the amount of resources one has and can mobilise in order to acquire access to the self.

What Warin (2015) means is that people are not free to choose who they want to be, they can only choose on the basis of what is available to them. They are able to reflect on opportunities depending on what is opened to them. Identity capital is thus a resource “for coping and controlling one’s life” (Warin, 2015:698). Being self-aware and reflexive is a type of capital on its own as it opens pathways or opportunities for the individuals to perceive what is opened to them and the extent to which they can invest on who they want to be.

In relation to plagiarism this would means that students, particularly disadvantaged students will likely engage in unacceptable academic practices because they spend less time investing on themselves. This is not done consciously but it is because they lacked sufficient resources that would allow them to do so. High status, advantaged or privileged students have more self-awareness because their resources constantly allow them to invest in themselves. This deters them from bad academic practices and therefore they conform to academic values and practices as a way to invest further on themselves.

Contrary to Warin’s (2015) theory of identity capital one could argue that disadvantaged students more than the advantaged would be motivated more in investing in themselves in order to overcome their circumstances. Although the advantaged students may have access to resources that allow them to be self-aware and continuously invest in the self, the disadvantaged students would be more determined to academically succeed. They might view education as one way to become socially mobile, through slowly acquiring and accumulating the resources needed for them to invest in themselves. This might deter the disadvantaged
students from engaging in bad academic practices as it might place in jeopardy or impede their future success.

Regardless, Warin (2015:703) proposes that lecturers become agents of transformation by being trained to recognise cultural inequalities and disparities amongst the students. This would, in his opinion, open the lecturers’ eyes to various apparent and unapparent student inequalities. Eventually it would lead to institutional policies targeted at aiding and assisting the students who lack the required amounts of capital (whether identity related, cultural, social and economic capital). Only through awareness of the different types of capitals and how they operate within an academic setting can lecturers or academic staff and institutions make an impact on the students’ lives.

### 3.3.3 Transformative properties of capital

Different types of capital may present themselves in different forms; this is because each type of capital has transformative abilities, they can be transformed to the other types of capital. Bennett and Silva (2011) and Gidsrup et al. (2011) state that all three of forms of capital ultimately converge to create economic capital. Economic capital is essentially the basis under which all other types of capital are created. Thus cultural, social and symbolic capitals facilitate conditions that make economic capital possible. Bourdieu (2011:84) explains that since cultural capital is associated with educational attainment, individuals can use their qualifications in order to get jobs which will result in the attainment of economic capital. Similarly with social capital, individuals can use their social connections either to invest or secure for them opportunities to make economic capital possible. Symbolically, individuals can use either, their stature, title, or privilege in society to secure economic capital. (Refer to Figure 1 for a visual representation of the transformative potential of capital)

![Figure 1: Transformative potential of capital](image-url)
3.4 Habitus and Field

3.4.1 Understanding habitus

The theory of habitus makes use of situational analysis (Nice, 1990: 53). Rather, than viewing individuals as independent, autonomous entities isolated from their environment, habitus uses the social framework to analyse individuals in relation to their social circumstances. Bourdieu (1989) asserts that the social world consists of structures on the field of perception, thought and action independent of the consciousness of the individuals. These structures constitute what is called habitus. Society, culture and socioeconomic status (SES) are fundamental in the formation of habitus in that the habitus embodied by individuals reflects their “social situatedness” (Gaddis 2013:3). Social “situatedness” refers to the individuals’ social group and class and therefore their cultural and financial situations.

Habitus is defined as a system of durable, transposable structured structures, which act as structuring structures, generating and organising social practices (Bourdieu, 1993; Swartz 1997: 100; Nice, 1990). What Bourdieu means by this is that individuals are guided by a set of resilient, long lasting (but flexible), deeply rooted dispositions or mental structures that are constructed early on within individuals’ (Bourdieu, 1993). These dispositions or mental structures, as I have referred to them, characterise the objective structures from which they were taken from. They guide, action, thought and perception throughout the individuals lives.

According to Nice (1990: 52), in order to understand what habitus is, one has to accept knowledge as constructed rather than randomly selected mental snap shots of social reality. The author argues that habitus is always constructed in a way that reflects the individual’s social circumstances. Moreover, habitus may act as a social predictive model, which has the ability to predict future outcomes based on the past experiences of individuals and groups. Habitus is a structure that allows for the perception of different contexts. Habitus endows social agents or individuals’ with viewpoints unique to where they come from, these viewpoints are formulated early in life. Additionally, they are entrenched and in the social conditions under which the individual is born.

Habitus as referred to in this study results in the production of practices as well as the adoption of these practices. Both habitus and the practices generated from it reflect the social conditions, under which they were created, integrating past and present experiences and actions (Nash 1999; Gaddis 2013: 3). Thus when the individual exercises agency in any
context in social life, their actions are guided and dictated by their habitus. Habitus then becomes the basis through which individuals perceive and interpret the social world. This is why habitus is referred to as deeply embedded or internalised structures that individuals use to navigate through social spaces (Lizardo, 2004: 3-4).

In essence, habitus is the embodiment of structure into an individual consciousness or subconscious (Nash, 1999: 176). The term embodiment refers to the process where certain practices are socialised, both consciously and subconsciously into the individuals’ minds and expressed in the way they think, feel and speak (Reay, 2004:432). Nash (1999) and Smith (2003) assert that habitus is an embodied generative schema on an individual’s field of perception. By generative schema, the authors mean that habitus results in the formation and creation of different diverse schemas all of which reflect the conditions under which they were formed. This is one of the constricting features of habitus, as individuals can only come to exhibit the characteristics offered by their background of circumstances.

Through the use of habitus individuals are able to construct social spaces and exhibit the characteristics of the social spaces they construct (Bourdieu 1989; Swartz 1997: 103). An individual will often exhibit the characteristics unique to their background, characteristics that stem from their social context, social class (generally conditions linked to one’s sociocultural and SES). Habitus is flexible, in so far as allowing individuals to engage in infinite practices within the limited scope offered by their social context (Nice, 1990: 62). Habitus creates a set of socially “acquired dispositions” in individuals (Starfield, 2002: 124). Acquired in the sense that individuals are not born with habitus but acquire it as a result of their social training. Dispositions in this context refer to a specific set of preferences, habits, tastes and competences an individual is endowed with by their social group and context.

Social contexts thus reflect the “collective habits” unique to a specific social group and often transferred through kinship (Nash, 1999; Smith, 2003). According to Lizardo (2004) habitus represents a set of “lived experiences” derived from objective structures constituting a “state of being”. State of being here refers to the process where individuals convert objective structures into subjective structures. Essentially, objective structures are structures external to the individual, their social class or social status. Subjective structures are formed when individuals absorb and internalise objective/external structures to the point that their behaviours, gestures and language reflect the external structure. Both external-objective and
subjective structures represent the individual’s social position and background within a society (Bourdieu, 1989).

Nash (1999: 183) asserts that habitus reflects a sort of accidental social training as it is a product of conscious and unconscious efforts. Due to the lack of deliberateness in acquiring habitus, a person might not be aware that they are acting in a way that reflects their background. Individuals may not be aware of how their actions, thoughts and behaviours are shaped and influenced by their habitus (Reay, 2004). Nevertheless, their habitus will exert pressure on the individual and the individual will exert pressure back on the structures unconsciously. The individual will exert pressure on the structures in that they are able to expand and transform the structures or contexts they come from.

Individuals inadvertently expand and transform their external/objective by constantly replicating and reproducing the conditions similar to their background (or context). This results in a cycle where individuals constantly reproduce the conditions under which they were created every time they exercise agency in any context (Nice, 1990). This cycle becomes a representation of their attitudes, perceptions, understandings and experiences all of which are held by but not limited to a specific group of people. (Refer to figure 2 for a summary of the above stated process).

**Figure 2: Habitus cycle**

A theory closely similar to the theory of habitus is Piaget’s theory of knowledge conception (as cited by Lizardo, 2004: 13). Piaget’s theory of knowledge conception is similar to that of
Bourdieu’s theory of habitus in that it states that “knowledge consists of cognitive structures that transform and are transformed by the environment”. The theory states that individuals navigate their environment using already developed mental cognitive structures that influence their perceptions of different contexts. Lizardo (2004: 13) refers to these cognitive structures and habitus as “perception-processing-action-generation sequences”. This is because habitus provides individuals with a set of mental “tools” that allow for human agency (Nash, 1999).

How then, does habitus or knowledge conception relate to plagiarism? Academically habitus and the theory of knowledge conception form the basis of the argument that students encounter the contexts such as university using already formed mental structures. These already formed mental structures assist students formulate understanding of different contexts allowing agency. Thus students interpret university, specifically academic practices in university using their accumulated knowledge and lived experiences that are embedded deep within their psyches to adjust to their contexts. The students’ for example use their habitus to understand and interpret academic practices exercised in university in order to ascertain what is required from them.

The foundational assertion held in these theories is that individuals transform and conserve their “lived experiences” and over time use these lived experiences as means of interpreting different social spaces or contexts (Lizardo, 2004: 17). However, habitus not only guides individuals but also constrains social agents and their practices (Bourdieu, 1989). Although, habitus is the basis through which action is possible, the students’ habitus, in this case, may constrain them in terms of what they can do and as a result of what they have been exposed to. In addition, the students may be constricted in that if their habitus differs too significantly from their environment, they may struggle to adjust to it as a result.

Since the students are born, socialised or socially trained in different contexts. One can therefore conclude that they accumulate different experiences. These experiences can either liberate or constraint the students. They may facilitate limited or varying exposure to ‘tools’ that enable them to act or exercise agency in the academic field. Moreover, Panofsky (as cited by Nash, 1999: 181) reduces habitus to a “product of a specific form of education” that is so pervasive that it limits one’s actions and thoughts. For instance, students from certain social backgrounds will have on offer only a set of choices that reinforce the constitution of their habitus (Nice, 1990). These perceptions are strongly reinforced by their backgrounds.
In sum, if the students’ habitus is structured in a way that is incompatible to university academic the academic field. They may end up engaging in undesirable practices such as plagiarism accidentally or as means of adjusting. Both of these reasons are especially probable, but not limited to first generation university students or students with low cultural capital. For these students’ academic blunders may occur accidentally due to the fact that their backgrounds may have insufficiently prepared them for university and its practices. They may also occur purposefully in that the students may use them as a copying mechanism when they struggle in university.

3.4.2 Institutional habitus in higher education institutions

Bourdieu does not explicitly speak about institutional habitus as much as he emphasises that individuals will encounter and engage with different contexts and fields using their already inculcated ‘viewpoints’ called habitus. An institution such as a HEI constitutes mainly what the author describes as a ‘field’ which will be discussed in-depth later in the chapter. A field is described as independent from one’s habitus, but one will mainly engage with the field, in this case an institution using their habitus as habitus is the basis of all interaction. Similarly, “An ecological perspective suggests that habitus external to the school provides dispositions that continuously construct and reconstruct school ethos” (Smith, 2003:463).

The term ‘ecological’ in this study refers to the students’ settings, contexts and environments, particularly how they are shaped and shape their perception and understanding and behaviour. Bronfenbrenner (1994: 38) asserts that human development is a product of active and prolonged interactions between the individual and their environment. These interactions encompass the individuals’ interactions with other individuals, objects and symbols on a regular basis. These regular interactions are called “proximal processes” and are found in an array of activities, parent child activities, solitary or group practices, play, reading, learning new skills, studying etc. Proximal processes vary in form, power and content and may influence different individuals differently.

Much like Bourdieu’s theory on the formation of habitus Bronfenbrenner (1986: 723) argues that the family is the principal context where individual development takes place. The author asserts that familial backgrounds which include their SES and sociocultural values, status and neighbourhoods’ become indicators of how the students’ will interact with varying settings they encounter over time. In particular, Bronfenbrenner (1994:38) argues that poor environments characterised by low parent involvement and low social class are associated
with dysfunctional development of the child. While advantaged stable environments characterised by high levels of parental involvement, positively influence mental ability, academic achievement and social skills are associated with the students’ interaction with.

In appropriating Bronfenbrenner’s ecological analysis the following can be implied, students coming from advantaged contexts are most likely to succeed in academic contexts such as HEI’s. Since, these contexts perceived as more stable and consistent with child development. Given that habitus is a matrix of perceptions and appreciations structuring behaviour in differing contexts (Smith, 2003: 465). These perceptions and appreciations are in essence developed to reflect the conditions of the context that created them. Thus habitus is a contextually constructed structure that assists individuals navigate, generate and organise social practices in the varied contexts they encounter. Habitus to an extent can be an attributable to institutions or organisations and is not limited to only social agents and groups (Smith, 2003: 464-465).

Institutions have what is referred to as organisational habitus which is evident in the values, norms and practices lecturers try to instil in the students during their learning processes (Smith, 2003:465). Institutions create a type of “cultured habitus” where learning is established as the norm (Yorke and Thomas, 2003; Reay, 2004: 434). Ethos on the other hand refers to the organisational structure and “culture of practice” within an institution influencing and influenced by the students’ habitus (Smith, 2003: 465).

According to Smith (2003) organisational habitus is more or less rigid when compared to individual and community habitus. Organisational or institutional habitus is realised through the students’ interactions with it. Both students and lecturers interpret institutional habitus through the use of their own habitus and therefore institutional habitus both influences and is influenced by the students and academic staff. Institutional habitus has structuring properties, as it generates and organises practices imposing certain dispositions on to the students. For instance, dispositions such as how to learn, how students should conduct themselves in academic setting, what is considered good academic conduct or misconduct etc.

Crozier (2015) argues that institutional habitus greatly influences whether students will quit or continue in a particular HEI. Different HEI’s have different habitus’ also referred to as cultures, climates and ethos. Certain institutional characteristics may be associated with being of high status or low status, or they may be perceived as being friendly or welcoming. Therefore students could either be receptive or hostile towards the habitus or environment of
a particular HEI as previously mentioned characteristics reflect and inform practices that are deeply embedded within varying institutions. These practices influence the relationships between staff and students and the relationships in-between the students. They also reflect the extent the institutions to which institutions are academically, socially and culturally inclusive (Yorke and Thomas, 2003).

Particularly institutional identities influence students’ choices to attend or not attend certain institutions (Crozier, 2015). According to Smith (2003:468) in order for the students to adapt in academic institutions such as university, there needs to be a certain degree of congruence between school ethos and the student habitus, students with significantly different habitus may be turned away. Students lacking interest in school have low aspirations, dysfunctional backgrounds and low self-esteem will struggle when they come to university. The issue might be that by the time new students attend university there are already established norms, values and practices agreed upon by the past students to guide the new students. These already established norms values and practices constitute what is ultimately considered institutional habitus.

The already established practices are subject to evolution, an evolution that is brought about by the institutions occupants in different eras and geographical locations. Moreover, these periodic and sometimes gradual evolutions become the shared values, norms and beliefs and practices that inform student learning and behaviour (Smith, 2003). According to Smith (2003:466-468) the interaction of the students’ habitus and institutional habitus constructs a sort of “culture of practice”. This culture of practices results in shared meanings, between the students and the lecturers of how things should be. This culture of practice is learned by the students through practice and participation and achieved through conflict and collaboration and negotiation of what is valuable to learn. There is a process of co-learning between lecturers and students.

In order to reduce the conflicts and increase the congruence between the students and the lecturers Yorke and Thomas (2003: 68) propose that institutions engage in the demystification of institutional practices. The authors propose that institutions engage more with pre-university students in order to prepare them for when they enrol in higher education institutions. This way the students would know what is expected from them when they attend university. Often the students lack the necessary academic skills when entering into university. Early engagement with high school students would assist them develop key
academic skills prior to their attendance in university. Ways of engaging with pre-university students include, summer school programmes and outreach programmes where students would visit and learn about institutional requirements.

Constant visibility and student engagement by institutions would ease the students learning processes and their integration into higher education institutions. Smith (2003: 466) regards learning a product of “community of practice” rather than the internalisation of external structure both within academic institutions and the social sphere. Community of practice is where students and individuals learn and appropriate values, norms, practices through practice and participation. Smith (2003) asserts that ‘community of practice’ is what leads to the production and reproduction of social practices and social order. This is how students come to learn the acceptable and unaccepteble academic practices. A flaw though with analysing learning processes of the students and individuals through ‘community of practice’ is that this accounts for only the structuring properties of academic and social structures.

It does not account for how individuals create, interpret and participate in new contexts or environments they have not encountered. Secondly, community of practice at best highlights the learning capacity of social agents over the production and reproduction of social practices. Although academic institutions have in place shared or “agreed upon” (by the students and academic staff) norms and values and practices, it is not guaranteed that the students and the staff will interpret them the same, even amongst themselves. In addition, institutional habitus represents a type of learnt habitus rather than a deeply imbedded structure. It is a type of habitus that individuals obtain through the prolonged exposure of culturing properties agreed upon in a particular environment.

The issue then with this type of habitus is what happens if individuals or in this case students bring to the institution a significantly different habitus than that valued within the institution. The students whose habitus that complements that of the institution, would most likely have an advantage, while the students with the type of habitus ill-suited for their environment struggle. The struggles could manifest differently amongst these students, some may be inclined to drop out, while others may attempt to adapt by using strategies unacceptable to the institution. These strategies may include practices such as plagiarism; the students would resort to practices such as plagiarism in order to give the impression and appearance of having the qualities and skills prised within their environment or the institution.
ESL or NNES in these instances copy eloquent phrases and passages in other peoples work without attribution to give the impression of having skills prised by the institution and in academic writing. Although, academic discourse is not any students language in particular and even EFL students may struggle to adapt to it. EFL students so have a slight advantage over the ESL and NNES because of their language backgrounds. In addition, because academic institutions are part of the social order and therefore subject to its logic (Smith, 2003: 469). Some students by virtue may be placed by their social backgrounds (sociocultural status and SES, social class etc.) at a better advantage to absorb academic discourses. Particularly, some students are socially position in ways that may complement the institutional habitus’ found in HEI’s.

Moreover, since we live in a society that prises credentials students, in an attempt to mediate between the institutional habitus in an HEI and their background may cheat and plagiarise in order to obtain credentials. With credentials the students’ backgrounds would be rendered irrelevant in that credentials are universally recognisable qualifications affirming the students’ skills (Bourdieu, 1989:21). Thus, naturally students would be motivated to attain these qualifications by using any means necessary in order to negate their disadvantaged backgrounds and inspire confidence in their abilities in whichever fields they find themselves in.

3.4.3 Family habitus

Barker and Hoskins (2015:4-5) state habitus is inherently transmitted to the students by their families through the transference of capital (social, cultural and symbolic capital). The authors emphasise that, an individual’s agency and competence in the academic sphere is influenced by their social class and status (SES and sociocultural status). This is because they constitute the objective structures that the students come to internalise which are reflected in their perceptions. Additionally, North, Snyder and Bulfin (2008:903) asserts that familial habitus influences the perceived value of school (and other fields). If the perceived value of education is low in an individual’s family, the individual may not see the importance of acquiring cultural capital in the academic sphere.

If an individual’s family recognises the value and importance of school and education the individual may be disposed to acquiring the cultural capital offered in academic institutions. Nevertheless this may not always be the case, in some instances the students have cultural capital passed onto them by their families, but not the type desired academic institutions.
These students may struggle to accumulate the cultural capital they desire in the academic sphere. Thus the structure as well as the amount of capital one possess is important. The structure and the amount of one’s cultural capital influence their academic achievement (North et al., 2008: 901).

It is likely that students already familiarised by their parents with the academic setting will thrive more than the students with parents who have not, which may be due to the parents’ lack of formal education (Yorke and Thomas, 2003). Students from economically advantaged, educated and supportive families are more likely to achieve academic and overall successes (Warin, 2015). This is because these families give the students access to privileged discourses and vocabularies unlike disadvantaged families. Barker and Hoskins (2015) argue that families play a significant role in the students’ perception of the academic environment, career prospects and identity formation.

Family background largely contributes to how students respond to the academic environment (North et al., 2008). The students’ family background could either be an obstacle in the students learning processes or an advantage (North et al., 2008; Barker and Hoskins, 2015). Family background (or habitus) influences the students’ educational choices, attitudes, values, interests and preferences (Barker and Hoskins, 2015:1). Crozier (2015: 1117-1119) states that often parents prime their children to attend certain universities or a higher education institution of their choosing. Parents with high amounts of cultural capital push their children to attend institutions they feel they would benefit their children more. They are constantly priming and grooming their children for success.

According to the author this process may be done consciously or unconsciously by the parents. Nonetheless, the proactive involvement of the parents in their children’s academic endeavours assists them in accumulating more cultural capital. Moreover, the author explains that “the privileged parents display anxieties over their children’s future”. Highly resourced and powerful families further their ambitions using their children, because they fear that if they do not push them, they might lose their social standing in society.

Barker and Hoskins (2015:8-11) assert that factors such as the parents support in their children’s extracurricular activities as well their careers influence the students’ scholastic choices and academic achievements. The parents’ occupations in particular influence the students’ scholastic choices because students aspire more or less to be like their parents. Other factors that might influence the children’s career prospects include the parents’
hobbies. The parents’ hobbies may influence the children in terms of exposure. For example if the parents like keeping animals around the house and playing with them, their children might be disposed to pursuing careers involving animals such as veterinary medicine or opening game farms, pet shops etc. Family values are extremely pervasive in the students’ lives.

Childrearing techniques in particular between middle-class and working class parents have an influence on the children’s ability to accumulate the capital (Barker and Hoskins, 2015; Warin, 2015). Middle class or well-off students have more of an advantage, as students from working class families are believed to be limited by their lack of exposure to economic and material resources (Crozier, 2015; Barker and Hoskins, 2015). It is assumed that lack of exposure to resources for students coming from working class families affects their abilities to stand on equal footing with their middle-class counterparts. Alternatively, North et al. (2008) argues that the students’ level of exposure to material sources, such as books, computers, phones and other forms of academic or media related materials do not guarantee good academic performance.

Material exposure may not correlate with academic success because students may use the material sources at their leisure and not for academic purposes. In addition, family connections and associations have an influence on the students’ academic and career prospects, as they provide access to opportunities for the students. Students can work their way up using family connections (Barker and Hoskins 2015:11). Barker and Hoskins (2015) argue that associations both made by the students and their families are contingent on the structure of capital they come to possess. Students can make associations with both their family’s acquaintances and even academic staff on condition that similarities exist in the type of capital possessed.

Overall students can mobilise the families resources availed to them; this is because “Parents are routinely mobilising resources to help their children, through the education system”. Devine (as cited by Barker and Hoskins, 2015: 13) discovered that most children were allocated to posts in the work environment by members of their families (relatives included).

Moreover, the authors stress that “Socio-economic status is the most powerful predictor of student success; socioeconomic status closely related to educational attainment because it fundamentally represents the family’s ability to mobilise the resources necessary for the
academic successes of their children. Income inequality amongst the students’ families inadvertently results in inequalities in school performances amongst the students’.

Emirsch (as cited by Barker and Hoskins, 2015: 4) suggested that the students, intellectual, emotional and behavioural development are contingent on parental income and are formulated at an earlier stage in the students’ lives and are of great significance for their later achievements. Most parents are able to give in the traditional sense their children support, but economic or financial support is the most crucial component as it is the basis of all social interaction. Economic support, results in the students exposure to different material and academic sources resources. Barker and Hoskins (2015:15) emphasise that there are different types of support offered to children from advantaged and disadvantaged backgrounds. They conclude that working class parents’ attitudes have less impact on their children’s educational achievement rather than income and parental education.

Crozier (2015) thus insinuates that institutions are socio-economically segregated rather than racially segregated. Student inequalities in higher education institution are a condition of the inequalities existing in the objective structures rather than racially motivated. Some students may be successful in an academic setting than others because of socio-economic factors that result in differences in exposure to resources. These inequalities are not of the students doing as parental goals, choices and motivations have an impact on how receptive students are in the academia.

North, Snyder and Bulfin (2008: 896) insist that educational attainment is not independent of background. There is a strong correlation between educational attainment and social background. Social background consists, of one’s neighbourhood, geographic location, their race and ethnicity, gender and their parent’s income and level of education etc. Additional factors constituting student background are their interactions and associations with other students. The students may act in terms of what their friends or peers perceive as cool, right or wrong thus these associations could either be detrimental or beneficial to them. Social background may be an important aspect of analysis when looking at how students are going to respond to an academic setting.

In sum, it is important not to separate "context from outcome” (North et al., 2008: 900-908). Students’ navigate both the social and academic spaces using what they have learned and been exposed to from their family environment. Their background becomes the lens in which they perceive, accept, and reject the structures around them. The students’ dispositions should
not be viewed outside of the social, cultural and historical context from which they arise as they give a point of reference. In other words context is fundamental is key to understanding academic issues such as plagiarism and addressing them.

3.4.4 Criticisms of habitus

Lizardo (2004: 8-24), asserts that habitus is highly deterministic and classificatory in nature. Habitus is classificatory in the sense that it may lead to social exclusionism, as with racism, ageism, gender exclusionism (Reay, 2004). Habitus may be influenced by more than SES and social class; it can be influenced by gender, race and age. Moreover, habitus is deterministic in that it supposes individuals cannot transcend the conditions under which they were created or born. For example, individuals from disadvantaged backgrounds are doomed to live, produce and reproduce structures reflecting their disadvantaged backgrounds. Habitus is flexible insofar as implying the expansion of structures. Thus transcendence and therefore social mobility is unfeasible in the sense that individuals from certain social classes are restrained and constricted solely to their social classes.

They can neither alter their class nor exhibit characteristics of another class. Nash (1999: 178) states that habitus is based on assumptions that people of the same social groups will reflect the same or similar characteristics. The theory does not account for individuality, in the sense that people within the same social group may hold different values and motivations and achieve different things. For instance, academic achievement may not necessarily be characteristic of a whole social group and class. Instead the social and economic status of a group may endow individuals with certain privileges’ that might make academic achievement possible. In other words academic achievement is not guaranteed specifically by one’s membership in a particular social group or class.

In addition, habitus can be perceived as endowing individuals with “a false sense of immediate understanding in any given situation” (Lizardo, 2004:8). Habitus acts as a predictive model that supposes that individuals are at every moment predisposed to thinking and acting a certain way. This arises from the assumption that habitus allows individuals to use the sources availed to them by their social positioning within social reality (Nash, 1999). (Social reality as defined by Reay (2004:436) is a combination of internalised and external structures). Individuals at all times are inclined to using these sources to interact and interpret new environments. This not only provides a false sense of understanding but also portrays
individuals as being social puppets rather than active participants when engaging with different contexts. Habitus as stated by Nash (1999: 181) becomes an obstacle to one’s freedom of thought and action.

3.4.5 Field

A “field” is representative of a social space guided by its own set of arbitrary rules and regulations that guide the "social actors” and their practices (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992; Bourdieu, 1993; Gaddis, 2013). Reay (2004: 432-436) states that fields represent external/objective structures. The author asserts that one’s “habitus only becomes active in relation to a field. Field, habitus and capital in Bourdieu’s work are not isolated from one another but represent interconnected concepts. Individuals are able to participate within a field through the use of their habitus. Habitus generates action and behaviour that enables agents to act within various fields (Reay, 2004). To better understand the idea of a field Bourdieu likens the concept to a game (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992; Bourdieu, 1993).

As with any game, individuals need to be acquainted with the rules of the game, these rules may represent collectively agreed upon practices by the actors within a particular social space. Additionally, they could represent the practices, norms and values that inform the regulation and functioning of a particular social space (Spillman, 2002). Nonetheless, individuals are expected to embody or conform to the rules just as they are required to follow the rules of a game in order to participate within the game. Field and capital, on the other hand are connected, in the sense that individuals in the same field directly and indirectly compete with one another, to get certain advantages in a particular field (Reay, 2004). While an individual’s habitus plays an important role in their attainment of capital in a particular field (North et al., 2008:898-899).

This is on condition that one’s habitus is in line with the values of that field. Reay (2004:434) explains that individuals are products of their histories, family and social class and status. Individuals embody both individual and collective habitus. However, because in as much as individuals from similar social groups, classes and status embody at some level a kind of collective habitus, no individual habitus is the same. This is because during their lifespan individuals are unlikely to encounter the exact same fields. Additionally, since different environments are characterised by differences in form, power and content, they most likely to facilitate differences amongst individuals (Bronfenbrenner, 1994). Moreover, since
individuals encounter and interact with other individuals from different fields this further restructures their already constructed habitus (Reay, 2004:434).

Habitus constantly restructures and is restructured by various fields within diverse social spaces. In this study, the university is a field in which the student’s capacity for acquiring academic discourses and skills such as academic writing are realised Starfield (2002: 125). Since different students are endowed with different types, structures and amounts of habitus and capital. How they encounter a field will be dependent on the type and structure of their habitus and the capital they possess. According to Reay (2004) a “field” gives agency to both individuals and social groups, shaping them and their perceptions. When an individual’s habitus encounters an unfamiliar field it may be restructured in a way that allows them to adapt in their new environment.

If a social agent’s habitus however significantly differs from a particular field, the field may turn away the individual or the individual may turn away from the field (Smith 2003). Overall, a certain level of compatibility between an individual’s habitus and the field is required in order for them to successfully participate within that field (Bourdieu and Thompson, 1991). Moreover, an individuals’ habitus is what gives value to a field (Reay, 2004). If the value of entering a particular field is perceived as low, the individual will not want to accumulate the capital associated with that field. For example, Nash (as cited by Reay, 2004) states that if a student were to reject, the practices, values, norms, of an institution, they are unlikely to restructure their habitus in accordance with their field.

If a student’s habitus is in line with a field, then they will thrive in the university but if their habitus and the field are incompatible the student will struggle (North et al., 2008:908). Alternatively Lizardo (2004) proposes that the students or individuals may default to what they know following their subsequent failure to adjust or adapt to a particular field. I on the other hand propose that in university the students’ struggles to adapt to their field which is university may result in the manifestation of unacceptable strategies such as plagiarism. This would be most evident in cases of unintentional plagiarism. However, in some instances the students may be tempted to use strategies like plagiarism to get ahead and acquire capital in the form of credentials which would be considered intentional plagiarism.
3.5 Summary

The main aim of this chapter was to show that social external and subjective structures may contribute to student academic inequalities and therefore achievements in university. According to the theory of habitus not all students are equipped with the same skills of adapting in an academic setting. While some students may thrive others may struggle thus resorting in unacceptable academic practices such as plagiarism. This may occur intentionally or unintentionally. Intentionally in the sense that students may engage in plagiarism purposefully regardless of whether their backgrounds have acquainted them with the concept or not. Plagiarism on the other hand might occur unintentionally as a result of certain students being ill-equip to dealing with academic fields.

They may be ill-equip in that they lack the necessary exposure to resources (in a form of cultural capital) or because their specific habitus is not compatible with the field of academia. Thus conditions external to the academic sphere might be responsible for certain issues occurring in academia. Both students and institutions are social entities and therefore subject to social circumstances (Smith, 2003). What occurs in the academic sphere cannot be analysed independently of social circumstances, as they provide reference for the students’ actions and dispositions (North et al., 2008). As previously stated in the chapter, the students’ social circumstances (family and background) are connected with their academic achievement and success.

The students’ family dispositions (family habitus) may affect their learning abilities, perception of academic institutions such as university and their overall outlook on life. One could even say that certain inequalities amongst the students are passed onto them by their families (Barker and Hoskins, 2015:13). Therefore the students’ social environment and academic achievement are interconnected. Thus, one could conclude that institutional policies are not successful in dealing with plagiarism and other forms of academic violations because they ignore the contextual circumstances such as the students’ backgrounds. In any case, if the institutions were to acknowledge these contextual circumstances it would give rise to new sets of issues. For instance, academic institutions cannot close the gaps in the students’ educational inequalities if the inequalities arise as a result of external social inequalities.

Ultimately, academic institutions succeed insofar as imparting onto the students a sort of “cultured habitus” that results in cultural reproduction instead of social reproduction (Yorke
and Thomas, 2003; Reay, 2004; Barker and Hoskins, 2015). This is because schools are not guaranteed vehicles for social mobility even if they offer credentials (Barker and Hoskins, 2015). Furthermore, academic institutions are not equipped in dealing with the students’ socio-economic or habitus related inequalities. Thus no matter how strong institutional policies are, they will always be inadequate, as they may never be able to minimise the social gaps that exist amongst the students.
CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHOD

4.1 Introduction

This chapter assesses, evaluates and discusses the various methods and techniques used in the study to describe and explain the students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences towards plagiarism. The methods and techniques within the chapter were chosen to address the research questions that have been identified and highlighted throughout the study. This chapter will elucidate not only the methods used but also the appropriateness of; the research designs, data collection instruments, data analysis tools that contribute to the overall validity of the study. In addition the limitations of each tool and method will be discussed in order to ensure trustworthiness.

4.2 Rationale for qualitative research

Roth and Mehta (2002) propose that interpretive studies should be combined with positivist methods in order to give more in-depth and accurate accounts or insights. These authors suggest that positivist data could act to complement interpretive data. Each method would compensate for the other methods shortcomings. However, the main issue with the application of positivist methods in this study is that plagiarism is context specific in nature. Quantitative research methods would be mismatched with this study as the primary units of analysis such as attitudes and experiences are unquantifiable. Statistical measurements of these units would only produce superficial or surface results rather than produce in-depth descriptions of student accounts.

Furthermore, the manifestation of plagiarism in one area or tertiary institution cannot account fully for the manifestations of plagiarism in other areas or institutions. Plagiarism is subjective in nature and can change or be altered by an individual’s interaction with different contexts. For example, plagiarism inside and outside of academia may be stimulated or facilitated by different factors unique to each context. Thus quantitative or positivist views on plagiarism would only provide insufficient data as quantitative studies seek to generalise over different contexts. Moreover, these approaches would fail to account for what motivates student plagiarism based on the students’ interpretations of what it is.

This is why for this study the qualitative approach and interpretive paradigm were selected. These approaches were chosen for their ability to offer in-depth insights and for their
flexibility. Although, the main unit of analysis was the students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences of plagiarism, the flexible nature of the research methods chosen in the study allowed for an in-depth look at other factors. These factors included the institutional policy and procedures documents, the students’ socio-economic backgrounds and the educational value of anti-plagiarism software’s. Since, the above motioned were all assumed at some level to influence the shaping of student perceptions, understandings and experiences towards plagiarism.

4.2.1 Interpretivism and the qualitative approach

The interpretative approach is most complimentary with qualitative research methods (Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 33). The paradigm offers insights into understandings held by individuals or groups (Roth and Mehta, 2002). Babbie and Mouton (2001: 28- 273) explain that qualitative studies stress human consciousness. Social actors are considered conscious of their actions and thus they have the ability to reflect on them. Individuals are seen as having the ability to give detailed accounts and descriptions of their actions and experiences. For purposes of this study, to ascertain the reasons for why students plagiarise and their interpretation of plagiarism and its significance in academic study qualitative interpretive paradigms were most appropriate. Since, the students were perceived as being able to reflect on their actions and therefore able to account for the reasons behind them.

Since perceptions, understanding and experiences vary from student to student, qualitative researchers have to interpret the data they acquire from the participants. Throughout the process of interpretation the researcher may be susceptible or subject to their own biases falling victim to their prejudices (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Roth and Mehta, 2002). The researcher, just as the student is socially situated within the social context. The researcher’s background, point of view, values, beliefs and experiences might impact on how the data is interacted with and interpreted (Tracy, 2013:2). For instance, in this study the researcher was both a student and a researcher and had their own attitudes towards plagiarism. I had to be cautious not to impose my own perspectives, understandings and experiences of plagiarism on the research participants and on the data collected.

In this study the aim was to ensure the adequate grasp of the students’ intentions, meanings and definitions of plagiarism, probing the students for more detail when necessary. Essentially qualitative studies are contingent on a high amount of inter-subjectivity (Babbie
and Mouton, 2001). Ekstrom (1992:110) asserts that, social actions arise as a product of complex social dispositions, meanings, intentions, social contexts and structures. Unlike positivist or objectivist views of social reality that assert that the individual is independent of social reality or that make use of natural science methodology with cause and effect assumptions.

Interpretive research methods acknowledge that the individuals under study as well as the researcher are socially situated entities and thus social reality only makes sense in relation to the meanings they ascribe to it. The main goal of these research methods is to understand human action and behaviour as it is subjectively constructed by individuals (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). In particular, Max Weber argues that, “sociology is a science concerning itself with the interpretive understanding of social action” and therefore equivalent to a causal-explanatory social science (Ekstrom, 1992:10; Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 31). Interpretive research methods are aimed at understanding human behaviour subjectively rather explain behaviour objectively.

In order for the researcher to obtain meaningful results through the use of qualitative and interpretive research methods they need to be able to build a relationship of trust with the participants (establish good rapport). This enables the researcher to be able to closely observe and monitor the research participants. According to Tracy (2013) to establish good rapport with the students, the researcher needs to be aware of their own attributes that might be construed as good or bad by the participants. Depending on the research participants and how they perceive the researcher, they can either be inclined or less inclined to share information. For example, male students might be less inclined to talk to an attractive female researcher freely than they would a male researcher or vice versa.

When the traits (in most cases physical) of a researcher are too different from the participants they are investigating, they run the risk of hindering their own research. It makes it tricky taking an insider’s perspective as the participants may view the researcher as an outsider. Alternatively Tracy (2013) argues that an outsider’s perspective might also yield important insights to issues as they may view them with fresh eyes. Fresh eyes in the sense that, the researcher may have differing experiences to those under investigation, they may have different perspectives of looking at the issues in question.
4.2.2 Qualitative research methodology

The study was conducted using the qualitative research methodology. This methodology was chosen because it would yield significant information on the participants’ point of view. Qualitative research methods are an effective strategy of gathering participants’ experiences and understandings through their responses and observations (Sofaer, 2002). Data is often undertaken using interviews, focus groups and field notes or reviewing personal documents or articles related to the issue in question (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Roth and Mehta, 2002; Sofaer, 2002; Tracy, 2013). According to Tracy (2013: 6-7) qualitative research methods are invaluable when analysing correlations or relationships in-between variables and when analysing a wide variety of issues stemming from a wide variety of cultural contexts.

For instance, in this study in particular, the qualitative research methods assisted in comparing between the first year and postgraduate honours students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences. In addition these methods allowed for an in-depth look of how the students’ cultural, social and academic backgrounds informed their perceptions, understandings and experiences and therefore influenced their engagement with the concept. The collection, organisation and interpretation of this research data can assist in unearthing the primary motivations behind student plagiarism which can then be addressed accordingly by the institution.

As stated earlier in the literature review plagiarism can only be analysed within a context of circumstances (Park, 2003; Park 2004; Bloch, 2009; Dores and Henderson, 2009; Sentleng and King, 2012). The researcher has to be able to understand the context and the meaning of the context. For example what the students’ words, actions, and experiences mean in relation to the context (Terre Blanche et al., 2006: 274). In this study the students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences (through the analysis of attitudes, feelings, and behaviours) of plagiarism were analysed in relation to academic study practices in the university. This required the insider approach as the findings were contingent on the researcher’s perspective. The insider approach is the equivalence of what Terre Blanche et al., (2006:275) refers to as “empathic reliving”.

Researchers have to be able to empathise with the research participants “put themselves in their shoes”. They need to do this in order to provide accurate second hand participant accounts and experiences. Empathic reliving allows the researcher to give detailed
explanations and descriptions of the participants’ actions and behaviours both in relation to context and the research phenomenon in question. In this study the researcher was familiar with both the context and the research phenomena in question. Unlike quantitative research approaches, the aim of qualitative research studies is not to generalise the research findings over large populations or predict behaviour concerning plagiarism.

Generalisations may be incorrect when applied to different individuals across different contexts. In this study therefore, a case study on the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg Campus, South Africa) was conducted. Babbie and Mouton (2001: 272) along with Tracy (2013: 3) assert that “circumstances inform interpretation”. Qualitative approaches cannot be executed isolated from contextual circumstances. Most often meanings extracted from the research participants arise from and through the careful analysis of contextual factors (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). Thus the case study approach in this study was most favourable and compatible with the methodology as it allowed for research to be conducted in its real-life context.

Qualitative studies allow the researcher the ability to cross-examine the participants’ subjective understanding of the world and the social spaces they occupy (Roth and Mehta, 2002: 132). Moreover, perceptions, understandings and experiences in this study were investigated by taking a closer look at the students’ attitudes and behaviours (both attitudes expressed and observed). The attitudes expressed by the students in this study were expected to aid the academic staff understand plagiarism from the students’ perspective.

“The advantages of using qualitative research studies are that the researcher can acquire rich and holistic data. Qualitative research studies offer more than just a snap shot of a certain phenomena; they provide an understanding of lived experiences within context. Qualitative research methods honour the participants’ meaning. They can help explain, illuminate, or reinterpret quantitative data, interpret participant viewpoints and stories. These methods can preserve the chronological flow, documenting what events lead to what consequences, and explaining why this chronology may have occurred. They celebrate how research representations (reports, articles, performances) constitute reality and affect the questions we can ask and what we can know. In addition, they can help illustrate how a multitude of interpretations are possible, but how some are more theoretically compelling, morally significant, or practically important than.”

(Tracy, 2013: 5)

The weaknesses or limitations of the data collection methodology chosen are that findings are not generalisable and are context or person specific (Babbie and Mouton, 2001: 273-277). The results are not representative of a larger population. In addition, the research findings
emphasise subjective meaning over statistical measurements and representations. As a result the findings are less likely to be replicable through scientific experimentation (Roth and Mehta, 2002). Since, qualitative research methods are based on both the subjective interpretations of the researcher and the participants the results may not be representative of larger populations. Hence, that is why many quantitative scientific researchers harbour scepticisms toward whether interpretations should be considered scientific (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Sofaer, 2002).

Data in qualitative studies is not obtained empirically as in positivist studies but instead obtained through in-depth interviews and observations and as a result it is subject to biases. Moreover, qualitative research methods are often time-consuming as the researcher must provide thick descriptions of the social phenomenon that they are researching (Roth and Mehta, 2002). Nonetheless, qualitative research strategies are most flexible and cost effective when compared with quantitative research strategies (Sofaer, 2002: 330).

4.3 Sampling and the sample

4.3.1 Non-probability sampling techniques

The main goal of non-probability sampling techniques is to select a sample because of a particular characteristic (or characteristics) they possess (Mays and Pope, 1995: 110). The characteristic or characteristics of the sample chosen have to be relevant to the study or within context of what is being studied. In contrast, to probability sampling techniques in non-probability samples are not chosen at random and not all participants have an equal chance to participating in the research study. In this study only the students in the University of KwaZulu-Natal were chosen to participate within the study. The selected students had to be either first year students or postgraduate honours students in the College of Humanities.

The participants were selected in a way that would allow comparisons between student responses in order to understand in-depth how they engaged with the concept of plagiarism. According to Babbie and Mouton (2001) non-probability sampling is the alternative to populations who cannot be traditionally located just as in survey studies and other cases that involve large-scale sampling methods. There are different types of non-probability sampling methods namely, reliance on available subjects, purposive or judgemental sampling, snowball sampling and quota sampling (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport, 2005; Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Albeit, De Vos et al. (2005) further refers to dimensional, target and spatial
sampling. Purposive and snowball sampling techniques were selected in the study as they are complimentary to explorative and descriptive studies.

Mainly, explorative and descriptive studies aim to address the “what”, “how”, “who” and “why” of social phenomena (Neuman, 2011). These are especially significant in this study, as the study aims to explore and understand why students engage in academically inappropriate behaviours such as plagiarism. The study sought to analyse and understand how the attitudes perceptions the students as shaped by their background impact on their inclinations to engage in these behaviours. Plagiarism is not a new phenomenon in the field of academics but new ideas and perspectives in how it is approached may assist in addressing the issue or reducing its prevalence. Understanding the issue of plagiarism from the point of view of the students as opposed to attempting to quantify their experiences may help in developing efficient policies and strategies to address plagiarism in academia.

4.3.1.1 Purposive and snowball sampling

In purposive sampling the sample is chosen based on the judgement of the researcher (De Vos, et al., 2005: 202). The researcher locates the sample using their knowledge of where to find the individuals with the attributes and characteristics sought for the analysis of a particular phenomenon or social occurrence (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). In this study, the researcher used her knowledge of where to find both first year and postgraduate honours students. This would be the library, the computer labs (general and postgraduate computer labs), and other areas that students usually gather, such as the Hexagon theatre kiosk and so on. Once the participants were located and confirmed to meet the criteria, they were interviewed. At the end of the interview sessions the participants were asked for referrals of other students with the similar characteristics and attributes as themselves.

Snowball sampling, then involves approaching either a single participant or a group of participants being investigated and inquiring if the participant could refer the researcher to individuals with similar life experiences (De Vos et al., 2005). This method of sampling according to Babbie and Mouton (2001: 166) is often executed if the samples are hard to locate. Thus the few members the researcher is able to locate (in this case through purposive sampling) give the researcher the necessary amount of information they would need to locate others in their social circles. The participants are “snowballed” until a sufficient number of the participants are acquired.
In this study using both purposive and snowball sampling was advantageous and complimentary. However, the disadvantage to using these sampling techniques was that the data was not going to be generalisable as the sample size was small and the samples were not chosen at random. Only, specific groups of students with specific characteristics in the University of the KwaZulu-Natal were selected to participate in the study. The context specific nature of the study combined with the subjective nature of the qualitative research methods utilised throughout the study did not allow for the data collected from these samples to be generalisable. The findings in this study may only be applicable to students in the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Pietermaritzburg Campus in the College of Humanities and not over whole student populations across different institutions.

In addition, qualitative research methods in particular, use people’s accounts as data (Hancock, Ockleford, and Windridge, 1998: 6). These accounts may be highly subjective and therefore only applicable to a specific individual or a specific group of individuals. In the theory section, the idea of habitus and the fact that individuals have different “point of views” was discussed in depth. These points of views influence how individuals perceive and interpret social phenomena and in this case plagiarism. That is why the samples and the findings that emerge from this study may not apply to other students as different students have different experiences with the concept of plagiarism. These differences may be a result of the context (the institution, its policies and procedures) or a result of the students, historical, cultural, social, political and academic background.

4.3.2 Research sample and sample criteria

Qualitative studies usually have smaller samples than quantitative studies (Terre Blanche et al., 2006: 288). In this study 23 research participants interviewed in total, which consisted of 13 males and 10 females. The sample was divided into two groups, namely first year students and postgraduate honours students. They were 12 first year students, and 11 postgraduate students. Research was undertaken between the second semester 2015 and first semester 2016. The primary reason for having two groups of students in the study was to; ascertain the students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences of plagiarism in relation to their level of study.

Firstly, plagiarism in this study was considered as a fluid constantly changing concept and that is why both first year students’ and postgraduate honours students were selected. These
two groups of students represented different degrees of exposure to academic practices. Consequently, the first year students’ and postgraduate honours students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences of plagiarism were considered as different. These differences were expected to be facilitated by mainly the different levels of study and by institutions as they enforced different strategies to dealing with plagiarism in these levels. In an attempt to diversify the sample, students selected for the study were enrolled in different faculties in the university. The students differed in terms of the modules they were doing.

The aim was to look at the many different features of plagiarism in academic scholarship. Even though the age, gender, race and courses that the students were doing were not particularly priority in the study. These characteristics were important factors in the diversification of data as they accounted for different contexts. Different contexts were believed to endow the students with different perceptions and point of views. Hence, data was collected from as many diverse sources as possible as diversity was associated with the attainment of different insights and perspectives. Furthermore, the degree of how the students’ background (academic and social) mediated in their understanding and perceptions of plagiarism was analysed.

The students context was closely analysed, mainly how the context influenced, shaped and moulded the participants’ attitudes, feelings and experiences towards plagiarism. In addition, a close look was taken particularly at the university’s policy and procedure documents and their anti-plagiarism detection software’ usage as this comprised of academic practices targeted at deterring student plagiarism. The intention behind this was analysing how institutional policy and procedure documents on plagiarism influenced the students’ engagement with the term. Moreover, to find out if the students were aware of and understood the policy and procedure documents. Lastly, a close look was taken on institutional policy and procedure in order to ascertain the role and influence of anti-plagiarism software’s on the students learning and writing processes.

4.3.3 Limitations and challenges in the study

Due to the subjective nature of the research study, research findings from the study may be context specific. In addition, since qualitative research methods make use of small samples, the findings are not representative. They may only represent the sample that the data was attained from and their faculty. As a consequence, the research findings in this study are not
going to be representative or generalisable to a larger context or population. In fact, the findings within this study may be seen as arising from conditions unique to the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg Campus, South Africa) where the data was collected. The research findings however are hoped to yield in-depth insights on the topic of plagiarism and add to the existing literature on the topic.

Regarding, the challenges experienced in this study, prior to the transcription process some audio files (interviews) were corrupted. This disruption reduced the sample size. Initially, 30 participants were interviewed, 15 first year students and 15 postgraduate honours students. When the audio files (interviews) were being transferred to the laptop for transcription, 7 audio files were corrupted and could not be opened. It is unclear if this occurred as a result of the recording device used or if the laptop itself was the cause. Nonetheless, since the files were lost prior to the data analysis process, except for a reduced sample, the corrupted files had no negative impacts on the findings. The sample size was not reduced to the point that the data had to be collected again and the sample was still appropriate for the type of methodology used.

4.4 Data collection instruments

In-depth interviews or semi-structured interviews were chosen based on the nature of the study. Since the study was based on the students attitudes, feelings, and experiences of plagiarism. The most efficient method of collecting data was interviews. Face-to-face semi-structured interviews would allow for an open dialogue on plagiarism between the students and the interviewer. Interviews were a more natural way of collecting the desired data. Interviews allow the researcher to interact with the participants on a more intimate level so to understand how they think and feel (Terre Blanche et al., 2006).

Moreover, in-depth or semi-structured interviews give the researcher the opportunity to analyse participant expressions and body language while giving their accounts. This process is referred to as the collection of non-observable data (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). Research findings are not limited to the research participants’ responses; the participants’ tone of voice, reactions and mannerisms could shed equally important information. The participants’ body language could inform the researcher to the fact that the research participants’ may be uncomfortable with certain questions, disinterested about the subject matter etc. Essentially
the researcher would know and understand when to probe the participant further, when to rephrase question and when to discontinue the line of questioning.

According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006: 299) the below characteristics are the foundations to conducting a good interview:

- Listen more, talk less,
- Follow up on what the participant says,
- Ask questions where you do not understand,
- Ask to hear more about the subject,
- Explore more and don’t probe,
- Ask open ended questions, which do not presume an answer,
- Follow up and do not interrupt,
- Keep participants focused and ask concrete details,
- Ask participants to rephrase and reconstruct,
- Do not reinforce the participants’ response, and
- Tolerate silence and allow the interviewee to be thoughtful

The research schedules in this study consist of a mixture of open-ended and close ended questions. Since the interviews were semi-structures therefore flexible, the researcher was allowed to sometimes stray or add questions that were not originally in the research schedule. The questions added, were based on the research participants dialogue with me as the researcher. The researcher asked the research participants further questions to gain clarity at times and also to acquire in-depth data. In view of the fact that, research participants can bring up unexpected themes to the researchers attention. During the interview process the researcher had an open mind and explored further the information and interesting points that arose from the students’ responses during the interviews.

4.5 Data collection and analysis

4.5.1 Data collection

Research data was collected using in-depth semi-structured face-to-face interviews. The interviews lasted approximately 20-30 minutes. A data recording device was used to obtain the data. The recording device used to record the interviews was a cell phone. The device was chosen because it was easily manageable, portable and convenient than an actual tape recorder. The audio recordings were transferred to a laptop for manual transcription. Prior to the interviews the students were given a brief summary of what the study was about. They were informed of the aims and objectives of the study. This was done to ease the students’
anxieties just before the interviews began and to promote an atmosphere of openness and trust between myself and the research participants.

Terre Blanche et al. (2006) assert that transparency is a way of encouraging the research participant to express themselves openly and authentically. The more at ease the participants were the more they would give in-depth descriptions of their experiences and feelings. Moreover, before the interviews started the interviewees were informed that the interviews would be recorded. There was no specific area/ location selected to conduct the interviews, this was done for flexibility. The students chose a location that best suited them, an area that they would be comfortable in. In addition, appointments were set with the students prior to the face-to-face interviews. This was done in order to avoid disturbing the students study schedules or study times, as they may have had lectures and assignments to complete at certain times of the day.

4.5.2 Recording and transcription

The data collected in this study was recorded and then transcribed. Data transcription is a process where the recorded interviews from the research participants are presented in a written form (Hancock et al., 1998). Each interview was manually transcribed, there was no use of computer software to help manage and transcribe data. Mainly, the decision to manually transcribe data was taken because it was more cost effective than hiring professional transcribers. An added advantage of manually transcribing the interviews was that it afforded the researcher with the unique opportunity of being immersed deeper into the research. Any ambiguities that arose in the interviews during the transcription of data were simply cleared through replaying the interview recordings.

While transcribing the main goal was to capture the participants’ statements and also portray their feelings and attitudes towards the questions posed. The main aim of the study was to gain the students attitudes, feelings and experiences of plagiarism. Hence, capturing the students’ attitudes and opinions towards the topic of plagiarism was crucial in the transcription process. In an effort to capture the students’ tone, feelings and meanings the data was transcribed in a way that emphasised punctuation, the students’ pauses, their expressions and the sounds they made during the interviews, e.g. sounds like, Uhm, Err, Ahh, Yahh, etc. This type of transcription is referred to as verbatim transcription.
According to Halcomb and Davidson (2006:38) verbatim transcription refers to the process where the researcher tries to capture the inter-subjective nature of human communication. The researcher will do this, by capturing or converting into written text the interviews word-for-word and also capturing, sighs, coughs, pauses etc. Notes and themes arising from participant interviews and relevant to the data were jotted down on a notebook during and after the transcription process. Prior to transcription substantial literature on the topic of plagiarism had been reviewed which aided the process of identifying themes that arose from the participant interviews. In addition recurring ideas in the students’ interviews were noted and jotted down.

On average the interviews took 20-30 minutes however the actual transcription process took approximately 1 and half to 2 hours. Manually transcribing was time consuming as the researcher had to ensure that the participants were not misrepresented in what they said (their responses). In addition, where the participants expressed themselves in Zulu the researcher translated their responses to English. The main challenge experienced in the data transcription process was that 7 recordings were lost during the process of transferring them to the laptop where they were transcribed. Since, the data was primarily recorded with little to no notes jotted down during the interviews, incomplete or inadequate interviews were removed before the data analysis process took place. As a result 23 interviews out of the initial 30 interviews that were recorded were used.

For future studies, the main challenge experienced in this study could be addressed by enlisting the help of a research assistant who would take extensive and clear notes while the interviewer conducts face-to-face interviews. In addition, after each interview the researcher could transfer the recordings to a backup storage device like a USB or a CD. This would ensure the safety of the data and minimise the chances of it getting lost or damaged.

4.5.3 Thematic content analysis

Data was analysed using thematic analysis. According to Braun and Clarke (2006) thematic analysis is a method of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns. It organises and describes data in detail and further interprets various aspects of the research topic. Thematic analysis consists of 6 phases; familiarisation with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes, and producing the report. It can be used to analyse the students’ experiences and their reality by exploring the ways broader
social and cultural context shape understanding. Issues or themes in thematic analysis can either stem from the theory or be embedded in participant interviews allowing for greater flexibility in the research process. Data can be both inductive and deductive. Patterns can emerge from the data collected or the researcher can interpret what the patterns mean.

Thematic analysis can help in examining underlying ideas and assumptions in the study which will allow for interpretive work and analysis. Identical to thematic analysis is interpretive qualitative analysis (IQA). Terre Blanche et al. (2006: 321-326) explain that interpretative qualitative analysis is a method of identifying, analysing and interpreting patterns. Interpretive qualitative analysis allows for the organisation and description of research data in detail, interpreting various aspects of the research topic. Interpretive qualitative analysis consists of 5 steps; Familiarisation and immersion, Inducing themes, coding, elaboration, interpretation and checking. Although IQA supposes 5 steps rather than 6 but one can assume that the sixth step omitted in this data analysis method would be producing the report, just as in thematic analysis.

Both thematic analysis and IQA are founded on Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis (IPA). IPA is the basis to which the interpretive paradigm arises. The aim of IPA is to study human perception, understanding and lived experiences (Smith, Flowers and Osborn, 1997). IPA is used in order to analyse how individuals understand social phenomena and the conditions underpinning their perception and understandings. Smith et al. (1997: 53) assert that the main aim of the researcher in IPA is to “engage in interpretive activity” in an attempt to make sense of the participants world. The researcher explores in detail, the participants understandings, and the factors that inform this understanding.

The first step taken in this study in order to analyse data collected was familiarisation. Familiarisation requires the researcher to immerse themselves in the data collected. In this study the researcher was familiarised with the phenomena under study by reviewing literature, as evident in the literature review chapter. The literature was reviewed prior and during the data collection process. This was done in order to ascertain whether there were any discrepancies between the data reviewed and the findings. Where there were discrepancies, the researcher reviewed in-depth possible reasons in the literature for why these discrepancies existed.
Second step, was inducing themes or generating initial themes from the data. During the data collection stage of the research, certain themes arose from the data collected as evident in the key findings chapter, chapter 5. These themes were at times contradictory to the literature reviewed or added to it. After the themes were identified, the researcher then grouped similar themes or common ideas together, e.g. the first year student and postgraduate honours student responses on why students plagiarised were grouped together. These were then compared and contrasted to identify differences and similarities between the responses. This was the third step in the data analysis process which is referred to as coding.

The fourth step was elaboration or reviewing the themes after the careful analysis and the comparative exercise of organising and grouping similar themes together. The researcher discussed in detail, why first year student responses differed or were similar to the postgraduate honours students responses. The researcher explained whether the differences or similarities in opinions between the two groups were caused by the differences in levels of study or differences in awareness on plagiarism. The final step in the data analysis process (prior to producing the full report) was interpretation and checking or defining and naming themes as Braun and Clark (2006) refer to it. In this step in particular the researcher went back to the data and corrected and strengthened the sections that were perceived as weak and improperly developed.

In addition, during this final step in the data analysis process, the researcher had to ensure that all the themes that emerged from the data were in line to the research questions posed in the study. Where there were deviations the researcher had to account for the deviations. One notable disadvantage to using thematic analysis technique is that, the data is riddled in subjective concepts, concepts stemming from both the participant responses and from the researcher. At times the study may have been prone to various biases which are hoped to have been minimised using the various steps cited by both Terre Blanche et al. (2006) along with Braun and Clark (2006).

In conclusion, the process of interpretation in this study was rigorous and thorough, all the data collected was carefully reviewed especially data collected from participant interviews. The researcher carefully interpreted the patterns both emerging from the data reviewed and the data collected from the students. As a consequence data analysis method chosen assisted in the examination of underlying ideas and assumptions in the study which allowed for discovery of in-depth data on the students’ perspectives and attitudes on plagiarism.
4.6 Ethical considerations

Prior to conducting the research permission was attained from the relevant gatekeepers. Gatekeepers are usually people of authority that could either allow or prohibit the researcher from working with certain population or sample (Terre Blanche et al., 2006). In order to start working with the students in the university, the researcher asked for permission from the Registrar of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. An Ethical Clearance Form was filled and sent to the ethics committee in order to acquire permission to work with the students. In addition, the data in this study was collected in a way that ensured anonymity and confidentiality. The names, private details, and any information that could be used to identify the students interviewed were removed in the final document. During the data collection process the students’ names and details (their age, gender, year of study and the courses they were doing) were recorded.

During the data transcription process the students’ names and details were removed. The students were numerically labelled as participants, e.g. Participant 1, Participant 2, Participant 3 etc. In the final document the participants were also referred to as P1, P2 and P3. Moreover, before the students were interviewed, a consent form was administered to the students informing them of their rights and processes to take place within the research. The researcher explained to the students that participation was to be voluntary and that they could withdraw from the study at any time of their choosing.

4.7 Ensuring trustworthiness in the research study

Trustworthiness refers to the extent to which data is dependable and credible in an effort to produce quality research (Morrow, 2005). The data and findings in this study were meticulously handled and thoroughly reviewed, with the one exception of losing data due to some technical difficulties (the audio files being corrupted during their transference into the laptop). However, since these files were corrupted before the data was analysed and prior to the process of transcription they had no negative impact on the overall study. The data and the findings were analysed in detail. This was done by reviewing transcripts of interviews throughout the process of collecting and writing up data. The purpose of this was gaining as much clarification as possible from the participants and ensuring that participant information was credible and that they had given sufficient responses to the questions posed. Only data that was complete and relevant to the study was presented on the final draft.
4.8 Summary

This chapter has defined and explained all the methods and processes that were used during the collection and the analysis of data in the study. The methods and methodologies used in this chapter were chosen in order to obtain in-depth data on plagiarism from the students’ point of view of the concept. The researcher used various qualitative methods and data collection instruments to present accurate accounts of the students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences of plagiarism. The key findings obtained through the use of techniques highlighted in this chapter, are discussed in-depth in the next chapters which are chapter 5, the key findings chapter and chapter 6, the discussion chapter.
CHAPTER FIVE: KEY FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to report on the key findings gathered through the methodologies highlighted in chapter 4. This chapter shows various data directed on finding out why students plagiarise. Due to the specific nature of the study the findings may be limited to why the students in the University of KwaZulu-Natal Pietermaritzburg Campus plagiarise. In the literature review and the theory chapter it is emphasised that plagiarism is a concept and phenomenon that has to be viewed within a context of specific circumstances. As such the key findings in this chapter have to be viewed in relation to where the data was collected.

5.2 Students’ understanding of plagiarism and its significance in academic scholarship

5.2.1 First year student views on the academic significance of plagiarism

When the first year students were asked why they thought plagiarism was an important part of academic scholarship, 4 out of 12 first year students were unaware of the academic significance of plagiarism. Conversely 6 out of 12 students felt being taught about plagiarism was to capacitate them academically as students. They indicated that plagiarism was an important part of academic study as it contributed to their learning processes. For example it equipped them with essential academic writing skills and it was a way for them to demonstrate their knowledge. Some students acknowledged that the successful avoidance of plagiarism demonstrated what they knew, whether they understood the material they covered in class or not.

P3: “Because it’s training to write, uhm...essays and maybe novels, if you are a writer...in your own words, try to create your own thing...yah...just be creative because here at varsity actually they build your capacity”

P4: “Plagiarism is important because it is ...it’s avoids a person to not copy or to cheat...it tries to make a person to be his or herself like doing...like doing your research and not to copy somebody else research and you do the research that you understand well”.

P5: “It is important because it is the guideline which makes me to have something like to be good and nobody is perfect but to be in a good way so as to be considered that I know something. I can create something from what I have not ...what I have not been made by me, which means I can take something from somebody else and make it to be more clearer to the other people...then with that...that how I should ...I have done something but it’s not my own but the way I understand it is this way and then it’s when it can be clear to everybody else”.
P7: “Yahh…it is important just because…to avoid or to make students aware that what is actually...what lecturers looking for to them is to check whether how much they can put the information into their own words or like showing their ability.

P12: “I think that here, we hate to learn right...we hate to learn so when a person takes another person’s work, they don’t gain anything , so when you get marks for another person’s work, let’s say you get like a 100% you know, how about me who did my work…and then it’s not fair. I did my work, I studied , I did my research , I get lower marks than you…it’s not fair.

Participant 12 believed that plagiarism was an essential part of academic study, to capacitate students with essential academic skills and viewed plagiarism in terms of fairness (as opposed to morality). Participant 1 and 6, when asked of the significance of plagiarism were more focused on the bad and legal ramifications of plagiarism, as opposed to the issue of fairness. Participant 1 was aware that the concept of plagiarism was both significant within and outside of the academic sphere, namely the professional sphere. Participant 6 on the other hand was aware that at times plagiarism could have unfortunate consequences. For example, participant 6 explained that the original author had the right to claim or could claim that their work had been plagiarised which may reflect badly on the person who has plagiarised. Valid or apparent instances of plagiarism may reflect badly on a person because they are attached to one’s reputation or loss of reputation (Robinson, 2014).

P1: “I can say, as I am doing media it is very important to know about plagiarism err...yah to be aware that it’s illegal to take someone’s idea and write as your own...yah.

P6: “Err...it is important because some people, err...now have degrees , some have PhD’s some have...if a person that has a PhD makes err...a research about something and then they write it as a reference and then I come...I am a first year and I take his work...ehh he can found that I took his work, didn’t reference and then the person...that person that he write the work, then he can found that I took his work and then when I have my degree he can go and claim that, that this is mine and then I can lose my degree.

5.2.2 Postgraduate views on the academic significance of plagiarism

P1: “It’s going to help them, so that they can be good researchers in the future and stuff.”

P2: “Coz like it’s teaching you on how to face the world. I think on how to do your research. I am not sure but like, it makes you understand what your topic is about if une [if you have] assignment and stuff...so yah, its good in some way.”

P3: “Uhm...I think it is important because err...it needs someone maybe who is doing honours or degree to come up with some new ideas in that certain field, maybe if like maybe let me make an example...like if you are doing like chemistry maybe there are other ideas that you have, that are not in that book or were not found by those people, so if you plagiarise and put someone, repeating the same curry all over again, you are not producing something new that someone else will use coz it means in a way it is killing the education system, coz there is information that you not get in the future because people will be repeating the very same thing but pretending it’s their own but if...if maybe you are not plagiarising you are going to dig deeper and think about new ideas which are going to come from your own words, not from someone’s work.”
P4: “Uhm...huh, I think to avoid...the reputation of another person’s work and another writes the
very same thing and that will go on and on.”

P10: “Coz ok, it teaches students to do their own thing, to acknowledge ukuthi [that] something is not
theirs its somebody else’s because when people write they write ukuthi umsebenzi wabo ungabi
copied [coz when people write, they also indicate that their work should not be copied]. It teaches
people ukuthi bazenzele izinto zabo [it teaches people to do their own work].”

In sum both undergraduate first year students and the postgraduate honours students
demonstrated an understanding of how plagiarism was significant in academic scholarship.
The postgraduate students however gave more detailed and consistent responses compared to
the first year students. For instance, 4 out 12 of the first year students as stated earlier were
unaware of why plagiarism was significant in academic scholarship. The postgraduate
honours students mentioned the importance of avoiding plagiarism in the context of
conducting good research and in terms of creating good researchers. They specified how
learning about plagiarism encouraged the students to do their own work as opposed to
copying materials as is. This would be achieved by means of utilising source text and
people’s ideas using the students own words.

5.3 Academic transitions and implications

5.3.1 Student exposure to plagiarism prior to entering university

When the students were asked if they had ever heard of plagiarism in high school, 7 out of 12
first year students stated that they had never heard about plagiarism prior to entering
university. This is compared to 9 out of 11 postgraduate honours students who similarly
reported never hearing about plagiarism in high school, prior to entering university. In total
16 out of 23 students indicated never hearing about plagiarism before their first year in
university. Only 7 out of the 23 students interviewed reported hearing about plagiarism in
high school. The 7 students consisted of both the first year students and postgraduate honours
students. The 7 out of 23 students who indicated hearing about plagiarism in high school
were made up of 5 first year students and 2 postgraduate honours students.

These students recalled hearing about plagiarism between grades 10 to 12. The results
showed an increase in awareness of plagiarism from the first year students who had heard
about plagiarism in high school, admitted in university between the years 2015 and 2016.
This is compared with the postgraduate honours students who first enrolled in university from
2010 to 2012. These results may suggest that teachers are slowly introducing the concept of
plagiarism at some high schools over time. Albeit, keeping in mind that a number of students
recalled being warned against plagiarism as opposed to having in-depth discussions on what plagiarism was and what constituted it.

**First year students:**

P12: “It’s not like it was a topic or discussion”

P11: “Mr Anku, It wasn’t a subject, it was more of don’t. It was warning then a subject”

P3: “Uhm…it was uhm…my teacher, Mrs. Gumede and she say that plagiarism is not good for us in terms of writing an assignment and he tell us that uhm…you mustn’t do cut and paste because plagiarism is not good anymore”.

P2: “Uhm…that it is a bad thing and if you are caught plagiarising it would be bad”

P1: “She said err…plagiarism is when you copy someone’s idea exactly…err…err…yabo [you see]

**Postgraduate honours students:**

P9: “Educator err…they were telling basically, they were telling us ukuthi [that], what is it and we shouldn’t use it err…if we like doing research and all that.”

P11: “It was Mrs Mattefield I think. She said …she said something like, if in varsity, if you copy from the internet you might get locked up in prison.

When the 7 out of 23 students who reported hearing about plagiarism in high school, were asked if the information they got from high school on plagiarism assisted them when they first entered university. Three out of 5 first year students stated that the information they gained on plagiarism in high school assisted them when they first entered university. The other two first year students stated that the information they gained from high school did little to aid and prepare them for when they first entered university. When the postgraduate honours students were asked the same question they were also divided. When asked if the information they received helped them when they first attended university, one honours postgraduate student stated that the information he gained in high school helped and the other felt it did not.

**First year students:**

P12: “No [laughs], I didn’t have much knowledge, it was something like a definition, it was a brief discussion.

P11: “No no no, it didn’t.

**Postgraduate honours students:**

P9: “Yes, it did.”

P11: “Uhm…not really.”
Both the first year students and postgraduate honours students were in agreement that compared to university in high school they were given “basic information”. One postgraduate honours student indicated that in high school they were not informed particularly on the impacts of plagiarism on their thinking abilities or otherwise. The second postgraduate honours student highlighted the issues of sources. The participant stated that back in high school Google was considered by the students their main ‘source’ of locating information when conducting research unlike in university.

As a follow up question, the 5 first year student participants who stated that they had heard about plagiarism in high school were asked if they would have wanted their high school teachers to have done something differently in teaching them about plagiarism. For example, if the students’ would have liked their teachers to have taught them more in-depth about plagiarism. Two students said yes, they would have wanted their teachers to have a different approach in teaching them about plagiarism in high school. Three students on the other hand said no, they would not change anything in how their high school teachers covered the topic of plagiarism.

Although one of the three first year students admitted that the teachers did not sufficiently prepare them in terms of teaching them about plagiarism in high school. This participant strongly indicated that they would not go back and have the high school teachers remedy the situation by taking a different approach in teaching about plagiarism. The two postgraduate honours students that had reported hearing about plagiarism in high school both stated that if they were given the opportunity to go back to high school they would want the teachers to teach them more about plagiarism.

Postgraduate honours students:

P9: “As much as they provided us with basic information kodwa [but] they didn’t tell us ukuthi nje [that] what extent can it…negative extent can it have on our abilities to think or do our own work.”

P11: “Ahh they didn’t at all. Ahh...ahh...when we got here, basically in high school we used Google for all our assignments, so when you get to varsity, you come here with the same thing, you keep on using Google. So basically you are not informed about plagiarism at all.”

5.3.2 Students’ accounts of plagiarism

A number of students shared their accounts of plagiarism and the differences in teaching approaches and practices they observed between high school and the university with regard to the concept. Participant 3 and 11 described their high schools as having not encouraged them enough to create their own work. Thus referencing and critical thinking skills appear to be
nurtured and cultivated in university rather than in the earlier stages of learning. This could be one aspect working to the detriment of academia because if students were taught the correct citation methods in the earlier stages of their education they would come to university aware of elementary academic practices. HEI would only need to build on what was already there; they would only need to reinforce what the students had been taught previously in high school or in primary school for instance.

P3: “Actually uhm...as I have been already said, at high school they taught me plagiarism and when I entered varsity I found it in a different way because of that thing that was saying internetin [turnitin]...and I do some cut and paste yeah just to add some pages, you know what I am saying...but then here at varsity it is strictly hard but I think they give me experience of that I have to use my own words and I have to stick in what I have been already studied not what I have ...someone have done.

P11: “Plagiarism phela [emphasis on plagiarism] it’s something that you used to do but not knowing ukuthi [that] it’s plagiarism. When you were in high school, pre-2011 you know where you go and get someone to do your work and submit it as your own...like the time I had to do Afrikaans. I did not know how to do Afrikaans [laughs]. I didn’t know how to read, write and speak it but I had to do it, so I got my neighbour to do it for me and I submitted as my own and that’s plagiarism I think. Is it not? But I didn’t know at the time and we were not told ukuthi [that] that’s wrong until grade 11.

5.3.3 Student definitions of plagiarism

The first year students’ definitions of plagiarism revolved around the idea of plagiarism being bad, taking and claiming someone else’s work as one’s own and a failure to reference. Some students stated that they were told by their lecturers not plagiarise as there were punishments in place for those who did. The students stated that one penalty for those found guilty of plagiarism was academic exclusion. By academic exclusion, these students were referring to being expelled from an academic institution, in particular a HEI. Amongst the 12 first year students interviewed two defined plagiarism as a failure to cite and acknowledge another person’s work.

P5: “Uhmm...we were told that plagiarism...err...it’s when you have done something wrong, which is like copying, taking something without any reference of somebody else, that means you have plagiarised, so it not by the laws of the school. If you have done that you will have to be expelled or you will have to go through some consequences, such that you might be not ever entering into school”.

P8: “Yoh...by plagiarism I was told that if you are found ...ok, maybe if you are given some essay to write or some sort of reports and then you go...say to find information from other sources and then you not acknowledge your sources, you are going to be charged and then you can even be eliminated from the university...”

Participants 8 and 12 expressed confusion on what plagiarism was exactly; what it entailed. The participants expressed were unsure of how they were expected to complete their work without plagiarising at all.
P8: “...Yeah ...and then I was surprised ...I was like how am I going to write essays because ...ok fine, even if I can have some information about a particular topic neh...but that information is not going to be enough ...so like yah...well I have to go and Google information but then I have to acknowledge it but then I don’t know how to reference those information.”

P12: “Well it’s basically taking someone’s work and make it your own. But I am not sure; I am not sure coz sometimes you cover same topics. I don’t get the concept really coz sometimes you cover the same topic, so why must I say something different, something completely different from what he is saying. I just don’t get how you do your work coz you know someone did it and then you have to. I don’t know...forget what is said and just come...I just don’t get it.”

Similarly to the first year students, when asked about what their university accounts on the subject of plagiarism, the postgraduate honours students stated that it was taking, claiming and presenting someone else’s work as one’s own. Unlike the first year students the postgraduate honours students expressed no confusion on what plagiarism was and what it entailed. They gave slightly more in-depth responses when talking about plagiarism. In-depth in the sense that they mentioned referencing, procedures and punishments administered to offenders and the legal implications for the act of plagiarising. One participant in particular explained that paraphrasing was not enough to avoid plagiarism. In addition to paraphrasing, summarising and putting in one’s work in one’s words, students still had to reference in order for their work to be academically acceptable.

Postgraduate honours students:

P3: “I was told that, it’s an illegal offense, err...to take someone’s work and pretend as if it’s your own, you have to acknowledge everything that is written by someone and that person has got the authority to take legal action against...against forging the work and pretending that it is yours or else assuming that it’s your own.”

P4: “I was told that if you plagiarise you will be...it is illegal because you take someone’s work and you do it yourself and it can lead to a hearing, yah.”

P9: “That it...it hinders your thinking coz you basically focus kwilokhuzana [on the]...to extracting i-information yabantu [the people’s information] not using your own thinking, that we shouldn’t do it.”

P11: “We were told that, we cannot rely on the internet as a whole for sources, so we need to double check who...who’s the person responsible for the information we are about to use and coz not everyone who uploads on the internet is an academic.”

Moreover, participant 11 expressed that they were differences in value of information and sources. The participant indicated that some sources might have less academic value than others. This was because some sources regardless of their credibility might not be considered valid academic sources. In addition participant 9 stated that plagiarism might hinder one’s ability to think critically on topics. This was because copying someone else’s work in essence was an action that required little thinking. An individual did not need to understand the work
they were copying. Copying, stealing and claiming someone else’s work as one’s own was of little educational value and thus hindered one’s capacity to think.

5.3.4 Should methods to curb plagiarism in universities be implemented at high school level?

In total 18 out of 23 first year and postgraduate honours students felt integrating university strategies to curb plagiarism in high schools would be beneficial to the students. It would assist the students attain more knowledge of plagiarism prior to attending university. If students were aware of plagiarism by the time they entered into university it would be ideal in the sense that universities would focus on reinforcing what the students already knew. Furthermore, it would assist in the instillation of academic values onto the learners. The students would know what exactly was required of them. In contrast 5 out of 23 students felt that strategies to curb plagiarism should not be integrated to high schools.

The main reason behind this response was that students believed that it would be too difficult for the high school students to adapt and adhere to the university policies on plagiarism. Additionally some students indicated that some schools would not have the resources to implement and enforce some strategies because of where they were located, for example schools in rural areas. One participant from the postgraduate stated that he felt it would not be beneficial as most of what he learnt in high school assisted him little in university. The main concern expressed by the students was that the policies on plagiarism might hinder the high school students’ chances to be admitted into university. Thus the 5 students viewed the possibility of high school university policy integration as a challenge rather than a necessary tool to help students adjust to acceptable academic practices.

5.3.5 Postgraduate honours students’ discernments of plagiarism

The postgraduate honours students were asked if their definition of plagiarism had changed over their years in university. Six out of 11 postgraduate honours students felt that their definition of plagiarism had not changed throughout their years in university. In contrast 5 postgraduate honours students stated that their definition of plagiarism had changed.

P2: “Now that uhm...not everything that I think is in my own words, someone else has written about them and stuff.”

P4: “Yah, it has changed because in my honours level they told me, if you plagiarise they can even take your degree, your honours degree…it is very very serious...they tried by all means, my supervisors to explain how serious it is. I think they emphasise more because I am in the postgrad level.”
P5: “...I can say coz at first I think was plagiarising but I didn’t know that I was, but I still plagiarise [laughs], honestly...now I understand what plagiarism means, like previously I didn’t. I was copying it knowing ukuthi [that] I am copying someone. I change like a few words and make it mine which is still plagiarism.”

P10: “Ahh...I wouldn’t say the definition has changed. I’ll say the understanding of plagiarism has changed coz kwa [at] first year it was just...basho nje ukuthi [they said that] you have to change the words, make the words yours...But now I know that if you reference, you are declaring that the work is not yours so yah it’s not plagiarism.

P11: “Mmm...yeah coz now...coz am sure back then you were not allowed to copy text from other people, now we have sources like YouTube where there is videos and they consider it as plagiarism if you take what is said on the videos and put it on paper yah”

Although a majority of the postgraduate honours students stated that their definition of plagiarism had not changed throughout their years in university, this might not be the case. The students may consider their definition of plagiarism having changed a little or not at all because it is not their definition of plagiarism that changes over the years but their understanding of the term (refer to P10 response). The way the students understand plagiarism and academic writing over time might differ in terms of how they perceived it their first year in university. For the reason that, over their years in university they have had the opportunity to put into practice over and over again what they know about plagiarism.

This is despite participant 4 explaining that the supervisors in the honours level of study emphasised more the seriousness of plagiarism and the repercussions compared to undergraduate years of study.

Participant 11 expressed that their knowledge of referencing prior to doing honours was limited to text. The participant was only aware that only when using text, you are required to reference. Over time the participant 11 discovered that what they knew was incorrect. This is because plagiarism is not limited to text; it is the act of using another person’s thoughts, illustrations, interpretations and ideas (Parmley 2000; Park 2003; Ercegovac and Richardson 2004). Nicholson (2010) and Lebanov Rostovsky (2009) additionally state that plagiarism extends to acts of piracy, the illegal distribution of videos, images, music etc. In other words one cannot gain financially or otherwise (marks) from someone else’s intellectual property without their knowledge or permission.

Some postgraduate honours students were unaware that plagiarism extended beyond text. If the students are expected to produce academic work of a high calibre they should fully understand the concept of plagiarism and all its features and manifestations. Participant 5 though, admitted to being aware of plagiarism but still plagiarises in spite of their knowledge. What this participant is partaking in, is intentional plagiarism. Compared to students who
plagiarise because they are unaware or lack understanding and experience of plagiarism, participant 5 engaged in plagiarism purposefully.

5.3.6 Academic requisites between postgraduate honours students and first year students

The postgraduate honours students were asked if the standards of academic work they were required to produce had changed since their first year in university. A majority of the students reported that there were significant differences between the academic work produced in first year and postgraduate years of study. The reasons given by the students varied as they noted that they were required to know the correct citation methods. In other words the postgraduate students are required to know how to reference properly; one participant admitted that they in their honours level of study were unable to reference properly. This participant stated that they had been only been made aware of plagiarism in their honours year of study. This may have been the result of a failure by the institution or academic staff to emphasise effectively the correct citation methods to undergraduate students.

In their honours year the students are expected to know more about plagiarism, what it is and how to put their knowledge of the concept into practice (applying what they have learnt about plagiarism into their work). This is different from the students first years in university. Additionally the postgraduate students indicated that in their honours level the workload and level of difficulty in the modules was increased. The postgraduate students were required to think “out of the box”, two participants stated. Also the level of difficulty was significant in that the postgraduate honours students were required to critically discuss and evaluate topics and subject matters. They were required to be able to have the ability to discuss in-depth topics, “dig deeper” so to say.

P2: “More time and practicing this thing, being able to understand it more as I go on with my degree.”

P5: “At first nabo [they]...the quality of the work they expect us to produce is not as serious as now...now I understand ukuthi [that] they expect me to produce quality work.”

P6: “Ahh...I think it’s to build you up as you are doing your postgrad level. You should become intellectual as you know you should know your story and know how to apply it and where to apply it, know the critiques, know how to critique, know the critiques, know how to critique, the shortfall.”

P8: “Uhm...I think it for being independent. At postgrad we must be independent and be research wise.”

P9: “ I think the more you, you move from your first year to kwi [to] third year  or post-grad its more about , as I have said , its more about learning and knowing about that thing rather than take it or to copy and paste it.”
P10: “Ahh…the differences and reasons…huh, it’s because ikwa-first year [its first year]…its first year, they treat us like kids, now we know like, we know what to do.”

P11: “…Yeah I think lecturers need to do their work thoroughly to make sure that people are not plagiarising.”

One participant proposed that plagiarism is often overlooked in the students’ undergraduate years of study because classes are larger than they are their postgraduate classes. For that reason it was much more difficult for the postgraduate students to conceal their plagiarism as it was easily detectable. Classes with a small amount of students lead to effective enforcement and policing of plagiarism as opposed to larger classes. Hosny and Fatima (2014) and Macfarlane et al. (2014) propose that large numbers of students in classrooms attributable to mass access in tertiary institutions make it difficult for lecturers to teach students about plagiarism. This results in the students’ unfamiliarity with the concept of plagiarism.

P11: “Nothing much…nothing much has changed besides that in first year err…for my undergrad I used to plagiarise a lot because I knew there was little chances of being caught since there are huge numbers in class but now…now in your postgrad there is very small numbers in class so there is a very high chance of being caught. So now I take extra precautions when I am doing my assignments to make sure that I minimise plagiarism.”

5.4 Student perceptions of plagiarism

5.4.1 Plagiarism and cheating

Ten out of 11 postgraduate honours students admitted to having plagiarised at some point over their academic years in university. Some students were so forthcoming as to admit that they were still plagiarising even in their honours year. Some students on the other hand stated that they had only plagiarised during their undergraduate years of study. Only one participant out of the 11 postgraduate students interviewed stated that they had never plagiarised. A follow up question was asked to the participants who had admitted to having plagiarised at some stage in their academic lives (or on an on-going basis).

The students were asked whether they considered plagiarism as cheating or not, the participants were requested to answer yes or no to the question. The results revealed that 6 students who had admitted to plagiarising did not consider it cheating. In contrast 4 students stated that it was cheating. In total 4 out of 11 postgraduate honours students stated that plagiarism was cheating (both the one’s that admitted to it and those who denied ever plagiarising). Overall 6 out of 11 (this is including the student that stated they had never
plagiarised at all) postgraduate honours students stated that they did not consider plagiarism as cheating.

Postgraduate honours responses:

P2: “Not really, coz like if you can twist someone’s words, you not like cheating necessarily, you like applying their words, I mean their work with your own work and then something new comes up…”

P4: “Uhm... [laughs]... in my own spirit I don’t think it is cheating. I thought I paraphrased well but if Turnitin... plagiarism... yah, they picked up some, some things yah”

P5: “Not really, it is but we don’t consider it... ok I might... I don’t know how to explain this... it is cheating I will say but it doesn’t feel like plagiarism when we do it”

P11: “Not really coz sometimes you are left with no, no other options besides plagiarism because if I use soccer for instance. If we are going to talk about soccer, at the end of the day you can bring a thousand people to speak about soccer, they are all gonna say the same thing, so there is no... there is nothing new I can come up with besides taking someone else’s work which was probably also taken from some other person. So no one has their own original idea in some topics.”

Compared to the postgraduate honours students when the first year students were asked if they considered plagiarism as cheating, all 12 first year students strongly indicated that plagiarism was cheating. The students indicated that plagiarism was cheating as it involved a certain level of dishonestly or deceit in that it comprises of taking, claiming and pretending that someone’s else’s work is one’s own when it is not. Participant 8 a first year student reduced plagiarism to a lack of respect. Participant 11 referred to the unfairness of plagiarism both on the person one steals from as well as one’s own peers. A few first year students indicated the fact that plagiarism was cheating on the basis that the learners weren’t learning anything new when they plagiarised. Participant 12 highlighted that at times for assignments students had to read and understand the work they attained from the various sources they went through. Participant 5 on the other hand thought that plagiarism was cheating on the basis that the students were being told by the lecturers that it was cheating.

First year student responses:

P8: “It is cheating because you claim that, that information is your own information whereas it is not... so like it’s sort of stealing somebody’s else’s information and using it, pretending as if it is yours... so yah it doesn’t show that I’m respect that particular person”.

P11: “It is cheating, it’s cheating. It’s not like mhlawuMbe [maybe] as cheating what can I say... you can’t now make someone’s work and then you just take all their work and submit it as your own and then get beautiful marks... as if you were run, that’s cheating. It’s basically running a race in skateboard or even not running a race just driving to the finish line yabo leyonto [you see?]. While everyone has been training hard getting ready to race... you know they start their race and you just cruising to the finish. It’s something like that you know, it’s definitely cheating”.

P12: “Yes it is actually. It is but... it is but I think that maybe, not like the learner gains anything coz he just copies another person, not like you learn anything taking another person’s work and make it
your own...just not...I think it is cheating but I think that you can take some points sometimes. I think you can take a few points, maybe a few lines from the...from the...you know, and try and make it your own. I think that for your work you must have different sources, some just get the same sources and then they copy everything...no”.

P5: “[laughs]...yes, according to the way they described it to us...yeah...it’s some kind of copying but then, we all have to know that you don’t have anything to do just by yourself...you have got to have support from somebody else of which that’s what they told us, that we have to consider that person by referencing, so then we are considered as not plagiarised”.

5.5 Why do students plagiarise?

5.5.1 Students’ reasons for plagiarism

When the first year students were asked why they thought their peers plagiarised, a majority of the first year students’ implied that their peers plagiarised because they were lazy and because of time constrictions. They suggested that students plagiarise because they were lazy to come up with their own ideas or to their own material. In addition some students plagiarised due to having a limited amount of time to complete their work (due to either their own negligence or not being given enough time by the lecturers to complete their work). Thus plagiarism may be a practice that allows students to complete their tasks in the shortest amount of time as compared to them having to start their work from scratch. Moreover, it may be a simpler alternative to students thinking up their own work and using their own words, ideas and thoughts when completing their assignments.

First year students:

P2: “Because they are just lazy...they, they do not want to make their own work”

P3: “Uhm...they try...they try to cover the words.”

P4: “They...when it come like...when a student comes across the times when the due date is so close then they plagiarise...they are too lazy...they don’t want to think.”

P9: “Maybe because they are lazy to put something in their own words.”

P11: “For marks [laughs], to pass, to get ahead...to get ahead.”

Some first year students additionally proposed that sometimes other students would plagiarise as means of increasing their word limit. Plagiarism for some students was a way to increase the number of pages on their assignments for the sake of submitting and avoiding getting in trouble with the lecturers (Ellery, 2008). It is a way for the students to fool the lecturers into thinking they have done their work and pretending as if they are knowledgeable in the topic they were given, all done in an effort to avoid penalties or punishment. Some first year students went as far as suggesting that some students plagiarise in an attempt to explain or elaborating further on their work. To these students plagiarism was a way of giving clarity on
their ideas for the lecturer or the reader. Plagiarising was a way to demonstrate to either the reader or the lecturer that the learner understood the work they were given apart from what was said or taught in class.

Lastly one participant pointed out to that some students plagiarised to get ahead and get marks (good marks). Essentially both postgraduate and first year student responses were similar. Both groups attributed laziness, time constrictions, goal orientation and academic workload as reasons that may drive students to plagiarism. There were minor differences between the postgraduate responses and first year student responses. Certain postgraduate students elaborated further on the above mentioned reasons of why students plagiarise, specifically how and why they affected postgraduate students. For example some postgraduate honours students indicated that their peers resorted to plagiarism because of trying to juggle (or failure to juggle) different aspects of their lives.

**Postgraduate students:**

P3: “I think it’s because of time and pressure err...at post-grad you are doing many things, not like you are not focused at school maybe, you are doing an internship or you already have a job. Some others even have families of post-graduates, so then it’s a matter of time.”

P4: “Ahh...maybe it’s too much work and they do the work in a short space of time and they are trying to finish and they end up not paraphrasing err...copying very much.”

P11: “Coz...coz at post-grad level you are working with your majors now so it’s mostly work that you’ve done from your first year up until you go to post-grad. So you also get to a point where you feel like you are being asked to research the same thing over and over, so you are left now with no other option coz basically this topic has gone from a point where it was your interest to a point where it you are bored now doing research on the same topic over and over, so you don’t have time now to invest yourself to this topic because you’ve been doing the same thing over and over...you just resort to plagiarism now.”

Some postgraduate honours students plagiarised because of demanding academic, professional and social (e.g. family) responsibilities. For these students plagiarism may have been tempting in the sense that they could reduce the time they completed their academic work through coping and pasting work instead of putting effort into doing their work. Moreover, another notable reason of why postgraduate students thought their peers resorted to plagiarism was the fact that they were required to write long pieces such as dissertations and theses’ unlike their undergraduate counterparts. As a result of writing these long pieces some students lost interest in their subject matters or research areas and plagiarised.
5.6 Academic and social and background

Data collected from the first year students revealed that subsequent to enrolling in university 7 out of 12 students never heard about plagiarism. In contrast, 5 out of 12 students indicated hearing about plagiarism in high school. Moreover, 6 out of 7 students came from schools located in rural or village areas with one student reporting that they came from a high school located in a township. All 7 students attended public school. As for the 5 students who stated that they had heard about plagiarism in high school, 2 students reported that their schools were located in township areas. The other 3 students reported coming from high schools located in a variety of areas. Particularly, one student reported coming from a suburban area, another, a semi-townships and with one student stating that they came from a semi-rural school. Additionally 2 out of the 5 students indicated they had gone to private schools, with 3 reporting that they came from public schools.

*Researcher: What kind of high school did you go to? Private, public?*

P1: “It was a public...yah.”
P3: “It was a private school”.
P5: “It’s just a public school.”

*Researcher: What kind of area was it located in? Suburbs, township, other?*

P1: “It was err...in a township.”
P3: “ahh...it was a suburb.”
P5: “Uhm... it’s just a rural area.”

The purpose of asking the students where their schools were located was to observe if there was a correlation between where they went to school and their knowledge on plagiarism. As discussed in the previous chapters, the students’ socio-economic and socio-cultural factors may influence their academic background and in turn their understanding of academic practices (Dawson and Overfield, 2006). The students’ prior learning experiences might impact on how they adjust to an academic setting such as university (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2002). This is because students are socially situated actors and thus most likely a product of their social experiences. Their learning processes cannot be viewed isolated from their environment (Howard, 1995; Johnson-Eilola and Selber, 2007: 378).

5.7 Peer influence and behaviour

When the students were asked if they would report classmates for plagiarising, all participants (first year and postgraduate honours students) strongly indicated no, they would
not. Based on student responses reporting a fellow student was unacceptable and to some, it was worse than the act of plagiarism itself. Rather than reporting a fellow student some students stated that they would rather attempt to intervene themselves by advising their peers than to report their academic transgressions. This indicated a strong culture of solidarity amongst students.

**First year students:**

P1: “Never…but I can advise …yah…I can advise them not to.”

P3: “No no…no I won’t…internetin [Turnitin] would report them”

P7: “[laughs]…I think I won’t report them but I can tell them rather that it is not cool.”

P12: “No no no, the punishments they are harsh…so just as I am a person…yeah I won’t, I won’t.”

**Postgraduate honours students:**

P3: “No, I won’t do that coz I don’t know what situation, unless that person talks to me about.”

P5: “No, I can say that iplagiarism yethu ayikho that obvious, yabo [No, I can say that our plagiarism is not obvious, you see]...even though...siyacabanga behind ukuplagiariser kwethu [we put some thought to our plagiarism], so yeah...First year you just copy and paste straight. I think it will make sense if bazoyi [they will] introduce...even though kuzoba [it will] be hard but at least if it’s introduced early uyaiyiwayela [if it’s (the concept of plagiarism) introduced early you will be familiar with it] than siwayeule u copy and paste [than getting used to copy and paste]...ey coz uturnitin [Turnitin] bruh...it makes life hard. At undergrad we don’t write as much as in post-grad.”

P9: “I wouldn’t, basically I wouldn’t because every person usuke ezenzela yena [coz every person does what they do for themselves]...so if he thinks it’s best for him, at the end of the day uzoyibona I negative effect yakhona yabo [at the end of the day they will see the negative effect (of plagiarising) you see]. So even if I report him or not , it won’t make a difference, mhlawumbe kuyena [maybe to them] but at the end of the day as time goes on...as first year to post grad kuzoba khona lolo shintsho ukuthi [from first year to post-grad there will be that change]. As much ku first year bukwazi ukhokha and paste [as much first year, you could copy and paste] I must say that kodwa [but] when you reach post-grad kuzofika that moment [there will come a moment] where you have to do things on your own and lapho uzoba usunenkinga [and there you will encounter a problem]...so I negative effect uyi feeler lapho [that’s where he will feel the negative effect].”

P11: “Nope...kuyaphantwa la e varsity [we all hustle here at varsity].”

**5.7.1 Would students allow their peers copy from them?**

When the students were asked if they would let someone else copy from them, 8 out of 12 first year student participants stated that they would not let someone else copy their work. Conversely, 4 out of 12 first year student participants stated they would let other students copy their work. In the postgraduate honours group, 6 out of 11 students stated that they would not let someone else copy their work. While 5 out of 11 postgraduate honours students reported that they would not let students copy their work.
First year student responses:

P2: “Ahh... it would depend but yes I think I can.”

P11: “Thou shall not snitch, that’s the law, thou shall not snitch. I wouldn’t report anyone, anyone even if I saw them stealing my work. I wouldn’t unless it is jeopardising my academic work...you know what I am saying? She gets caught cheating or he or if they get caught cheating and then I get dragged down, I will snitch and you know, save my own skin first. Safety first, then I will snitch. But to say that now I am gonna snitch on a person, I see them copying something, no that’s wrong.”

P12: “Yes, but if they can change it here and there [laughs].

Postgraduate honours student views:

P2: “If they are going to let me copy theirs, I would coz its helpful like...do you know ukuthi [do you know how] how stressful it is when you are trying to do something and you can’t get anywhere and there is someone who is willing to help you like...ok, I’ll take it.”

P3: “Ay...I would say so, coz I would give someone my work if maybe I feel it’s not something that’s not gonna get me in trouble, like maybe if we are not classmates ...someone is going to submit the same thing and then the teacher will see or the lecturer will see that it’s the same thing.”

P9: “No, coz everybody at this level mele be esekwazi ukuthi acabange, umqondo wakhe ube broader kungaphi u copy and paste [at this level people should be able to use their brains, think broad, it shouldn’t be copy and paste] coz when usukwi post grad [when you are on your post grad] its more about doing what you will apply at work, so if you copy and paste it means ey...eish even ensebenzini wakho uzoba nenkinga [eish even at your workplace you will encounter problems].”

P10: “Uhm...that would depend, that would depend maybe if that someone maybe doesn’t understand how to ...you know when you have to write an essay and you don’t know where to start and like you are so confused engathi [like] you can get someone’s work and see ukuthi [that] how they have structured or started their work, maybe I’ll give you, not to copy but to get a hint on how to yah...”

5.8 Citation methods and originality

5.8.1 First year students’ knowledge of correct citation methods

P5: “Uhm...most of the time it’s in-text referencing and with in-text referencing I have to have a reference list at the end”.

P6: “During a draft or maybe essay or report, I use in-text referencing then at the end of the page I use a reference list where I list all my people that I have reference in the text”.

P7: “Ow...in-text referencing…”

P8: “Ok...I use in-text referencing...uhm…”

P10: “Well, in media we do in-text referencing and also in political science I am sure…”

The results revealed that 9 out of 12 first year students knew how to reference, while 3 out of 12 students interviewed admitted to not knowing how to reference. The 3 students who admitted being unable to reference explained that they could only reference “a bit” or “not perfectly”. Four out of 9 first year students who reported being able to reference, had no knowledge of different types of referencing formats. The question here became, how exactly
were these students referencing if they were unaware of at least one type of referencing format that they were using in their modules or when completing their assignments.

The remaining 5 students, when asked of the different referencing formats they used when doing their assignments, mentioned in-text and out-text (list of references or bibliography) references. While they were not wrong to mention in-text and out-text references as these were valid strategies of referencing, the students failed to explain the formats they use when in-text or out-text referencing. The students were prompted further for the referencing formats that the participants used when in-text referencing and doing their bibliographies by giving different examples of the referencing formats. For example the Harvard method, APA method etc in order to ascertain further information from the participants;

Researcher: “Are you familiar with the Harvard referencing method?
P7: “No.”
Researcher: “Are you aware of the Harvard method or APA method etc.”
P8: “Ay…I don’t know about that [laughs]…I am not familiar with that.”
Researcher: “Are you familiar with the Harvard method”?
P10: “Harvard…we use in political science.”

5.8.2 Academic connotations of originality

When the students were asked whether it was possible to create something without references, 3 out of 12 first year students said yes it was possible to create something without references. While only 2 out of 11 postgraduate honours students said yes it was possible to create something without references. Overall there was not much of a difference between the two groups, between the first year students and the postgraduate honours students. In contrast, 8 out of 12 first year students stated no, it was not possible to create or complete their work without references. Nine out of 11 postgraduate honours on the other hand stated no, it was not possible to create or complete their work without references. One first year student in particular was unsure and stated yes and no to being able to create work without references.

First year student:

P11: “Yeah, no...yes...I don’t know, see everything is intertwined to everything brah, so you can’t say ukuthi [you can’t say that] no no no...see everything comes from something, even a brand new idea was inspired by something, I may not have...it may not be in line with the subject or with the idea you come up with but it has influence by some sort of idea...yaybo leyonto [you understand]. That’s just life, everything is influenced by ...it’s just chain events, chain events till the end so you can’t have
an...that’s why am saying yes and no because you can be influenced by something different that get’s hold in your idea.”

Postgraduate honours student views:

P5: “But you cannot, you can’t write five or even two pages, it’s hard...your own words, your own thinking, all everything. It’s just impossible unless you are writing a novel [laughs]...yeah creating a story.”

P6: “No, to think about something you should know about something before and then try to amend it, to try and make it something new out of it. So you are human, we have some commonality, you just can’t come up with something, you should base it on something.”

P10: “No, I don’t think so unless shuthi uzobe uhambile waya elibrary wabuka [unless you were to go to the library and just watched or looked around (as opposed to reading books) coz unless its science wenze your own [unless where its science, where you have conducted your own research experiments (and acquired your own findings)]...yah.

P11: “No no no coz to even get started you need inspiration from someone else’s research or work or you need something like a ...like a foundation to start on.”

Although varying in number, the majority of the students both doing their first year and postgraduate honours year were aware that one cannot create something out of nothing. Both sample groups were aware that academically one had to have reference for their work. Based on the findings a majority of the students realise that references are an essential part of academic work. In essence individuals cannot create work and ideas solely emanating from them devoid from either their environment or the knowledge they have accumulated over time (Howard, 1995; Eilola and Selber, 2007; Anderson and Steneck, 2011; Kutz et al., 2011). Kutz et al. (2011) argues that most of what individuals write has probably existed in various different contexts before. Thus Pennycook (1996:206-207) suggests that rather than create arguments and work out of thin air, individuals should endeavour to simply “think again”.

In academia referencing is a way to support, give validity and credibility to one’s work and findings. References could either help one revitalise, expand on or even formulate new ideas based on new perspectives from work previously done by others (Johnson-Eilola and Selber 2007). Lecturers and academics conventionally consider creativity or originality based on one’s ability to critically discuss, evaluate and interpret source text (Kumar et al. 2015). Without references, academic work is often considered invalid or simply not academic as it is no different than a work fiction. Unsubstantiated insinuations and claims would be problematic as various individuals might try and pass anything off as fact even when it is not. Information would thus stagnate leading to little progress both academically and socially.
5.8.3 Originality vs. creativity

A follow up question to the above question of whether students felt that an individual can create something that is solely theirs without references was if referencing had any effect on creativity. The purpose of the question was to assess student perceptions and attitudes towards referencing. Furthermore, it would uncover how the students’ understood the purpose of references and referencing. The purpose of this follow up question was to establish if the students perceived referencing as being a hindrance on their ability to be creative. Moreover, exploring the students’ perceptions on referencing and how these perceptions or attitudes affect their feelings towards referencing which ultimately contributes to attitudes towards plagiarism.

Six out of 12 first year students stated yes, they felt referencing had an effect on their creativity, while 4 out 12 first year students stated no, they did not feel that plagiarism had any effect on their creativity. Two first year students were undecided, they neither stated yes or not, which was an indication that they were unsure of whether referencing had any effect or not on their writing skills. In contrast 7 out of 11 postgraduate honours students stated yes, they felt that referencing had an effect on their creativity while 1 stated no. Three out 11 postgraduate honours students stated that they were unsure of whether referencing had any effect on their creativity or not.

First year students:

P12: “Yes, I think coz you don’t say myself when you are putting references...you don’t say yourself. Already you got the idea from someone else, so you don’t think first, you know...you just...”

Of the students who stated that they did not feel that plagiarism had any effect on their work, stated the bellow:

P11: “No no no no, Einstein referenced a lot of people. It didn’t change his creativity. I mean he discovered a lot of things when you think about it. When you think about it, today you wouldn’t know something called space, time without Mr. Einstein and he was acting by someone before him who was looking at space...who was looking at time basically not space...who was looking at time basically and he said he wants to help improve the equation and then he found out that no, time and space are not two different things but one...two sides of the same coin yaybo leyonto [you see], all through referencing.”

Postgraduate honours students:

P2: “Not really, it enhances it I think coz if you reference, you get to know what other people think about that thing and then you will be able to...”

P3: “Yah...coz it looks like I’ve used only sources that are there coz I don’t...I am not part of those references, so in a way I feel as not being creative coz you think like I’ve taken, I’ve piled up all the work of these people and mine is not there...yah I think so.”
“Uhm...somehow kodwa [but] it depends wena usebenzisa kanjani [depends on how you use it (referencing)] coz sometimes you just use it just to get an understanding from topic and then from there you can...yah.”

“Ihm...to some extent because...because now if I have to reference everything...everything that I am writing sometimes I end up uhm...I am making my own like...I am linking my own ideas to someone else’s that I never known about just for the sake of getting marks. So mhlawumbe [maybe] I will do research on plagiarism and for the sake of getting extra marks, I will look for an academic who also did research on plagiarism and I’ll lie on my reference list and say I took some of the info from that person even if it was my original work, so which is depriving me of my creativity.

The findings demonstrated that both postgraduate honours students and first year students alike thought that referencing (or having to reference) had an effect on their creativity. When elaborating on why they thought this to be the case, a few students responded that it was because they could not reference themselves in their work. To the students the inability to reference themselves in their work seemed to hinder their ability to be creative because they had to attribute their work to sources and individuals other than themselves. Although previously in the chapter a majority of both postgraduate students and first year students stated that they could not create work solely from themselves, having to frequently reference to them was associated with the inability to be creative.

Moreover the results also reveal that slightly more postgraduate honours students see referencing as a barrier to creativity. Compared to the first year students more postgraduate honours students feel that referencing inhibits their creativity. This may be caused by the fact that policing of plagiarism is stricter at postgraduate levels of study than undergraduate levels. Prolonged exposure to the correct citation methods plus the strict policing of plagiarism by their lecturers and supervisors may have led to feelings of being unable to be creative. The students could thus think that their ideas have little value thus resorting to plagiarism. They could be taking other people’s ideas because they feel it is what the lecturers or supervisors desire from them rather than their own ideas.

Alternatively one may say the postgraduate students harbour such feelings towards referencing because as suggested by Anderson and Steneck (2011:92) and Vinod, Sandhya, Kumar, Harani, Banji and Banji (2011) individual accomplishments are held in the highest regard. The issue of referencing becomes an issue of ownership. The students feel as if they do not own their work as they have to continually attribute it as coming from a different source other than them. As a result the perception that their ability to be creative was inhibited manifests. This perception is not accurate off course because creativity academically is assessed on the basis of the students’ ability to understand, critically discuss
and evaluate what they have read. Referencing gives legitimacy and validity to student discussions and arguments enhancing their ability to create coherent academic discussions.

Not all students had negative attitudes towards referencing; some students had positive responses towards referencing. Particularly participant 11 from the first year students and participant 2 and 9 from the postgraduate honours students mentioned the positives or benefits of referencing (refer to participant responses above). Participant 11 recognised that even one of the greatest minds Albert Einstein could only achieve what he did building on pre-existing information. Participant 2 and 9 from the postgraduate students recognised that referencing exposed one to different opinions and perspectives, leading one to understand in-depth a particular subject matter.

5.8.4 Complete avoidance of plagiarism: academic impossibility?

When asked whether one can wholly avoid plagiarism 5 out of 11 postgraduate students stated that one could in fact avoid plagiarism. They stated that one could do so with referencing and an up to date bibliography. Conversely, 6 out of 12 postgraduate honours students felt that one could not wholly avoid plagiarism in their work because just as stated by Ercegovac and Richardson (2004) and Stephens (2009) referencing is not enough to avoid plagiarism. The fact that one has referenced all their sources does not mean that they have not plagiarised somewhere in their work.

Postgraduate honours student:

P5: “No, you just cannot, you cannot yoh. I feel like even ama [the] professionals, the professors, I still feel they plagiarise because if you read i-article [an article] that was produced in the nineteenth eighty something and you read a current, it’s kind of the same. They change ama [a] few things nabo [also]...yeah baphendule [they change it] around and they submit. They footnote but it doesn’t mean awu [you did not] plagiarise, you just change a few words honestly. Imisebenzi esiyipродусAYO njengamanje [the work we produce now]...ayikho into ephuma kuwena [nothing originally comes from you], you just taking into [something], change ama [the] words abo [people’s words] put them into your own words and ok, you get credited for that.”

Similarly a majority of the first year students interviewed felt that completely avoiding plagiarism was impossible. Some attributed this to the fact that they had to cite their work. To the first year students wholly avoiding plagiarism consisted of them being allowed to do their own ‘original’ work, with and without citations. The first year students further expressed a bit of confusion particularly on why and how references were essential in the process of avoiding plagiarism. The students figured they had to reference because of their lack of knowledge and
academic writing skill. Moreover, they felt they had to reference because the lecturers did not trust that they would be able to create their own work.

**First year students:**

P5: “No, but then the only way to go around is referencing but if we write your assignment by yourself, to us as first years nothing is trusted, we are just told we don’t have anything of our own, so we just have to reference that we took it from somebody else that were considered plagiarised”

P7: “Uhmm…what I can say at that level of like first years, you don’t have any much information...so you have to take someone’s information and put a reference to that where you take it from”

P11: “It’s impossible to avoid plagiarism yabo [you see], it’s impossible. It’s basically like stealing; everyone steals in their lives, everyone once in a while.

P12: “No, I don’t think so, you know I think usually, they say when a lecturer checks like the first paragraph you know, maybe you would just get something , maybe you will get a paragraph but it doesn’t mean that I copied the whole thing.

P1: “There are other ways of plagiarism...when you copy you reference”.

Participant 12 described plagiarism in terms of major and minor plagiarism; he considered taking or borrowing a line or two from another person’s work as minor plagiarism. This to him was less of an offense than taking someone’s whole work and claiming it as one’s own.

Similarly, Mckay (2014) and Kumar et al. (2015: 194-195) do suggest that academic institutions evaluate plagiarism in terms or minor and major plagiarism. The degree to which a student has plagiarised could be the deciding factor to whether the student receives a zero mark on their assignment or suspended (or expelled). Bearing in mind how plagiarism is addressed the same goes for the criteria of assessing originality.

Originality is assessed by the ratio to which a student has borrowed from sources versus their ideas. Overall, to both first year and post-graduate honours students’ originality was contingent on whether they had referenced or not, even though some participants did indicate that at times referencing was not enough to avoid plagiarism. It is clear that while it is important to educate the students about plagiarism, it is also important that they are taught about what constitutes ‘originality’ academically. For instance, originality is not simply achieved through solely referencing in an assignment. What constitutes originality is also the ability for the student to engage critically with what they have read, formulate arguments and discussing opposing views etc.
5.9 Information seeking trends and source use

5.9.1 First year students’ information seeking behaviours

Seven out of 12 first year students reported reading about plagiarism independently from their lecturers or classroom (refer below to student responses on plagiarism). Albeit, there was no sense that all the participants were being truthful as they did little to elaborate further on the information they had obtained through their independent research on plagiarism. Furthermore the 7 students failed to elaborate in-depth about the many complexities associated with the concept of plagiarism in particular, its contextual features and the different ways it can manifest in their work. Moreover, 5 out of 12 first year students admitted to not reading anything in particular about plagiarism outside of what they were told in the classroom by their lecturers.

P3: “Uhm...that uhm...plagiarism is encouraging you actually to, to try to read something properly and after that went it through it.

P5: “[sigh]...err...its being a lot of challenges but then its...its treats me to be a good person and knowing what exactly I should do in terms of academic performances ...like I have to know what to do on my own ...not by any effort of somebody else...so that what plagiarism brought me”.

P6: “I know if you copy someone’s work without referencing that person you are probably doing plagiarism”.

P7: “Yeah...what I’ve read like plagiarism is not good actually...just because the aim like of teaching you is to find how much you know...or like how can you put it in your own words...yah, but if you like copy someone’s work like it shows you didn’t understand anything”.

P9: “Uhm...it is to reference”.

P10: “I read that you had to create your own things...you have to work hard and try to find your own work, not to do other people’s work”

P12: “I know they are penalties...yeah...not much”

5.9.2 Where do students get their sources?

When asked which sources the students use as their sources when completing their assignments, 1 student stated they primarily used the internet. Four first year students stated that they used mainly books as their sources and 7 first year students stated that they used a mixture of both internet and hardcopy sources as their sources. However, when the postgraduate students were asked which types of sources they used to complete their assignments, 6 said they used internet sources. Two postgraduate honours students stated that they used books as their primary sources and only 3 postgraduate students said they used mixed sources.
According to the results students rarely depend on one source when doing their assignments. Frequently they will use books, the internet or a combination of both. The results do not show conclusively that plagiarism amongst the students is prevalent because of their overreliance on internet sources as suggested by Howard (2007), Li and Casanave, (2012) and Averill and Lewis (2013). This leads to the conclusion that students most likely plagiarise from both electronic and conventional sources as argued by Schrimsher (2011: 3-4). Moreover the results reveal that a majority of postgraduate honours students use the internet as their source of information. This is compared to only 1 first year students who admitted to using primarily the internet. Moreover, a large number of first year students responded that they normally use a combination of books and the internet.

First year students:

P3: “Uhm…internet…ahh, textbook and uhm…face to face interactions”

P4: “Sources…I get it from the lecture notes and from the ...if I don’t understand a lecture note...I go to the library and borrow or lend books.”

P11: “Google [laughs], text books, use papers or television, radio you know…especially Google [laughs]. But yeah and word of mouth, asking people, asking around, asking those who have been through it, you know”.

Postgraduate honours students:

P1: “I usually go to Google scholar...Google scholar yah ...it’s really my favourite when I do my assignments.”

P5: “From ama sources asesikoleni avumelekile [from the sources at school that are allowed] yeah. Electronic sources kwi [at the]; library page, like science direct, pub med, Google scholar...yeah like those are the 3 that I usually use.”

P8: “Ahh...often I use primary sources from the archives, yah.”

P11: “Ow...from the internet, everything from the internet.”

Participant 3, 4 and 11 (from the first year students) additionally mentioned sources such as face to face interactions, word of mouth and the television, the radio and lecture notes. All the above are valid sources where one could get information but academically some might not be deemed as being of little academic value. Referencing particularly word of mouth, the television and the radio, would be of little academic value, (plus there is little information as to whether these could somehow be referenced) they would qualify as social references rather than academic sources. Word of mouth particularly is nearly impossible to reference because when people are talking they don’t reference as documented by Sentleng and King (2012). Thus this further makes it difficult to assess whether the information an individual is saying true or false, valid or invalid.
A common favourite ‘source’ of information amongst the postgraduate honours students appeared to be Google Scholar among other online sources they mentioned. A majority of the students interviewed appeared to consider and refer to Google as a ‘source’, although Google is merely a search engine to which students can locate sources. Google Scholar particularly in the academic sphere is considered as a permissible way of locating academic sources online; it is where students can find various academic and scholarly journals. The only issue with this, was why postgraduate honours students relied so heavily on internet sources over sources such as books or at least why they did not use a mixture of the two (the internet and books).

The proposed reasons for the postgraduates frequent use internet sources compared to the first year students; convenience, aversion to hard copy sources, over familiarity with the university setting and laziness. The afore stated are solely proposed reasons to account for why 6 out of 11 postgraduate students use internet sources as opposed to the 1 observed from the first year students who uses the internet.

Postgraduate students’ source use patterns from their first year:

P3: “Uhmm...its different coz now if I ...I usually used Wikipedia of which it is not err...although it’s got information but they are not regarding the source, yah. It hasn’t got that power, it is something that is not that great but now I dig deeper. I make sure that I get the best sources. I also use the best books.”

P4: “Uhm...it’s not different but on my first level I used much books but now I use more internet.”

P5: “Yes, it’s different coz first year I think ... even though basi introducer kodwa ey ...kwakunzima, ngangingawazi [even though they introduced to us to sources but ey...it was hard, I didn’t know them]. It was properly introduced kwa [at] second year...lama sites engiwashoyo [the sites I mentioned (refer to previous question)]. At first year ngangisebenzisa u google scholar [At first year I was using Google scholar] ...so u Google [Google] was like the main source [laughs].”

P9: “Yah coz first year I was using internet rather than ama books [rather than books] [laughs].”

The postgraduate honours students were asked if the sources they used their first year were different from the sources they used their postgraduate level. Findings revealed that 8 out of 11 postgraduate students were not using the sources they used in university. Only 3 postgraduate students admitted to using the sources they used first year. It was evident from the students’ responses above; over time they got exposed to different sources, where they acquired their information. Participant 3, in particular explained that over
time he learnt the differences between sources and their academic value. The participant recognised that although informative, Wikipedia was not an acceptable academic source for instance. What was most significant from the postgraduate students’ responses was that the students over time learnt how to use sources. They learn which sources were considered academic and which were not.

It appears in some instances students seem to gravitate towards different sources more than others. Participant 4 was a perfect example of how postgraduate students as stated earlier in the chapter over time gravitate to using the internet predominantly as compared to books. Conversely participant 9 was a direct contradiction, stating that his first year to he was using the internet and was now using mostly books. Participant 11 on the other hand admitted to using one source all throughout university, which was the internet. All 3 participants (P4, P9 and P11) source choices may be due to a number of reasons, their faculties, personal choice or preference etc. What was evident was that there is no definite way of deducing how students chose their sources.

5.10 Internet use and anti-plagiarism detection software

5.10.1 The students’ predispositions and attitudes towards copy and paste

When the students were asked if they had ever copied and pasted work before, 6 out of 12 first year students admitted that they had 4 however stated they had never copied and pasted work before. Two first year students were reluctant to share whether they had ever copied and pasted work. Compared to the first year students, 9 postgraduate honours students admitted that they had plagiarised work while 2 stated they had never copied and pasted work.

First year student responses:

P3: “It’s uhm…I forgot my due date actually…yah and I found out it’s too soon…it’s due too soon and I have to do my work and I decided to cut and paste…yah.”

P4: “coz sometimes when you like reading…the time you there, a time when you come across like…you are tired and then there is too much load of work you have to do and then now you are trying to be fast as possible to finish it all on time…so now there is no time to think…there is no time to referencing…you just copy and paste.”

P8: “I had no information to write about so yeah…I ran short of information and then there was no way I could just uhm…change that idea and make it my own.”

P11: “It was faster [laughs].
P12: “I have but a paragraph maybe you know [laughs], maybe a subtopic you know, yeah you can, not like you copied like six paragraphs, no...like just a paragraph, then you read it and then you understand it ok and then...”

Postgraduate honours student responses:

P1: “Like I don’t know...like I was...they wanted...our lecturer wanted, was exactly the same thing ...so had no choice but to copy.”

P2: “It was easier than having to do a lot of research [laughs].”

P4: “ahh...yah, because I wanted to finish my work ...yah I was a bit late.”

P5: “I copied and pasted coz firstly, isikhathi sokuqeda umsebenzi sasisincane [the time to finish my work was limited], secondly it’s what I wanted [laughs]. It was what I wanted, exactly how I wanted it so yah, I just copy and paste.”

P11: “Coz...ah...I had deadlines to meet. I was running out of time and sometimes I knew that if I had enough time I’d be able to come up with my own work but then due to my busy life and how it’s set up...like I don’t get time to, to research, so I resort to copying and pasting.”

According to student responses, the main reasons for copying and pasting work from the internet are time restrictions and convenience. They copy and paste as means of completing their assignments and tasks quicker or faster. According to participant 3 and 4 from the first year students and participant 4, 5 and 11 from the postgraduate honours students’ insufficient time to complete their assignments was a major factor in them resorting to copying and pasting work. Participant 8 and 12 from the first year students admitted they plagiarised in order to increase their word count. They were unable to complete the work by themselves.

The required amount of words in their assignments was either too much or too hard and so they copied and pasted to complete their work. Participant 1 and 2 from the postgraduate honours students in contrast copied and pasted for convenience. To these students it was easier to copy and paste rather than to do and complete their work (one might refer to this as laziness). Participant 8 and 12 from the first year students and participant 1 and 2 from the postgraduate honours students fell under what was considered intentional plagiarism. Unlike students who admit to accidentally plagiarising because they were unaware of the correct citation methods or as to what constituted plagiarism, these participants copied and pasted knowing full well what they were doing.

First year students:

P6: “Because when you copy and paste some details in the text, there are not there so you need to in-text reference so you include that in-text referencing while you are drafting.”

P7: “I haven’t ...but I check the information then I put it in my own words.”

Postgraduate honours students:
P6: “My first year level I was not that clear about plagiarism. I thought to avoid plagiarism it’s to just write something and acknowledge the author without paraphrasing. I didn’t know that you should paraphrase.”

P10: “Yah, I have copied and pasted and referenced [laughs]...no I would do that if kuthiwa in-text reference, i-copy and paste [no I would do that it was in-text references, copy and paste that is]...Because I will reference. At the end of the day I will have to reference.”

The above participants (both first year and postgraduate honours students) appeared to believe that referencing was enough to avoid plagiarism. Although referencing is important in avoiding plagiarism students still need to know how to reference in the correct context. Heavily relying on referencing is not sufficient means of avoiding plagiarism as discussed earlier in the chapter (Ercegovac and Richardson, 2004; Stephens, 2009). The above responses by the participants are strong indicators in that students both the first years and postgraduate honours students still need to be taught in-depth of the correct citation methods. Participant 1 and 5 from the first year students interviewed were reluctant to share whether they had ever engaged or used cut and paste methods to complete their work.

5.10.2 Student views on the internet and plagiarism

When the students were asked whether they felt the internet encouraged plagiarism or not, 7 out of 12 first year students said they felt that the internet encouraged plagiarism. Five out of 12 first year students on the other hand said no, they felt the internet did not encourage plagiarism. Moreover, 7 out of 11 postgraduate students stated they felt the internet encouraged plagiarism while 2 postgraduate honours students stated the internet did not encourage plagiarism. The other 2 postgraduate honours students were uncertain of whether the internet encouraged plagiarism or not.

A majority of both first year and postgraduate students felt that the internet encouraged plagiarism in that it made it easier to plagiarise because of the vast amounts of information it offered just as Howard (2007), Li and Casanave (2012), Averill and Lewis (2013) suggested. Participant 11 from the postgraduate students indicated that only on the internet could one copy and paste work as they pleased. In contrast participant 11 from the first year students indicated that, the internet itself was not the problem. Technological advances instead allowed for the execution of various and copy and paste methods. For instance, these advances in technology made it easier to not only copy and paste but also to alter other people’s work while hiding under the façade of having created something new. These technological advances made it easier to access and extract information.
First year students:

Researcher: Do you think the internet encourages plagiarism? Explain.

P2: “Yes. It does because they give us information there, that you didn’t ask for...like we research and we found that information.”

P3: “Yeah...because...aah many students do like cut and paste because it’s easy. It’s easy for everyone than to create your own words.”

P11: “Computer, not internet, let’s not blame the internet. Let’s blame the whole system, the whole computer system, the whole technology system it encourages plagiarism. Let me make an example there, I do music you see. When you are doing music, let’s use fuse loops, in fuse loops you get patterns and if you can open two patterns, one empty one and another one with someone else’s song, you can put another drum and take the same pattern from that one and paste it on another drum and it sounds the same but with a different instrument, you understand what I am saying? That’s not the internet, it’s the computer [laughs] it’s not the internet...it’s the computer that encourages plagiarism, copying and pasting stuff is so easy. You can copy and paste a whole song, a whole song, just change a few things and make it your own you know. You can copy and paste a whole video, filterise, add a couple filters and it’s your own, you know, not even from the internet, from anywhere, you know. It’s just the whole technology basically as a whole.”

Postgraduate students:

P2: “Yes, it does, coz everything is there, you just have to copy and paste and you done.”

P3: “Ay yah ey...yah coz it's just easy ...just copy and paste so...”

P11: “Yah...yah coz there is no other place you can copy and paste besides the internet.”

Participant 5 and 10 from the postgraduate honours students highlighted the fact that it was not only the technological advances vs. books phenomena that encouraged student plagiarism but student intent. Students could copy from hardcopy sources as easily as they copy from the internet sources depending on what they want to do. This would be more in line with Schrimsher’s (2011: 3-4) argument that plagiarism is overall precipitated by the intent. Lastly, participant 10’s response a first year student, leads the inference that aside from intent understanding is an issue that drives students to plagiarise. For instance, participant 10 presumes that it is the lecturers’ fault that students plagiarise because when they do not explain topics adequately in class they steer students to the internet.

P5: “No, it doesn’t...somehow it does but it’s what we do about it. The internet on its own, it doesn’t kodwa thinake [but we] use it to our advantage and copy and paste but then futhi [but then again] if it wasn’t there ...i-research [the research] and all, that would be hard coz imagine you having to go and finding ama books futhi incwadi firstly zindala [imagine finding books and the books firstly are old]...most of the books yes...it’s hard to read.”

P10: “Yes and no. I think it does, someone can say it does because you can copy and paste and get away with it and with books. I feel like you can write, you can take something from the books, type it in your computer same as it is in the book. It depends kwena [on you] if you want to change the words or not so I think, it does but the books can too just that the work in the computer and the work in the book, so I don’t see how ...how the internet encourages plagiarism . But yah, they say coz
The students turn to the internet to search and gain clarification on topics they did not understand in class. In other words, the students may use the internet as a device that assists them gain the clarity and understanding they need in order to conduct and complete their research or assignments. Therefore in this regard, the internet could be seen as an apparatus that aids the students learning processes.

### 5.10.3 The students’ attitudes towards the compulsory use of hardcopy sources

When the students were asked if they thought working from mainly hardcopy sources would decrease the occurrence of plagiarism, the first year students were divided into two. Six first year students said yes, plagiarism would decrease if the students were working from mainly hardcopy sources while the other 6 said no. A majority of the postgraduate honours student said yes plagiarism would decrease if the students were primarily working from hardcopy sources. They were 8 out of 11 postgraduate students to be precise who thought that hardcopy sources would decrease plagiarism and only 3 who felt that hardcopy sources would not decrease plagiarism.

The main reasons why the students felt that plagiarism would decrease if they were primarily working from hardcopy sources was that students would have to read and understand their work when working from books. This was opposed to skimming through work and simply cutting and pasting to one’s own assignment. The participants felt that the students were less likely to copy from the textbooks as they knew that the lecturers wanted to see their understanding of the material on the textbook. Therefore the students would be less inclined to regurgitate or copy the information on the textbook as it was.

### 5.11 Student attitudes towards reducing plagiarism

#### 5.11.1 First year and postgraduate honours student views on reducing plagiarism

P7: “Yeah ...like it can be reduced by telling students that plagiarism is not good and that they have to show how much they know by telling them more information...what is it exactly lecturers are looking to them” (look up in literature the guy who speaks about the fact that students need to be informed as to what exactly the lecturers are looking for in their work)

P8: “Uhm...owk by...whenever we are given something to Google or to search about uhm. They shouldn’t give us topics that need ...ok, they must just give us...topics that can ...ok, that we can do it all on ourself without using information from other sources”.

When the first year students were asked about ways to reduce plagiarism, the first year students came up with a variety of solutions that they thought could reduce plagiarism. Their
responses revolved around teaching students how to reference properly in an attempt to reduce the number of students who copy work as it is. Participant 3 in particular proposed that students decrease their overreliance on internet sources and strive instead to incorporate mixed sources into their work. Participant 12 advocated for the strict policing of plagiarism by the lecturers that lecturers thoroughly go through the students work when they submit. Participant 9 and 2 stated that the use of automated safeguards such as Turnitin were enough in reducing plagiarism. Participant 11 proposed that original authors protect their work by watermarking everything they do.

**Postgraduate honours students:**

P3: “Uhm…I think err…the screening of someone’s work should be a critical part where there should be machines that check plagiarism and then the person will have to start all over again.”

P4: “Uhm…I think when we first came here in varsity, in the first level they should tell you how serious it is compared…they emphasise more when you are in post-grad level but in err…when you are a first year or second year they touch a little bit.”

P6: “I think by strengthening the procedures that we are using, not just use Turnitin because some people know how to do away with Turnitin.”

P7: “I think if we start to be taught about it at high school.”

P10: “[laughs]…err…maybe by making rules regarding plagiarism la esikoleni [here at school] more serious and stuff coz actually they are not that serious coz we plagiarise and nothing happens…coz in the outside world plagiarism, it is serious because people know that if you take somebody’s work, you violate their right. La esikoleni [here at school] it’s not that harsh, it’s just there.”

P11: “Well if you get lecturers to check their work and uhm…it doesn’t matter if they are working with big numbers or small numbers, you just need to go through the work thoroughly and double check.”

Similar to the first year students, some postgraduate honours students stated that referencing, automated safeguards such as Turnitin (or others), plus lecturers checking the students work were essential in reducing student plagiarism. The majority of the postgraduate responses were divergent compared with the first year student responses. Although some postgraduate students suggested that automated safeguards such as Turnitin were important in reducing plagiarism some postgraduate students felt that they were not enough. This is because some of their peers knew how to bypass them (this will be discussed more in-depth later in the chapter).

Additionally a couple postgraduate students expressed confusion when asked how plagiarism could be reduced, with one participant stating they did not know how plagiarism could be reduced. Participant 4 and 7 particularly felt that plagiarism or the seriousness of plagiarism should be strongly communicated to students earlier on in their academic life. Participant 7,
thought that if students were taught about plagiarism in high schools it would reduce plagiarism significantly in university. Participant 4 indicated that students would benefit a lot from learning about plagiarism their first and second year in university. This is because she felt that plagiarism was more emphasised during postgraduate studies and not enough during the students’ undergraduate years of study.

Participant 1, when asked how she thought plagiarism could be reduced stated the school should enforce their policies on plagiarism as she felt that the school did not do this effectively. In her opinion the students were plagiarising and getting away with it, without facing any consequences. The participant went as far as stating that plagiarism was taken more seriously outside of academia and taken for granted in the academic world. Although unproven whether plagiarism is strongly enforced outside or inside academia, based on participant the responses the students believe that the university did little in policy implementation and enforcement. The last participant on the other hand introduced another factor that hindered the effective reduction of plagiarism in academia and also proposed a strategy he felt would remedy the situation.

Participant 11 suggested that lecturers were less strict on plagiarism during undergraduate years of study because they were deterred by large student numbers in their classrooms. The participant therefore suggested that lecturers endeavour or make more of an effort to check for plagiarism regardless of student populations in classrooms. Ultimately individually both the first years’ and postgraduate student responses would do little to put a dent in the reduction of plagiarism. However, if the methods were combined and consistently enforced they would go a long way in significantly reducing plagiarism (Mckay, 2014). The goal should be for lecturers to implement all the above strategies (from student responses) simultaneously as opposed to individually.

5.12 Is Turnitin enough to discourage student plagiarism: student opinions on Turnitin and anti-plagiarism software?

Initially anti-plagiarism software was developed to reduce internet plagiarism (Scanlon and Neumann, 2002; Howard, 2007; Glendinning, 2014). When asked for their opinions on anti-plagiarism software, 6 out of 23 students interviewed had no knowledge of what anti-plagiarism software was. In particular, the students had no knowledge of Turnitin. While one cannot directly refer to Turnitin as anti-plagiarism software. Turnitin is used in the University of KwaZulu-Natal to function as a tool to detect instances of plagiarism in the students’ work.
The website functions as a mechanism that detects levels of similarity between the students’ work and the work previously published on the internet. Thus making Turnitin the closest tool the university has in place to safeguard against internet plagiarism.

Seventeen out of 23 students were aware and had used Turnitin. The 17 students had mixed views about Turnitin. More precisely 9 out of 17 students had positive reviews towards Turnitin and felt that it stimulated original work from the students. They felt that anti-plagiarism software’s encouraged students to write work using their own words. Conversely 3 out of 17 students felt that Turnitin was not good. These students felt that Turnitin was strict and made it harder for them to get away with plagiarism. Essentially 5 out of 17 students had mixed reviews on Turnitin. They neither felt it was negative or positive. These students thought Turnitin was good or bad depending on where they fell on the plagiarism spectrum. For instance one participant stated that they did not like Turnitin because they could not reference properly.

A couple postgraduate were slightly negative towards Turnitin but were confident in their skills to outsmart or bypass it. Another reason why students may not be particularly fond of Turnitin is when Turnitin reports their levels of plagiarism or more precisely similarity as being beyond the acceptable quantity; students have to redo their work. Some students might be less than enthusiastic to engage in the process of drafting and redrafting their work. More especially because they reported time constrictions and laziness prevalent factors that may lead to student plagiarism. All things considered based on the student responses Turnitin gave the students a chance to rectify their mistakes if and when Turnitin reported their level of plagiarism as being too high. Turnitin would allow for the students to be aware of where they went wrong so they would take the necessary steps in fixing it.

Furthermore, the 17 out of 23 students that were aware of and had used Turnitin were divided on whether Turnitin was enough to discourage students from plagiarising or not. Essentially it came down to a 50/50 split between the first year students, 6 out of 12 first year students stated that Turnitin was enough to discourage student plagiarism and the other 6 stated that they felt it was not enough. Some students felt that because Turnitin detected everything plagiarised and students could not conceal their plagiarism from the website it encouraged the students to do their own work. Other students on the other hand felt that Turnitin alone was insufficient in effectively discouraging plagiarism.
The postgraduate honours students were also split on the topic of whether anti-plagiarism software was enough in discouraging plagiarism. They were 5 out of 11 postgraduate honours students that thought Turnitin was enough to discourage plagiarism. One participant stated that Turnitin mainly was good because it imposed a certain level of fear amongst the students. Students would be discouraged to plagiarise in the first place because they would be scared that Turnitin would expose their wrongdoing when they submitted their work on Turnitin. The 6 out of 11 postgraduate students that were left responded that Turnitin was not enough to discourage student plagiarism as students were smart enough to find ways to bypass the website. Two participants in particular stated that they felt that Turnitin was inadequate in dealing with student plagiarism as they were always plagiarising and were able to get away with it.

The 6 out of 11 students suggested that there be more than one way of detecting plagiarism. They recommended that the university incorporate different strategies of detecting student plagiarism in addition to using Turnitin. Thus based on the results the conclusion is that prolonged exposure to anti-plagiarism software does not necessarily deter students from plagiarism or significantly aid or improve their writing and learning processes. If anything, it encourages them to use alternative strategies to plagiarise as implied by Ting et al. (2014:74-75). Therefore the perceived threat of being caught plagiarising is enough to discourage the first year students from purposefully plagiarising only because they are still acquainting themselves with both the university and academic setting (Scanlon and Neumann, 2002).

5.13 Students’ awareness of plagiarism policies and procedures

The first year students and postgraduate honours students were asked if they were aware of the policy and procedures on plagiarism implemented by the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Four out of 12 first year students said they were aware of the policy and procedures on dealing with plagiarism in the institution while 8 first year students said they were not aware of any. In contrast 6 out of 11 postgraduate honours students were aware of the institutional policy and procedures on plagiarism while 5 out of 11 postgraduate honours students were unaware of any.

The first year students who were aware of the policies:

P2: “I think it is those policies, that if you are caught plagiarising, you will not write your exams and it’s a crime. It’s like err...committing crime...so you can be like penalised or something.”
P4: “Policies…ay…I am aware of them…I think there are policies but I am still new here so haven’t heard any”

P5: “Err…one of those was just that you’ll have to face the dean of that faculty.”

P8: “[sigh] I am aware of one that you could be eliminated from the varsity…yah…I don’t know.”

Postgraduate honours students who were aware of the policies:

P1: “Yah…you know what I heard about plagiarism is that when a child plagiarised, they get disqualified…I don’t know what it’s called though.”

P3: “Yah I am aware, I’ve always read some if I come across it, I read it and then…”

P5: “I think we are given leyo [that] policy, I have never read it, I just know ukuthi awufanele if [I just know you mustn’t (plagiarise)] ...what will happen if you do it, only those, the important ones but I don’t read the whole policy...because it’s this thick [participant indicated how thick they felt the policy was].”

As to be expected the postgraduate honours students displayed more awareness of the policy and procedures on plagiarism than the first year students. Several first year students were unaware of the policies and procedure documents on plagiarism that the university had in place. Albeit, an area of concern was that even amongst the postgraduate honours students there were a significantly high number of students who were unaware of the policy and procedure on plagiarism, 5 out of 11 to be exact. Considering that the postgraduate honours students had been in university for 3 years longer than the first year students, the level unawareness of amongst the postgraduate honours students should have been considerably lower.

Moreover, the responses from both the first year and postgraduate honours students were unsatisfactory, more so responses from the postgraduate honours students. Although the participants demonstrated a certain level of awareness revolving around penalties for plagiarism, none portrayed any ample knowledge on the processes or procedures taken by the university when a student was suspected and accused of plagiarism. A majority of students stated that participants found guilty of plagiarism would be penalised, academically excluded or expelled from the university. None of the participants indicated the procedures that take place prior to being penalised or excluded. For example, the lecturers have discretionary power to prosecute suspected plagiarists. They could give the student a zero mark or instruct them to redo their work prior to forwarding the matter to the disciplinary board.

In addition to inquiring about the policies and procedures on plagiarism the postgraduate were asked if they felt the university effectively and adequately disseminated information relating to plagiarism to the students. The students were asked if the pamphlets, policies and
various strategies the university had in place were enough to discourage students from plagiarising. The participants stated the below;

P1: “What pamphlets?”

P3: “Yah, they are enough but maybe I think there should be an awareness of on an on-going basis to remind people that plagiarism is not a good thing, its illegal coz the pamphlets are just there and no one is encouraging you to go and read.”

P5: “There are pamphlets? I don’t know about all of those stuff. I only know...but our department does talk about plagiarism to us every year and why we shouldn’t do it, what happens if you do it and all that but I know it is a serious...”

P9: “Ahh... I don’t think so you know, you can put policies but people will never follow them sometimes.”

P11: “Nope, coz they are not even read out to students, some people don’t even know about their existence so they are just there on paper, they are not applied by anyone.”

A majority of students claiming they were aware of the policies and procedures the school had in place, stated the pamphlets, policies and strategies were not enough to reduce and discourage student plagiarism. This is because plagiarism is an ongoing academic concern, thus as indicated by participant 3 the university needs to address it on an ongoing basis in order to ensure they effectively heighten student awareness. One student interviewed even suggested that the school could put the policy and procedure documents on student websites like moodle. Furthermore, information on plagiarism and referencing could be placed on other student webpage’s such as student central and even the library webpage. The university should ensure that its policies and procedures on plagiarism are clear, visible and easily accessible as suggested by Horn (2013).

Another issue to consider as suggested by participant 3 and 11 is the implementation and enforcement of policy. It is not enough for the university to claim the existence of policy and procedures documents without having structures in place accountable for their implementation and enforcement. McCabe et al., 2001, Park, 2003 and McKay 2014, propose that instances of plagiarism must be dealt with in the in the university openly and publicly in efforts to raise awareness. Policy awareness and enforcement strategies need to be conducted and executed on an on-going basis. Other efforts to deal with plagiarism could include the development and implementation of institutional honour codes as suggested by McCabe et al. (2001), Park (2003), East (2006:18) and McKay (2014).
5.14 Summary

The key findings suggest that the students are aware to some degree of the various implications and repercussions associated with engaging in plagiarism. They are aware that they need to learn to avoid plagiarism in order to learn and develop academically and in order to become critical thinkers who can contribute to the knowledge around them. However, there are various inconsistencies in between the findings and the literature and also between the first year students and the postgraduate honours students. For example, continuous exposure to academically acceptable practices did not result in increased awareness and understanding of the issues associated with plagiarism. Additionally, increased understanding and awareness did not translate to the deterrence from plagiarism; it did not appear to discourage student plagiarism.

Furthermore the data collected did not conclusively show if the students’ backgrounds mediated in their learning processes. Moreover, Anti-plagiarism software’s appeared to have little impact in the students writing and learning processes. The students perceived both lecturers and the anti-plagiarism software’s as barriers or inconveniences when completing their work. In contrast some students appeared to understand and were encouraged to do their own work because of these mechanisms. However, the results in this chapter are discussed in-depth in the following chapter which is chapter 6, the discussion chapter.
CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses in-depth on why students plagiarise in the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Pietermaritzburg Campus, South Africa). The purpose of the chapter is to discuss how the students recognise and understand plagiarism and its significance in academic scholarship. Moreover the purpose is to uncover if the students’ academic education and social background mediate in their actions, understanding and perception of plagiarism. The chapter explores whether anti-plagiarism software influence the students learning and writing processes and whether the students are aware of and understand the university’s policy and procedures on plagiarism. The data in this chapter revolves around key themes that emerged in chapter 5 and their links to both the literature review chapter and the theory chapter (theoretical framework). The key themes in this chapter were identified by grouping the common or recurring ideas arising from the literature review chapter, theory chapter and the students’ responses.

6.2 How background and context mediate in the students learning processes

Since, definitions of plagiarism can differ from country to country and on a global, national, institutional and local scale (Horn, 2013). To further understand the social manifestations of plagiarism and how they come about, one has to also consider locale or the students’ environment, where they are situated in terms of geographical context. Different geographical areas as with different cultures may have specific practices, values and therefore norms of identifying and addressing the issue of plagiarism. This is also the case with HEI’s; each institution may have its own specific, policies and procedures of addressing the issue of plagiarism. The geographical location of the institution as well as the student populations within the institution may be strong determining factors of how institutional policies and procedures are developed.

Thus how plagiarism policies are constructed on a national level in a specific area may determine, the institutional policies drafted in a particular area or country. In line with assessing the students’ environmental factors, particularly how these influenced the students’ knowledge, perception and experiences on plagiarism. The students were asked whether they attended, public or private schools and the areas in which their schools were located.
Unfortunately, the findings attained in this study were neither large enough nor detailed enough to conclusively assess whether an advantaged social background or school resulted in students knowing more about plagiarism. Moreover, there was no definite corroboration as to whether the students’ social and academic backgrounds mediated in their knowledge of acceptable academic practices.

One can only infer that attending a privileged or private high school places the students at an advantage as they are more likely to be exposed to academically valued or valuable discourses. In addition one could induce that disadvantaged high schools are less likely to transfer the desired amounts of academic discourses unto the students as they may lack sufficient resources, whether material, cultural or economic resources. Disadvantaged high schools may lack the ability to gather the necessary resources for the students attending in them. These resources may include money for textbooks or to fund extracurricular activities for the students, such as art classes, music classes, book clubs etc. In contrast, privileged schools may have an unlimited ability to equip the students with not only academic knowledge or material.

They may endow the students also with great amounts of cultural capital in a form of extracurricular activities which are referred to as cultural activities (DiMaggio, 1982; Gabler, 2004). Ultimately the basis of the argument is that socio-economic factors and environmental factors may inadvertently affect the students learning and writing abilities. Further studies would have to be conducted to definitively determine if the above stated argument has any merit or not (refer to number summary and recommendations chapter).

6.2.1 The students’ ESL status and plagiarism

In the findings there was some evidence to suggest that language proficiency may have an effect on the students’ inclination to plagiarise (Gurnasson et al. 2014). While conducting the interviews, it was observed that some students struggled to express themselves and their views of plagiarism in English. This led to the inference that there might be a strong possibility that students could resort to plagiarism as means of concealing their ESL status. Plagiarism for these ESL students may be a means of mastering the English language. It may manifest as a result of a lack of confidence. The students may lack confidence in their own skills to write and complete academic assignments in their own words. Alternatively, they
might feel incapable of producing work of the same calibre as the one they come across while doing their assignments.

The former suggests that plagiarism may be a developmental tool for the ESL students to become fluent English speakers and writers as implied in the University of KwaZulu-Natal policy and procedure document (Vithal, 2009). Alternatively, plagiarism may be a tool the students use to mask their lack of proficiency in English as the latter would suggest. Language difficulties may be associated with the students having a habitus incompatible with a particular field, more precisely the academic field. As members in the academic community use context specific discourses appropriate in academic institutions such as universities. Thus the students’ may struggle in university as their ESL status is a reflection of their inherited habitus containing values and practices that are different from their newly entered field and its discourses.

Notably, even EFL students may struggle with the acquisition of academic discourse because academic discourse is not particularly any person’s home language. However, EFL students are most likely to have an advantage when they enter university because of their EFL backgrounds and since most academic materials are written in English. ESL students as proposed by various authors in the literature chapter may use plagiarism as a mechanism of bypassing language difficulties in their newly entered field. Additionally, they may be the unintended consequence reflecting the transition of the students into an unfamiliar field. The students may use plagiarism to accumulate academic discourse.

The students may emulate sophisticated or experienced authors to acquaint themselves with English until they themselves are able to express themselves (Williams (2007; Hosny and Fatima, 2014; Ting et al., 2014). Since habitus has deterministic features, one must acknowledge that saying ESL students might struggle in university because of their ESL background does not mean that all ESL students will struggle in an academic field. There is also the issue of early familiarisation and exposure to academic sources and plagiarism that may aid the students in adjusting in academic fields and universities.

6.2.2 Early familiarisation and exposure to academic practices

Based on the students’ responses, Ellery (2008) was accurate in saying that high schools do little to adequately expose the students to the concept of plagiarism. The findings show that students were not taught in detail about what constituted plagiarism and about the appropriate
academic writing principles. Only when the students reach university that they are taught or learn of the acceptable writing practices. This is similar to what Larkham and Manns (2002) and Ting et al. (2014) argued which is that the students learn the correct citation methods in and academic writing principles in tertiary. As a result the first year students come to university having little to no information on plagiarism (Sentleng and King, 2012).

The students come to university using the same writing techniques they were using throughout their high school attendance. In such instances plagiarism or the act of plagiarising reflects a lack of understanding of academically acceptable writing conventions. A proposed way of remedying these circumstances is that the students could receive early literacy training in high schools or early awareness of plagiarism (Kobayashi and Rinnert, 2002; Pecorari, 2006; Averill and Lewis, 2013). The earlier the students engage with the concept of plagiarism and its complexities and manifestations the more they are likely to avoid it when they are in university.

Moreover, the student responses suggested that the postgraduate honours students had a clearer understanding of plagiarism compared to the first year students. In support of the findings, Pecorari (2006: 4) and Ting (2014: 78) argued that universities were especially stricter on postgraduate students when it came to plagiarism. Pecorari (2006: 4) suggested that this was due to the fact that the work the postgraduate students did became a reflection of the institution itself. This is why cases of plagiarism among the postgraduate students were monitored more closely than the first year students. The universities considered plagiarism amongst the first year students is recognised as a developmental tool and a severe and punishable offense among the postgraduate students (Vithal, 2009).

Contrary to Pecorari (2006) and Ting (2014), differences in understanding between the first year students and the postgraduate students do not solely rest on HEI imposing strict requirements towards students in certain levels of study. According to Bourdieu’s theory of habitus prolonged exposure and experiences in a certain culture or environment are the basis of understanding (Nash, 1999; Smith, 2003; North et al., 2008; Gripsrud et al., 2011; Gaddis, 2013; Barker and Hoskins, 2015; Crozier, 2015). Thus the longer the students are exposed to the ‘rules’ and practices of a HEI, the likely they will understand the practises and adhere to their requirements imposed on them. Thus for first year students plagiarism may be considered a developmental tool because they are yet to be exposed to the practices and rules within HEI’s.
Glendinning (2014: 13-14) explained that university efforts to discourage plagiarism should not only be emphasised and policed amongst the postgraduate students. The author asserted that, special attention also needed to be directed to developing the undergraduate students’ academic writing skills in order to ensure they develop academically and avoid unacceptable behaviours such as plagiarism. Lecturers or academic staff would need to give attention to undergraduate students because the students were most likely to use what they had learned in their undergraduate years of study in the postgraduate levels. The students would use the skills and techniques they had learned throughout their undergraduate years to adjust to their postgraduate studies.

Thus the earlier the students are familiarised with the concept of plagiarism by the teachers the more they become sensitised to the idea of plagiarism. The students become more and more aware of the concept and what it entails. In addition, the more the students interacted with the concept of plagiarism the more it would be reinforced in their minds. If the students were to be taught about plagiarism in high schools, tertiary institutions or universities would only need to build on the foundations of what was already there. This would be beneficial as the constant reinforcement of good academic practices would result in the students understanding earlier, the various features and complexities associated with plagiarism and academic writing. Furthermore, this approach would emphasise the prevention of plagiarism rather than the punishment (Hudson, 2010).

The idea of early familiarisation and exposure is much similar to that of habitus in that experiences accumulated earlier on in life can be embodied by individuals so that they are able to interact with particular fields. The earlier the lecturers and academic staff familiarised the students with the idea of plagiarism the likelier it would be that the students would embody what they were taught. They would use their knowledge to adjust in other levels of study. This is similar to Sowden’s (2005) idea of “cultural conditioning”. It is similar to cultural conditioning because from the time students engaged with university, the lecturers would constantly instil the in the students’ minds academically acceptable practices. Repeatedly, familiarising and customising the students with the acceptable practices, values and norms desired in university would comprise the conditioning process.

Additionally, the conditioning process would be characterised by the lecturers and academic staff deconstructing the unacceptable practises so the students did not engage in these. When the students successfully conform to the acceptable academic practise, values and norms this
would mark the end of the acculturation and conditioning process. To Bourdieu (1993) an academic institution such as a HEI represented a mechanism that consisted of a type of transferable cultural capital onto the students. The transference of this type of cultural capital may be done consciously and proactively by the academic staff. One proactive strategy would be early familiarisation with acceptable academic practices. This way the students would acquire from their lecturers the desired capitals that were sought in universities.

However, Bourdieu does explain that the students would engage with the academic institutions using their already formed or inherited habitus’ which gave some students an advantage over others. The students who would have an advantage were those whose habitus was compatible with their new academic field or who had accumulated the desirable amounts of cultural capital to participate in university. Since, cultural capital is not only inherited the students would throughout their lives accumulate cultural capital in a way that made them appear as having high amounts of capital when they did not (DiMaggio, 1982; Gabler, 2004). As a result the students with the academically desirable capital would thrive while the students without this type of capital would struggle (Kaufman and Gabler, 2004).

While academic institutions presented the image of equal opportunity or come in the guise of eliminating social inequalities they do not. Consequently, students with the desirable amounts of cultural capital are branded as having natural talents (Bourdieu, 1993). While the students with the habitus that is incompatible with academia are described as lacking these natural “gifts” or talents. This presents a unique challenge for the students and for institutions in familiarising the students with the acceptable academic practices. Although the HEI’s may be able to culturally condition and acculturate the students with a type of cultural capital, the students would have to be receptive to this type of transmittable capital. More precisely, the students’ habitus’ would need to be structured in a way that would allow for the transmission of this institutionally held capital.

6.3 Why students plagiarise

6.3.1 Electronic sources vs. hardcopy sources

A majority of postgraduate students reported using Google scholar as their ‘source’ of locating information. The postgraduate honours students might use Google scholar for convenience. Google Scholar is an acceptable way of locating academic sources that can be virtually accessed anywhere in the world. Students need not physically go to the library in
order to get academic journals or even books. At times whole books are uploaded onto Google Scholar. Thus the postgraduate students can access the books from any electronic device anywhere, regardless of whether they are on campus or working from home. The second suggested reason is an aversion to hardcopy sources, some postgraduate students might find hardcopy sources difficult to go through. This is because advances in technology besides copy and paste features have been availed to the students.

Students can key in key words on their computers to locate relevant information or passages in the internet sources. They additionally highlight the information they need just as easy. Students may be taking advantage of the fact that Google scholar is an acceptable way of locating academic sources. The first year students however might still be unsure of what is acceptable, what to use to complete their assignments and so on. They might only be relying on their knowledge of what is acceptable or simply doing what they are told by their lecturers. Thus their use of both books and the internet is because of their eagerness to be accepted as academics, as opposed to postgraduate students to whom university has been demystified.

Laziness could be another contributing factor, postgraduate honours students could be simply lazy to read hardcopy sources, borrow books in the library as they are library process and fines if one loses the book or brings it back late. It could be a number of reasons; no doubt more research should be conducted to shed light on this occurrence. Overall there was no evidence to suggest that the internet lead to increased plagiarism amongst the students.

At most one could say the internet alone does not particularly influence plagiarism one way or another, but technological advances tempt the students to plagiarise because of the ease it can be done. For example the ease in which they can of copy and paste work. Moreover, one could argue that technological advances foster amongst the students negative feelings towards hardcopy books and sources, feelings such as books are old and out-dated, hard to read and to locate. One could argue that locating information on the internet renders hardcopy books a bit useless. It is not only easier but faster for the students to locate the information they need on the internet rather than hardcopy sources.

In the literature chapter Schrimer (2011) argued that students plagiarise from both hardcopy and electronic sources. In addition Ellery (2008: 611-612) asserted that students treat hardcopy sources differently than they treat electronic sources. To Ellery (2008) students
view hardcopy sources as more authoritative than the latter. This is because often teachers and lecturers use textbooks and other hardcopy materials in the classroom setting to educate the students. As a result, this contributes to less students plagiarising from hardcopy sources. Additionally, one may propose that students are less likely to copy from hardcopy sources out of fear of getting caught. There are more chances that the students would get caught from copying hardcopy sources because it would be likely that the lecturers interacted with the hardcopy material at some point in time.

In particular the lecturers would be aware of certain materials based on the tasks they administer to the students. The vast amounts of information made available by the internet, decrease the likelihood of getting caught. The students know and are aware of the unlikelihood of lecturers covering and being exposed to all the information on the internet. The students thus believe that if the ease in which information is accessed and extracted on the internet were taken away, plagiarism would decrease. Instead of simply typing keywords to retrieve information, students would have to direct their efforts to reading. Reading would slow down the extent of inappropriate textual borrowing.

Some students however believe that hardcopy sources assist them in avoiding plagiarism because they can be easily referenced. The issue with this reasoning is that aside from referencing, the students would still have to understand, interpret and critically evaluate the information they read from the books. This way they would be able to formulate their own ideas with the use of the source material and text. Keeping away from plagiarism requires that students use not only one but multiple techniques that will result in the production of academically allowable work. For instance the students would have to reference (in-text and out-text references). Moreover, they would have to be able to put into their own words, ideas, passages or paragraphs they extract from the source text through quoting, summarising and paraphrasing the source text.

Furthermore, they would have to discuss and elaborate on it before referencing. This is why some students thought that plagiarism would not decrease even with the exclusive usage of hardcopy sources because the same academic principles that applied for hardcopy sources applied when referencing internet sources. Moreover, the students could take work from hardcopy sources and not reference or acknowledge the authors as easily as they do with electronic sources. If the students wanted to plagiarise they would plagiarise regardless of
where they got their information from. In addition some students even suggested that the compulsory use of hardcopy sources might have unintended consequences.

Depriving the students of cut and paste methods might be counterproductive in that some students might get discouraged and opt to plagiarising because they may see reading hardcopy sources as tedious and time consuming. In addition locating through hardcopy sources the information the students need might be a prolonged process when compared with the use of the internet. In the end, a couple participants stated that the use of hardcopy sources would not decrease plagiarism so much as slow it down. Plagiarism from hardcopy sources would be slightly time-consuming but it would not result in students creating “original” work. Based on the research findings and student responses it is clear that impelling the students to work primarily from hardcopy sources would be insufficient in discouraging student plagiarism.

6.3.2 Anti-plagiarism software

Data collected in this study suggests that anti-plagiarism software were most effective in discouraging plagiarism amongst the first year students. The findings suggest the first year students are only easily deterred from plagiarism because they have not developed the skills that would allow them to bypass systems much like Turnitin. In the course of their interviews the postgraduate honours students gave the impression of becoming “technologically savvy” over time which allowed them to bypass Turnitin (Ercegovac and Richardson, 2004:309). This is not to say that all postgraduate students will develop technological skills that will allow them to bypass Turnitin the more they engage with it. Ultimately, the students’ plagiarism is predetermined by their desire to plagiarise. The skills students’ develop to bypass anti-plagiarism software are dependent on the students’ desires to do so.

Moreover, there was no evidence collected from the students to suggest anti-plagiarism software and Turnitin had any impact on the students writing and learning processes. The students’ responses neither implied they improved or taught them more about plagiarism. The findings suggest that the students are impartial to anti-plagiarism software. At most the students (both first year and postgraduate honours) view anti-plagiarism software as an inconvenience or a barrier because if they report high plagiarism levels they had to redo their work or get reduced marks as a result. According to the findings the first year students were
the ones that were most fearful of anti-plagiarism software which is because they are not as familiar with them as the postgraduate honours students.

6.3.3 The students’ awareness of citation practices

According to the data collected, the students were not aware of the different types of referencing methods. The students were aware that they needed to reference but appeared to be unaware of how to use the correct citation methods. The students may have been referencing but they were unaware that they were different referencing techniques used in the different modules and fields of study. With specific reference to the findings, the students may not know the correct citation methods even when they feel they can reference. One rationalisation for this might be that the students simply use the same citation methods their lecturers show them in class and are not aware of how these may differ in different contexts and modules.

When asked about plagiarism the students stated little on how correct paraphrasing, summarisation and quotations were fundamental to correct referencing. Therefore it became unclear how the students’ referenced in the text or how they put this into practice in their work. In addition, almost none of the participants mentioned techniques such as end-noting or footnoting. The first year students as suggested by Sentleng and King (2012) appeared to have little to no skills of academic writing skills. They appeared to have little to no concrete knowledge on the correct citation methods.

A common misconception amongst the students noted was that the students appeared to think that copying, pasting and then referencing what they had copied and pasted was sufficient in avoiding plagiarism. This misconception is an issue as plagiarism goes beyond correct citation practices, whether one has referenced or not does not instantly render excessive textual borrowing acceptable. In order for the students to avoid plagiarism they need, to portray their own understanding and efforts towards formulating new ideas either through, criticising or enhancing the source text. Simply taking and referencing someone else’s work deprives the students of opportunities to widen or contribute to the information around them (Dell et al., 2011).

Essentially the students may be simply regurgitating the information they write on their assignments and slapping on references and thinking they have successfully avoided plagiarism. Their perception of referencing may be insufficient or incorrect because as
Ercegovac and Richardson (2004) and Stephens (2009) emphasised, an up-to-date bibliography is not enough to avoid plagiarism. Thus altering incorrect perceptions of plagiarism and the constant familiarisation of the students with the correct citation methods and techniques should be prioritised (Ting et al., 2014). Moreover, literacy training for both students and academic staff as a means of combating plagiarism should be incorporated in the HEI’s (Pecorari, 2006; Beute et al., 2008).

6.3.4 Peer influence and plagiarism

When the students were asked why they thought their peers plagiarised the students noted quite a few reasons. However, one cannot conclusively induce whether the reasons given by the students of why they think their peers plagiarised extended to why they themselves plagiarised. Although there is a strong suspicion that there might be a correlation between their responses and why they themselves plagiarise. The underlying reasoning for this assumption is that, the students may be less than forthcoming to admit why they themselves plagiarise or they may think other students plagiarise for the same reasons as them. Contrary to this reasoning however, the students may harshly judge other students compared with how they judge themselves, they may justify their reasons for plagiarism.

Moreover, there was very little data to support Scanlon and Neuman’s (2002: 375) proposition that peer behaviour and the perceived certainty of being reported influenced plagiarism levels amongst the students. Additionally, there was no data to suggest peer competition influenced if the students were going to plagiarise or not. There were no indications from the data that students plagiarised because they thought everyone was doing it or because they were competing with one other. Data obtained indicated that most students would not report their fellow peers for plagiarism. Instead, the students would at times attempt to intervene themselves than resort to telling the lecturer. One participant in particular, a first year students was quite adamant that reporting another student of plagiarism would be wrong. The participant went as far as suggesting that reporting another student would at times be graver than the act of plagiarism referring to it as “snitching”. The participant stated that they would only consider reporting another student if the other students’ plagiarism compromised them or placed them academically at risk. This revealed a culture of trust and solidarity amongst students. Thus in instances such as these the key to reducing plagiarism for the
university would be to alter campus culture or “school ethos” in a way that the university stimulates an environment of good academic practice (Smith, 2003). The university could disseminate amongst the students clear and accurate information on plagiarism. Therefore when the students attempt to intervene in plagiarism cases involving their peers they would do so equipped with accurate information on plagiarism.

This would eventually lead to the students influencing and assisting each other with academic work and practices. Ultimately, the students may have as much influence on each other as lecturers have on the students. Smith (2003:463) refers to this as an “ecological perspective” the construction and reconstruction of school ethos. The alteration of the schools practices through continued encouragement of peer assistance and review would result in the students influencing and being influenced by each other academically (Burgess-Proctor et al., 2014). Institutions would generate organised practices to stimulate “community of practice” to aid the students learning processes. Students would teach and learn from each other the acceptable and unacceptable academic practices.

Dissimilar to Jackson’s (2010) theory that plagiarism may manifest due to the students eagerness to share information with each other or their failure to see their work as something worthwhile. Most students would not let their peers copy their work. The few students who responded that they would let their fellow students copy from them would only do so if it was not of any cost to them. They would let the other students copy their work if certain conditions were met. For instance, different years of study, changing work up a bit, if they let them copy also from their work, as means of assisting etc. These conditions include the “copiers” (people copying), slightly altering their work so it is not too similar to the original source text (where they copied from). This would allow both the copier and the person being copied to deceive the lecturers so they do not notice, catch them or penalise them.

In addition, proximity in cases of plagiarism might play a significant role in that students would sometimes let other students copy their work because of their relationships with them. The students would let other students to copy their work depending on how close they were and the nature of their relationship. For example, students may be inclined to let a friend, boyfriend or girlfriend copy their work rather than letting a stranger or someone they are not close with to copy their work. This is because student plagiarism and academic institutions cannot be isolated from social customs and therefore surrounding circumstances such as personal relationships may influence student actions (Pineteh, 2013; Koul et al., 2009).
In addition to institutional (or academic) norms, goals, beliefs and practices the students have their own socially and culturally conditioning norms, goals and beliefs (Kroeber and Parsons 1958). The students are influenced by societal relationships (Tierney, 1988; Hurtado et al., 1999). Tierney (1988) strongly asserts that both universities and students are subject to external stimuli, social, political, economic etc. Therefore plagiarism may be marked by or manifest as a condition of internalised social relations. Therefore to remedy this, students’ should try to have strong academic relations with their supervisors (Glendenning, 2014).

6.3.5 Class size and plagiarism

One participant in particular in the findings chapter proposed that plagiarism in undergraduate years of study was due to the sizes of the classes. The participant strongly suggested that instances of plagiarism in undergraduate years of study were most prevalent because it was easy for students to conceal them from their lecturers. However since postgraduate classes were smaller compared to undergraduate classes it was more difficult for the postgraduate students to conceal their plagiarism. For that reason the pos-graduate students were less likely to plagiarise when compared with undergraduate students. The participant’s suggestion had merit in that it supports the assumptions in literature chapter. A few authors noted that it was harder to police plagiarism in larger classes when compared to smaller classes.

In larger classes the lecturers could not effectively give each and every student sufficient feedback or allow for drafts and re-drafts as this was time consuming (Pineteh, 2013; Macfarlane et al., 2014). Checking and rechecking the students’ work would require the mobilisation of resources, in a form of supporting staff, or teaching assistants, tutors etc. Although the University of KwaZulu-Natal does offer tutorial classes to assist the students with the academic materials; however this may still be inadequate as the students may require constant guidance when writing.

In the theory chapter it is noted that just as there are socio-economic inequalities amongst the students there are socio-economic inequalities amongst institutions (Van der Berg, 2008). Different institutions are able to mobilise different resources. For example, in larger classes lecturers may fail to address plagiarism as they may lack resources and support. As stated earlier in the chapter, some institutions and schools may be able to easily overcome the issue of resources. They may be able to mobilise the resources needed to aid students in their
learning and writing exercises. While some institutions and universities might lack these resources.

6.3.6 Goal orientation and credentialism

There was some evidence to indicate that students’ used plagiarism as means of achieving their goals (Koul et al., 2009:506). There was some evidence to suggest that the students plagiarised to get good marks, pass their courses and acquire their degrees. Particularly the students believed that attaining degrees would lead to them acquiring their dream jobs (Sentleng and King, 2012; Clement and Brennon, 2013; Luke, 2014). Plagiarism is therefore a means to an end for the students rather than an issue of ethics. One could then, induce from the findings that some students use plagiarism in order to acquire their degrees or credentials.

Bourdieu (1989:21) defines a credential as a universally recognised qualification, which includes a university degree or diploma. The students may view acquiring credentials as a type of liberation, them being liberated from their socio-economic, sociocultural, financial background and circumstances. Mainly because credentials may assist students appear as having large amounts of cultural capital when they in fact come from disadvantaged backgrounds. At this point, the above assumption would require further investigation as the data collected is insufficient to confirm or disprove that the students use plagiarism as means of attaining credentials.

6.4 Student attitudes towards plagiarism

Most students’ shared the sentiment that, although in their first year they wrote and completed their assignments, they were not exactly required thinking, understanding and giving critical discussions on topics. In addition, their lecturer’s rarely gave them feedback or followed up on their work. As long they knew the concepts it was fine. It was only in their postgraduate years they were required to know concepts, understand them and even put them into practice. As stated by one participant, the lecturer’s showed little attention to plagiarism in their first year as compared to their honours. In their postgraduate years of study was where the students were required to produce what is considered “quality work”. Moreover, the postgraduate students were required to write long academic pieces in a form of dissertations, academic journals and so on.
Additionally, the students’ responses suggested that the longer the students were in university the more they perceived plagiarism as acceptable. This lead to the assumption that first year students may have strongly believed that plagiarism was cheating because it is what they were told by their lecturers. At their level, the first year students may have little understanding of the contextual issues associated with plagiarism. Thus students’ opinions on plagiarism may be dependent on what they are told on plagiarism. The students are encouraged by their institutions to define plagiarism in moral terms, good and bad, honest and dishonest, right and wrong (Howard, 1995; East, 2006). Therefore the students’, especially first year students believe that plagiarism is wrong or cheating because either during their orientation, first lecture, first assignment that is what they were told.

Postgraduate honours students instead appeared to have more lax views on plagiarism due to their awareness and exposure to plagiarism especially when compared with the first year students. This reinforced Ting’s et al. (2014) suggestion that the students are not deterred away from plagiarism because of their exposure to the concept. Instead the students find ways to bypass established mechanism to discourage plagiarism in an attempt to accomplish their goals. Some students referred to this as “plagiarising smarter”. The findings revealed that certain postgraduate honours students had confidence in their abilities to deceive their lecturers and even bypass anti-plagiarism software. The above was achieved through the slight alteration of one’s work or other people’s work.

Consequently, this would suggest that early familiarisation and the early introduction of plagiarism may not be guaranteed to successfully discourage plagiarism amongst students (Pecorari, 2003). In this study it is suggested that when the students’ habitus is incompatible with their field they may find undesirable ways of bypassing some of the practices within their field which may include plagiarising. Therefore, the students would plagiarise regardless of whether they were aware of plagiarism or not. The conclusion here would be that plagiarism is not limited to whether the students are unaware or aware and understand what it is. The students’ motivations and values play an important role in their interactions with the academic field (Nash, 1999). The students may have different intentions for why they resort to plagiarism.
6.4.1 Moral reasoning and plagiarism

It is both accurate and inaccurate to say students’ plagiarised because of their lack of awareness of the correct practices concerning plagiarism as originally suggested by Dawson and Overfield (2006). The findings suggest that some students engage in plagiarism in spite of their awareness of the correct citation and academic practices. For the students there was no one concept of plagiarism therefore individual student definitions of plagiarism covered certain aspects of plagiarism instead of accounting for the various contextual issues associated with plagiarism. The students’ understood certain aspects associated with plagiarism rather than understanding plagiarism in its entirety.

However, although the students were aware of certain aspects of plagiarism there were disparities for them in putting what they knew into practice. Contrary to proposed theories suggesting guilt and moral reasoning as factors in students forming attitudes on plagiarism (Ercegovac and Richardson 2004; Szabo and Underwood, 2004; Nicholson 2010). The research findings indicated that students’ especially postgraduate students do not refer to plagiarism as an issue of morality. They are aware of the ethical implications of plagiarism, for instance, that plagiarism is wrong on the basis that it is characterised by taking, claiming and presenting someone else’s material as one’s own.

Thus it was inaccurate to suggest that students plagiarised because they were dishonest, immoral or lacked ethical values (Wood, 2004; Thompson, 2005). The students did not judge plagiarism morally or perceive the act of plagiarism as an immoral act. At most the students associated plagiarism with ideas of fairness. Some students indicated that plagiarism was wrong on the basis that it was neither fair on the other students because it gave plagiarisers an advantage over the students who actually did their work themselves. While other students reported that plagiarism was wrong on the basis that it was not fair to the original authors as they would not get acknowledgement.

Moreover, the data suggested that the students’ plagiarised in order to avoid getting in trouble with their lectures and to achieve their goals which were completing their work or assignments. The students wanted to complete their work so they would not get in trouble such as failing their courses. Therefore the perceived threat of “getting into trouble” outweighed the need for the students to follow academically acceptable practices. An additional reason for why students engaged in plagiarism was time constraints. The time
constraints as pointed out by the students may have been due to being given inadequate time frames by their lecturers to complete assignments, demanding social lives or lack of time management skills. The above reasons were initially suggested by Sentleng and King (2012).

6.5 Academics role in the students’ learning and writing processes

The findings indicated that the students were largely dependent and relied academic staff and lectures to inform them of the appropriate academic practices. In addition, they heavily relied on these academic staff and lecturers to give definitions of what comprised of “academic misdemeanours” such as plagiarism (Ting et al., 2014). In support of the findings, there was little evidence to suggest that the students who had read about plagiarism independently of their lecturers had more insight on the topic of plagiarism than the students who had not. None of the students identified or even acknowledged the various the multifaceted nature of plagiarism. The students’ did not acknowledge the various types of plagiarism outside of mentioning in-text and out-text referencing.

It is therefore important for both academic staff and students to be regularly and continually taught about the correct citation methods and their significance in the academia (Pecorari, 2006; Beute et al., 2008; Ellery 2008). As stated in the theory chapter, academic staff and lecturers are the ones mainly responsible in acculturating the students to acceptable academic practices (Sowden, 2005; Thompson, 2005). They are responsible for educating and familiarising the students with their new field which is university and teaching them the rules of this field. In addition the academic staff is primarily responsible for transmitting the type of capital embodied within universities to the students. However, academic staff may transfer the institutionally embodied capital unevenly to the students because they may favour the students who present with high amounts of cultural capital (Andersen and Jaeger (2015).

In addition, HEI’s should ensure that their academic staff is well trained as they play a large role in the students learning processes. Furthermore, academic staff should be well trained as there is a correlation between the staffs’ unethical behaviours and those of the students (Horn, 2013; Sheik and Mohamed, 2015; Thomas and De Bruin, 2015). In addition, the academic staff that engaged in plagiarism was suspected to be lenient in their policing and prosecution of plagiarism. Although the above would acquire further research, one could say that there is a culture of trust amongst students and their lecturers or supervisors. The students’ trust that
the information they obtain in class is accurate and do not feel the need to actively seek out information on their own.

6.6 Student awareness

6.6.1 The students’ awareness of plagiarism

The postgraduate honours students’ demonstrated increased awareness of the implications and repercussions associated plagiarising both academically and professionally when compared to the first year students. These students explained how plagiarism could lead to redundancies in both academic and non-academic information. The postgraduate honours students were aware that the complete avoidance of plagiarism would lead to the construction of new ideas which would eventually lead to the enrichment of already existing ideas. This can result in the growth of information because academic communities and even people outside of academia would benefit little from the rehashing of information. Learning about plagiarism in essence encourages students to make contributions to knowledge systems rather than repeating what is already there.

Thus, teaching students about plagiarism assists in moulding ethical researchers, practitioners and academics. Abiding to academically acceptable standards would aid the students in expanding the information in their research fields. Moreover, the skills the students attain in the academic field could assist them in their career prospects. Ultimately the students would use the skills and practices they learn in school to not only acquire jobs but to use practically in their jobs.

6.6.2 Awareness of institutional policy and procedure on plagiarism

Based on the findings, the students’ awareness of the policies and procedures of the university was significantly lacking. The findings illustrated that the students did not have enough knowledge of the strategies the university had in place to discourage and deal with plagiarism. If the policies and strategies were adequate the students would be aware or have at least some knowledge of how the school goes about combating plagiarism in detail. At the very least the students should have been able to recollect seeing or receiving a copy of the policy and procedure documents on plagiarism. However, none of the students reported being formally given pamphlets not only on plagiarism but on correct citation practices. The
assumption is that lectures and academic staff expected students to seek in-depth information on plagiarism on their own.

A contradictory idea to explore is that perceptions, attitudes and understanding are highly subjective therefore awareness alone of the institutional policy and procedures would not be enough in dealing with plagiarism (Lobanov-Rostovsky, 2009). The students view and perceptions of plagiarism are diverse due to perception generating structures like habitus. Although the students would be made aware of the policies and procedures on plagiarism they would still interpret, understand and experience them differently. That is partly why Howard (1995: 788-797) argued that institutional policies should make certain that they account and accommodate for the ever changing contextual implications of plagiarism.

Tertiary institutions such as universities are entities influenced by various social, political, and economic factors (Tierney, 1988). Therefore institutional policies and procedures need to be updated regularly and also they need to be updated in a way that accommodates the students enrolled within them. The students should not be forced to conform to institutional policies they are incompatible with (Howard, 1995). In addition, strategies to police plagiarism should be ideally evoked once the institution ensures that students are aware of the concept of plagiarism. Awareness remains the most significant strategy to prevent instances of plagiarism.

Instead of the strict policing on plagiarism, institutions should emphasise the “prevent and develop approach” (Mckay, 2014: 1315). The “prevent and develop approach” is a strategy focusing on the enhancement of preventative strategies over policing and punishment. Then the above should be the foundation in which other strategies can be formulated by the institution. Lastly, it is not enough for institutions to claim they have policies in procedure documents in place when there is a lack of enforcement and implementation of these policies and procedures. In closing, institutional policies should have two characteristics, they should be accommodating to the students and they should be enforceable.

6.7 Summary

Students are aware to some degree of plagiarism but they are not aware of the concept in its entirety. Additionally, academic staff and lectures play a significant role in the students learning and writing processes. Apart from educating the students about plagiarism academic staff should ensure that students have access to the information on plagiarism. Academic
staff and lecturers need to be able to direct students to the adequate places where they can locate information on plagiarism. Moreover, institutions need to be more proactive in developing and implementing strategies to safeguard against plagiarism. Furthermore, aside from issues of student plagiarism involving awareness, institutional policies, academic staff, internet and hardcopy sources. The strongest indicator to whether the students’ will plagiarise remains their motivation. While some students are tempted to plagiarise some are motivated not to. These motivations could be associated with various reasons e.g. laziness, time constrictions, the students goals or even their habitus which in this study has been argued to make individual action and therefore plagiarism possible.
CHAPTER SEVEN: SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Summary and conclusion

The avoidance of plagiarism is a crucial aspect of academia. The effective and continuous regulation of plagiarism ensures the production of good ethical research and findings from the students. However, instances of plagiarism cannot be assessed and addressed away from the circumstances and contexts in which they arise. Instances of plagiarism are enmeshed in a wide array of individual, contextual and circumstantial factors that make the concept complex in nature and more difficult for academic institutions to safeguard against. These factors include the students’ social and academic background and context, beliefs and motivations. Moreover, these factors include wider contexts as instances of plagiarism may have different implications on a global, national and institutional scale.

Although, additional studies would have to be conducted in order to uncover additional factors that may influence the students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences. There were numerous findings and insights made in this study. For instance, high schools did little to prepare the students for their transition to university. The high schools did little to equip the students with the knowledge and the skills they would need in order to avoid plagiarism in university. In contrast there were some findings to suggest that the prolonged exposure to the correct academic writing practices resulted in more lax views or bred lenient feelings toward issues of plagiarism. Prolonged exposure to the appropriate citation and academic practices for postgraduate honours students led to unintended consequences.

The students appeared to find various inappropriate ways to conceal their academic misdemeanours rather than discontinuing them thus the idea of early familiarisation as a strategy to dealing with plagiarism came into question. The first year students were the ones who appeared to have strong opinions toward the topic of plagiarism. When the first year students arrive to university they are taught to view plagiarism in terms of right and wrong which reflects the institutions values rather than the students values and beliefs. Further findings revealed that the students were greatly depended on the information that their lecturers gave to them rather than seek out information on academic and institutional practices themselves.

Lecturers and academic staff played a large role in imparting and disseminating information about the appropriate writing and academic procedures to the students. Lecturers and
academic staff were responsible for familiarising, accustoming the students with the academic field. Additionally they were responsible for the acculturation and conditioning processes that resulted in the transference and transmission of institutional habitus to the students. Additional acts of student plagiarism were found to be committed by the students in efforts to avoid punishments from their lecturers. They used plagiarism as a mechanism to complete their work. At times the students might have used plagiarism in efforts to conceal their lack of proficiency in English as they may have wanted to receive good marks or complete their work in a timely manner.

Moreover, there was evidence to suggest the students engaged in inappropriate behaviours because they had insufficient knowledge of the correct citation methods and referencing procedures. The findings strongly indicated that ignorance or lack of knowledge and awareness to the correct citation methods was a culprit in the students writing processes as the students were unsure of referencing formats and their usage. Contradictory to some parts of the literature there was no data suggesting that the students plagiarised more because of their access to the internet. The findings suggested that postgraduate honours students preferred internet sources rather than hardcopy sources compared to first year students.

In addition, there was no evidence to suggest that anti-plagiarism software or in this case Turnitin had an influence or an effect in the students writing processes. Rather, the students perceived this software as an obstacle and were more inclined to find ways to avoid and bypass them. The most significant findings were the students lack of awareness of institutional and policy and procedures on plagiarism. The students were aware some degree of plagiarism and institutional policies and procedures. However, the majority of the students were unable to describe and elaborate on the contents that were in the policies and procedure documents. This led to the conclusion that the students seldom read the documents or the documents were seldom disseminated by the institution to the students and seldom reviewed in classrooms.

Additional factors associated with students such as peer influence and behaviour and moral reasoning were discovered to have little influence on whether the students engaged in plagiarism or not. The most prevalent factors that were discovered to likely increase inclinations to plagiarise were, time constrictions (lecturer or student imposed), laziness and the students demanding social lives (especially for the postgraduate honours students). A further identified factor that contributed to student plagiarism was goal orientation. The
students used plagiarism as a mechanism to achieve their goals, whether they goals were completing an assignment, passing a module or acquiring a degree or credential.

In conclusion the context specific characteristics and features of plagiarism make it nearly impossible to cover holistically the aspects of plagiarism especially in one research study. Various specific and contextually framed studies would have to be conducted in efforts to learn more about the reasons why students plagiarise. Due to the above reason, this study could only highlight a few contributing factors that may be associated with student plagiarism. In addition to contributing to the existing data on plagiarism this study is hoped to stimulate more research on the topic and to assist in the development of strategies to combat its incidence and prevalence in the academic sphere.

7.2 Recommendations

The purpose of the recommendations section is to recommend the various strategies that universities may use in dealing with the prevalence and incidence of plagiarism. Institutions may use some of the recommended strategies in combination with others. In fact, it is strongly recommended that institutions not use a singular approach in dealing with plagiarism but instead use a combination of approaches because as discussed throughout the study plagiarism is a multi-faceted concept. Thus the issue requires multiple approaches to address it.

7.2.1 Early familiarisation and demystification of university practices for high school students

Universities could conduct open days, where high school students would be taught of the various academic practices taking place within the university. This would give the students foundational or even basic knowledge for when they enter university. Plagiarism could be one of the topics that are covered in these “open days”. High school students would be given materials they could read at their own leisure and during the open day festivities. Yorke and Thomas (2003: 68) consider this process as the demystification process. The main purpose is to prepare the students for university and also acquaint the students with university practises, values and norms. During the demystification process the students would be sensitised to issues associated with plagiarism so they are more receptive to what they will be taught in their first year in university (the goal is exposure). Additionally, high schools would benefit more if they integrated plagiarism as part of their syllabuses.
7.2.2 Academic staff and lecturer training and workshops

In accordance with the data reviewed and collected in this study it is suggested that the students would benefit from teachers playing a more prominent role in their learning and writing processes. The students largely depend on the lecturers to give them the necessary information on issues such as plagiarism. Lecturers and academic staff could capitalise on their roles by proactively disseminating and deconstructing for the students appropriate academic writing procedures. Institutions would therefore have to ensure that they hire and train their staff members and lecturers regularly that they assist the students’ avoid plagiarism.

Academic staff members could attend workshops and courses targeted at teaching them the appropriate strategies to use in teaching the students the appropriate strategies to avoid plagiarism. Training the academic staff and lecturers about plagiarism would also ensure that there are coherent strategies of dealing with plagiarism instead of academic staff using their own judgements when dealing with the issue. Furthermore, academic staff could conduct similar workshops as the ones they would be attending for the students either as part of orientation or as part of mandatory workshops that students of all levels are encouraged to attend. In short, there needs to be constant guidance, interaction, corroboration, reinforcement and negotiation between the academic staff and students (East, 2006; Thompson, 2005).

Moreover, the students should not only be informed about the punishments on plagiarism, but they should also be taught about the impacts of plagiarism on their learning and writing abilities. Lecturers and academic staff could emphasise the positive aspects of referencing and the creation of original work. For example, the students did not understand the importance of avoiding plagiarism or referencing. Although referencing alone as a preventative measure to plagiarism would not be effective. The academic staffs need to explain to the students the importance of referencing and how to do this appropriately. Referencing and plagiarism represent interrelated issues. If the students were ensured to know the correct citation practices it would minimise the aspects of plagiarism associated with the lack of awareness of correct citation methods.

In addition, prior to educating the students about plagiarism tutors, lecturers and other academic staff could evaluate the students’ knowledge and understanding of the term. This would be considered as a targeted approach. Lecturers and academic staff would target specifically the students’ problem areas, where they express confusion about the appropriate
writing strategies. This would be opposed to taking a blanket approach, where academic staff and lecturers would assume by themselves why students plagiarise. The targeting approach would help do away with of generalised approaches on plagiarism which may at times contribute to the hindrance in the development of effective strategies to deal with plagiarism.

**7.2.3 Group work and peer support**

Peer review structures and activities could be developed and encouraged within institutions as strategies to assist the students in dealing with the issue of plagiarism. The lecturers would encourage the students to work in pairs or groups so they assist each other to avoid plagiarism. This recommendation is in support of what was found in the key findings chapter. According to the students they would rather intervene themselves than report their fellow classmates and so peer review and assistance could be one strategy to combat plagiarism in the university. Students would be encouraged to help teach each other about plagiarism and teach each other about ways to avoid it. A great deal of this however, rests on lecturers disseminating enough and accurate information for the students to be able to assist each other.

Peer-review methods have been reported to result in less plagiarism. For example, multi-authored and peer reviewed materials displayed having less plagiarism than single authored articles (Thomas and De Bruin 2015: 2). This peer review strategy would also be highly effective in combating instances of plagiarism relating to class size in the undergraduate years of study. Since, in large classes the lectures may lack sufficient time and resources to ensure that all the learners know and are aware of the correct citation methods and ways to avoid plagiarism. Peer-review strategies could assist the lectures as students would work together and evaluate each other in creating good ethical work when completing their assignments.

For assessment purposes, students would be encouraged to work in groups in class and engage in various group and individual activities that would be marked and assessed by the lecturers and tutors. Group activities would be less time consuming to assess rather than individual work done by the students. Group activities would ensure a more conducive environment for the students to learn both from their lecturers and from each other about unacceptable academic misdemeanours such as plagiarism.
7.2.4 Anti-plagiarism software

Although anti-plagiarism software, did not appear to have a significant impact in the students writing and learning processes. It is still one legitimate strategy of dealing with plagiarism. This software can help detect the levels of similarities in the students’ work against work on the internet and when it reports high levels of similarity higher than acceptable (plagiarism). The students would often be encouraged to re-do their work in efforts to reduce their plagiarism levels or face penalties such as reduced marks or even a zero mark depending on the students’ level of study. Postgraduate honours students especially would be harshly penalised for high levels of plagiarism as they are expected to produce “quality work” as indicated by the students in this study.

However, there were some postgraduate honours students who indicated that they could bypass anti-plagiarism software. Therefore, anti-plagiarism software is expected to be more effective in discouraging plagiarism amongst first year students. The first year students that reported to have used or had knowledge of this software appeared to be more afraid of this software’s than the postgraduate honours students. The first year students were afraid that this software would catch them out or report their inappropriate and unacknowledged textual borrowings. To some postgraduate students especially those who do not have the means to bypass this software or the desire to plagiarise anti-plagiarism software may still be effective for them. Thus the desire to plagiarise determines the overall efficacy of this software.

7.2.5 Raising student awareness on plagiarism

Lecturers should ensure they adequately teach students the various complexities revolving around the idea of plagiarism instead of assuming the students are aware of them (Ercegovac and Richardson, 2004: 307). Universities should make certain that they communicate to the students (both undergraduate and postgraduate) proactively and effectively the issue of plagiarism. A majority of the students in the study appeared unaware of institutional policies and procedures used by the institution in dealing with plagiarism. Although some students claimed that they were aware of institutional policy and procedure documents on plagiarism, they did not refer to the content in these documents or the processes indicated within them. Thus the main goal of the university is raising awareness on plagiarism and academic misdemeanours like plagiarism.

Institutions should ensure that plagiarism policies and procedure documents are easily accessible to students. As suggested by one participant in the study plagiarism policies could
be uploaded on student websites such as moodle and student central as students often interact with these sources. In addition, studying materials such as module guides could have a few pages discussing plagiarism and different referencing formats for students. However, since the students do not actively seek out information on plagiarism themselves lectures and academic staff would direct students to different sources containing information about plagiarism. Proactive approaches in dealing with plagiarism would be more favourable than reactive approaches for when students have been accused or caught plagiarising.

Prior to the development of tactics to disseminate policy and procedure documents on plagiarism institutions should ensure that the policies are compatible with the students that are enrolled within them. This might be slightly difficult for institutions to achieve and would involve institutions considering where they are located geographically and the national policies on plagiarism. Furthermore, the institution would have to assess the student demographics, for example the students’ language statuses, the students’ second language status’ or first language status’ etc. Once the academic institutions have adequately assessed the demographics of the students enrolling within them they could then formulate policies that can accommodate the student populations enrolled or likely to be enrolled within the institutions.

Moreover, institutions should try and stimulate a culture of honesty by having encouraging open dialogues with the students about the issue of plagiarism. Disciplinary procedures dealing with the issue of plagiarism could be made public. Finally, universities could incorporate courses on research ethics for the students and academic staff, these courses could be compulsory depending on how prevalent the plagiarism is in an institution (Sheikh and Mohamed, 2015). This would assist in instilling the students’ with the ethical values necessary to produce good academic work, while also educating the students of what constitutes academic misconducts. For the academic staff and lecturers these courses would act as refresher courses, they would attend these to reinforce the information they already had on plagiarism.

7.2.6 Policy implementation

Policy enforcement structures could be developed on an institutional and faculty level. Different schools or faculties could create their own structures to deal with and address the issue of plagiarism, especially because different faculties may define plagiarism differently. These structures would be responsible for the implementation and enforcement of plagiarism.
policies and procedures. It is not enough that institutions claim to have policies and procedures on plagiarism but these policies should be enforceable. Having structures that can be held accountable for dealing solely with the manifestations of plagiarism would ensure that issues on plagiarism are dealt with adequately and appropriately.

7.3 Recommendations for further research

7.3.1 How socioeconomic and sociocultural backgrounds mediate in the students learning and writing processes

Although academic institutions such as universities are academic in nature they are socially situated fields subject wider sociocultural, socioeconomic and socio-historical influences. Institutions therefore would benefit more by constructing their policies in ways that were representative and accommodating to the students who enrolled within them. A large theme and assumption in this study was that the way the students’ perceived, understood and experienced plagiarism was influenced by their sociocultural and socioeconomic backgrounds.

However, since there were various contextual factors associated with assessing the students’ SES and socio-cultural environment and how they influenced the students’ perceptions, understandings and experiences. Additional studies would need to be conducted as the findings in this study were insufficient. This study only succeeded in highlighting a few assumptions on how the students’ backgrounds or habitus could mediate in their learning and writing processes. For sufficient findings on the impacts of the students’ SES and sociocultural backgrounds, extensive family backgrounds would have to be obtained.

7.3.2 Research Methods

In order to attain in-depth student background information, the research instruments or data collection methods should be designed in a way that would assist in acquiring extensive family histories and background information. For example, the students’ parent academic backgrounds, their occupations, family connections, the types extracurricular activities the students engage in, future career prospects and motivations. In addition, in the future both quantitative and qualitative research methods are recommended in further studies relating to issues of plagiarism as they may complement each other in shedding further extensive data on plagiarism.


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Razera De Azevedo, D., 2011. Awareness, attitude and perception of plagiarism among students and teachers at Stockholm University.(Student paper).KTH.


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APPENDICES

8.1 Appendix A: Interview Schedule for First Year Students

Pre-university:

- What kind of high school did you go to? Private, public?
- What kind of area was it located in? Suburbs, township, other?
- How would you describe your overall academic performance throughout high school?
  - Were you an average or above average student in your opinion?
- At school did you ever hear about plagiarism? If yes,
  - At what grade did you first hear about plagiarism?
  - Which subject was this?
  - Who discussed the subject of plagiarism with you and what did they say?
- Did the knowledge that you gained in high school about plagiarism assist you in any way when you first entered university?
- In your own opinion to what extent do you feel your teachers sufficiently covered the subject plagiarism in high school? Please expand on your answer.
- If given the opportunity to go back to high school would you have wanted the teachers to do something different with regard to teaching about plagiarism?

Attitudes, perceptions, feelings students have with regard to plagiarism and originality:

- At university when did you first hear about plagiarism? In which module, year?
- What were you told about plagiarism?
- What have you read about plagiarism?
- Tell me some stories about your experiences with plagiarism, including stories about other students and their accounts with the term.
- Is plagiarism cheating and why?
- Do you think a person can wholly avoid plagiarism?
- What do you understand by plagiarism now?
- Why do you think it is an important part of academic scholarship?
- Do you now know how to reference? What type of referencing format do you use for the different modules you do?
- How do you think plagiarism can be reduced?
Originality and referencing;

- Do you think that one can create something that is solely theirs without references?
- Do you think that referencing has any effect on one’s creativity?

Other students in general;

- Why do you think students plagiarise in general?
- Would you report a fellow classmate of plagiarism?
- Would you let someone else copy your work?

Sources and Anti-plagiarism detection software’s

- Where do you often get your sources when doing your work?
- Have you ever copied and pasted work from the internet? Why?
- Do you think the internet encourages plagiarism? Explain.
- Do you think the issue of plagiarism would decrease if students were working primarily from hardcopy sources? Why?
- What are your thoughts on anti-plagiarism software’s such as turnitin.com?
- Do you think that automated safeguards such as turnitin.com are enough to discourage students from plagiarising? Explain.

Existing structures and practices within academia.

- Are you aware of any policies or strategies the university has put in place to discourage against plagiarism?
- In your own opinion, are the pamphlets, policies, and various strategies the university have in place enough to discourage students from plagiarising?
- Do you think methods used to curb plagiarism within universities should be implemented at high school level?
8.2 Appendix B: Interview Schedule for the Postgraduate Honours Students

Postgraduate’s Questions

Pre-university:

- At school did you ever hear about plagiarism? If yes, 
  - At what grade did you first hear about plagiarism?
  
  - Which subject was this?

  - Who discussed the subject of plagiarism with you and what did they say?

- Did the knowledge that you gained in high school about plagiarism assist you in any way when you first entered university?

- In your own opinion to what extent do you feel your teachers sufficiently covered the subject plagiarism in high school? Please expand on your answer.

- If given the opportunity to go back to high school would you have wanted the teachers to do something different with regard to teaching about plagiarism?

Attitudes, perceptions, feelings students have with regard to plagiarism and originality:

- At university when did you first hear about plagiarism? In which module, year?

- What were you told about plagiarism?

- What have you read about plagiarism?

- Would you say your definition of plagiarism has changed through your years in university? If yes,
  - In what way has it changed?
  - Would you say you define plagiarism differently now than you did in your first year in university and other previous years?
  - What do you think is the reason behind this change?

- In your own opinion how would you describe the standards of the work you are required to produce now at postgrad level as compared to your first year, with relation to producing original and academically acceptable work?
  
  - What do you think is the reason for these differences, if any?

- Have you ever plagiarised?
Is plagiarism cheating? Why?
Do you think a person can wholly avoid plagiarism?
Why do you think it is an important part of academic scholarship?
How do you think plagiarism can be reduced?

Originality and referencing:

Do you think that one can create something that is solely theirs without references?
Do you think that referencing has any effect on one’s creativity?

Other students in general:

Why do you think students at postgraduate level plagiarise?
Would you report a fellow postgraduate student of plagiarism?
At your level of study would you let someone else copy your work? Why?

Sources and Anti-plagiarism detection software’s

Where do you often get your sources when doing your work?
- Is it different from where you got your sources in first year?
Have you ever copied and pasted work from the internet? If yes,
-why?
Do you think the internet encourages plagiarism? Why?
Do you think the issue of plagiarism would decrease if students were working primarily from hardcopy sources? Justify your answer.
What are your thoughts on anti-plagiarism software’s such as turnitin.com?
Do you think that automated safeguards such as turnitin.com are enough to discourage students from plagiarising? Please explain.

Existing structures and practices within academia.

Are you aware of any policies or strategies the university has put in place to discourage against plagiarism?
In your own opinion, are the pamphlets, policies, and various strategies the university have in place enough to discourage students from plagiarising?
Do you think methods used to curb plagiarism within universities should be implemented at high school level? Please explain.