

ONLINE CHAPTER

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

- ◆ To learn a systematic approach for reading research materials
- ◆ To develop alternative reading strategies
- ◆ To learn note taking
- ◆ To develop skills for reading collateral reading assignments
- ◆ To learn to evaluate sources
- ◆ To learn to synthesize and compare sources

Reading Research, Reference, and Collateral Assignments

Think About It!



Why is this student overwhelmed? What advice could you give her to help her cope with the heavy workload of college?

Like this student, you, too, may feel overwhelmed at times. Your political science professor may assign a 20-page research paper. Your psychology professor may assign a text and 30 related readings—research articles from *Science Digest*. Your marketing professor may require that you read and abstract two articles per week on topics related to her weekly lectures. You probably have discovered that your reading assignments are not limited to textbooks; many of your professors require that you locate sources, read research articles, and report your findings. Some professors distribute reading lists and direct you to read or write a specified number of abstracts. Others place materials to be read on reserve in the library.

Still others assign a research paper on a related topic of your choice. You are expected to locate numerous sources, synthesize them, and come up with your own ideas on the topic.

Many students make the mistake of reading research and supplementary material in the same way they read their textbook assignments. Consequently, they become frustrated with the assignments, claiming, "I'll never finish the research for this paper" or "These reading assignments are impossible!" This chapter describes new approaches to reading, evaluating, and synthesizing research, reference, and collateral reading assignments that are distinct from textbook reading techniques.

■ Reading Research Materials

Reading research and reference materials is very different from reading textbooks. When reading textbooks, your goal is usually a high level of retention and recall. In reading research papers, however, complete retention is not always necessary. You may be searching for evidence to support an argument, reading widely to gain overall familiarity with a subject, or locating a particular statistic. Also, whereas textbooks have a consistent format and organization, research and reference sources differ widely in these characteristics. Consequently, you must adapt your reading strategy to suit the nature of the material. The following sections present a systematic approach to reading research and reference material when you must prepare a written report or research paper.

Define and Focus Your Topic

The first critical step in doing research for a written assignment is to define and focus your topic. It is a waste of time to begin a full search for information and

to read numerous sources until you know exactly what you are looking for. Suppose you begin with a topic, such as “Hypnotism.” This subject is much too broad. You could not possibly cover everything known about hypnotism in one paper in any meaningful way. It may take two or three attempts at narrowing your focus to arrive at a topic you can reasonably handle. For example, “Hypnotism” could be narrowed to “Uses of Hypnotism,” then to “Modern Uses of Hypnotism,” and finally to “Modern Medical Uses of Hypnotism.”

To help narrow your topic, especially if it is one with which you are not familiar, some preliminary research or reading may be helpful. Here are some suggestions:

1. **Consult with your reference librarian to find what print and electronic sources are available to you.** Many libraries purchase materials specifically geared toward the topics that come up most often in assignments and papers. They also spend a great deal of money gaining access to electronic sources that go beyond what you can find on the Internet yourself.
2. **Read an encyclopedia entry (in print or online) to get an overview of the subject.**
3. **Check a periodical database for articles on your topic.** Search for articles in journals, magazines, or newspapers in the databases to which your library subscribes. Some articles will be full-text; others will be in print at your library. Use keywords at first and check to see what sort of limits you can put on your search (for example, date or type of article).
4. **Check the online catalog for books, DVD’s, or CD-ROMS on your topic.** The catalog will indicate what items on your topic the library has. Start with a keyword search and then look for subject headings to narrow your search. Check to see if your library belongs to a consortium. You may be able to get many items from other schools.
5. **Use a search engine to find information on the Internet.** Try using an advanced search where you can limit the domain to .edu or .org. Evaluate the who, what, and why of the sites you find.
6. **Consult your instructor if you’re not sure whether your topic is sufficiently narrow.** Once you have narrowed your topic, try to establish a focus or direction for your research. Your paper should focus on, explore, and answer a question; it should take a position. For example, your paper on “Modern Medical Uses of Hypnotism” might discuss the ways hypnotism is useful in modern medicine, or it might take the position that hypnotism is of limited use in modern medical practice, or even that hypnotism is dangerous and that its use should be restricted.

EXERCISE 1

Assume that one of your professors has assigned a research paper on one of the following subjects. Choose one subject, and narrow it to a topic that is manageable in a ten-page paper.

1. Environmental problems
2. Pornography
3. Test-tube babies
4. Professional sports

Devise a Search Strategy

In researching a topic, some students begin by gathering all the sources on the topic and then working through them randomly. This approach is time consuming and often repetitious. Instead, devise and follow a search strategy—an orderly way of sifting through available sources on your topic. A search strategy enables you to select the most suitable materials and to approach the topic in a logical fashion. A search strategy proceeds from general to specific. You begin by reading general materials that provide an overview of your topic. You then move gradually to more detailed sources that address a particular aspect of your topic. Of course, your search strategy depends on your topic, your familiarity with it, and the requirements of your assignments, but a common search strategy is shown in the following Table.

As you proceed through the search, you will find additional references. Each source will list its own references; eventually, the sources will converge. That is, you will come on the same sources several times and will begin to recognize authorities in the field. For example, as you research

TABLE 1 A Search Strategy

SOURCE	PURPOSE
1. Encyclopedia (online or in print)	Obtain an overview; learn the language of the subject; discover subdivisions.
2. Books and e-books	Obtain basic information on the topic (or aspects of the topic).
3. Periodicals (magazines, journals, newspapers)	Investigate particular aspects of the topic; obtain current or recent information.
4. Special sources (Web sites, documents, directories, review of the literature, pamphlet files, media resources)	Zero in on specialized information.

quality control in business and industry, you keep coming across the name of W. Edwards Deming, so you realize you need to know more about him and his ideas. If you have difficulty locating bibliographies or working through the search, reference librarians are ready to offer valuable, time-saving assistance.

Preview Sources

As you proceed through your search, it is useful to preview sources before delving into them. Previewing is an excellent research strategy; it enables you to select the most useful sources and to select sources of appropriate difficulty and complexity.

Let us assume you have located 15 books for a term paper on the psychological effects of terrorism on its victims. Your next step is to preview those sources to determine which are useful to your paper. If your paper requires current information, check the copyright date and eliminate any sources that are outdated. Next, glance through the table of contents to get an overall idea of the material covered by each source. Check the index to determine how extensively the source treats your specific topic. Select only those sources that provide a comprehensive treatment of your topic. Once you have identified these sources, randomly select a sample page in each and skim it to get a “feel” for the source. Pay particular attention to the level of difficulty. Is the source too basic, containing little more information than is in your course textbook? Or is the source too complicated? Does it assume extensive background knowledge of the subject, such as an extensive knowledge of psychoanalysis, for example? Previewing will enable you to select sources that contain sufficient information and that are of an appropriate degree of difficulty.

Define Your Purpose

Be sure to have a specific purpose for reading each reference source. Your purpose determines *how* you will read the material, as well as what type of note taking, if any, is necessary. To define your purpose, determine what level of comprehension and retention is expected. Is complete recall necessary, or is familiarity with key concepts sufficient? Your choice will hinge in part on the type of follow-up activity, if any, that will be involved. Will you be expected to write a summary or abstract, discuss the material in class, or use the information to write a term paper? (Refer to “Documentation and Note Taking” later in this chapter for suggestions.)

Comprehension is not an either/or situation. Rather, comprehension is a continuum; many levels of understanding are possible. In this respect, you might think of comprehension as similar to temperature: There is a wide range of conditions between freezing and boiling. And just as snowball fights go with freezing temperatures and cool drinks in the shade go with high temperatures, so are various levels of comprehension appropriate for various materials and types of assignments. An extremely high level of comprehension is necessary if you are reading a critical interpretation of a poem for an English literature paper. Each detail is important. However, a lower level of comprehension is appropriate for reading excerpts from a biography assigned for an American history course. Here, you would not be expected to recall each descriptive detail or bit of conversation.

The reading strategy you select is also shaped by the tasks that will follow your reading. If, for example, you are reading an encyclopedia article to get an overview of a subject so that you can narrow a topic for a term paper, then complete comprehension is not needed. You require only an understanding of the major aspects or divisions of the subject in order to begin topic selection. Therefore, moderate to low comprehension is appropriate. Suppose, however, you are required to write a critical evaluation of a magazine article arguing against capital punishment. A high or complete level of comprehension is required, because you need to follow the argument carefully, search for points of inconsistency, and so forth.

Comprehension can, somewhat arbitrarily, be divided into five levels: complete, high, moderate, low, and selective, as described in the following Table. Study this table before continuing to read.

TABLE 2 Levels of Comprehension

LEVEL OF COMPREHENSION	PERCENTAGE OF RECALL	WHEN USED
Complete	100%	Reading critical analysis; reading directions or procedures
High	90–100%	Reading a primary reference source
Moderate	70–90%	Reading for an overview of a subject
Low	50–70%	Reading to obtain background information; reading only for key ideas
Selective	50% or below	Looking up a statistic in an almanac; checking a date in a biographical dictionary

EXERCISE 2

Working with a classmate, select a level of comprehension that seems appropriate for each of the following research situations.

1. Reading a biographical entry on Ella Fitzgerald in *The Encyclopedia of Jazz* for a term paper on the history of jazz.
2. Locating names of leaders of Third World countries in the *International Yearbook* and *Statesman's Who's Who*.
3. Reading the directions for using a computerized card catalogue.
4. Reading a source to verify that you have not missed any key information in sources you have already used.
5. Reading a newspaper review of a performance of *Cats* in preparation for a drama class discussion on audience responsiveness.

■ Alternative Reading Strategies

Now that you have learned to gauge the level of comprehension appropriate for various reading assignments, the next step is to learn alternative reading strategies to meet these varied comprehension demands.

Most students are accustomed to reading everything completely. They read each assignment successively, from beginning to end. Few students realize there are other options available. Two alternative reading strategies are presented here: skimming and scanning.

When and How to Skim

Most textbook assignments must be read completely; complete or high comprehension is required. However, for some reading assignments that demand lower levels of comprehension, you can afford to read some parts and skip others. This strategy is known as **skimming**. Skimming is a technique in which you selectively read and skip in order to find only the most important ideas. Here are a few situations in which skimming is appropriate:

- **Reading a section of a textbook chapter that reviews the metric system.** If you have already learned and used the metric system, you can afford to skip over much of the material.
- **Reading a section of a reference book that you are using to complete a research paper.** If you have already collected most of your basic information, you might skim through additional references, looking only for new information not discussed in sources you have used before.
- **Sampling a two-page, 30-item supplementary reading list for a sociology class.** Your instructor has encouraged you to review as many of

the items as possible. You anticipate that the final exam will include one essay question that is related to these readings. Clearly, you cannot read every entry, but you can skim a reasonable number.

- **Reviewing a textbook chapter you have already read.** To review the chapter for a class discussion, you could skim it.

In skimming, your goal is to identify those parts of any reading material that contain the main ideas. The type of material you are reading will, in part, determine how you should adapt your reading techniques. Authors use different patterns of organization and various formats, and skimming is a highly flexible technique that can be adapted to these varying structures and formats. To acquaint you with the process of skimming, here is the procedure. Generally, read the following items:

1. **The title.** The title announces the subject of the material and provides clues about the author's approach or attitude toward it.
2. **The subtitle or introductory byline.** Some material includes, underneath the title, a statement that further explains the title or is written to catch the reader's interest.
3. **The introductory paragraph.** The first paragraph often provides important background information and introduces the subject. It also may provide a brief overview of the treatment of the subject.
4. **The headings.** A heading announces the topic that will be discussed in the paragraphs that follow it. When read successively, the headings form an outline or a list of topics covered in the material.
5. **The first sentence of each paragraph.** Most paragraphs are built around a topic sentence that states the main idea of the paragraph. The most common position for the main idea is in the first sentence of the paragraph. If you read a first sentence that clearly is not the topic sentence, then you might jump to the end of the paragraph and read the last sentence. Your goal as you skim each paragraph should be to get an overview of its structure and content. The first sentence, if it functions as a topic sentence, usually states the main idea and provides clues about how the rest of the paragraph is organized.
6. **The remainder of the paragraph.** Quickly glance through the remainder of the paragraph. Try to pick out words that answer questions such as "who," "what," "when," "where," or "how much" about the main idea of the paragraph. Also, note any words that indicate a continuation or a change in thought pattern as you glance through the paragraph. Try to pick up names, numbers, dates, places, and capitalized or italicized words and phrases. Note any numbered sequences

too. This quick glance will add to your overall impression of the paragraph and will confirm that you have identified the main idea of the paragraph.

7. **The title or legend of any maps, graphs, charts, or diagrams.** The title or legend will state what is depicted and suggest what important event, idea, or relationship is emphasized.
8. **The last paragraph.** The last paragraph often provides a conclusion or summary for the article. It might concisely state the main points of the article, or it might suggest new ways to consider the topic.

Now that you are familiar with the procedure for skimming, you are probably wondering how fast to skim, how much to skip, and what level of comprehension to expect. Generally, your skimming rate should be about three or four times as fast as you normally read. You should skip more than you read. Although the amount to skip varies according to the type of material, a safe estimate is that you should skip about 70 to 80 percent of the material. Because you are skipping large portions of the material, your comprehension will be limited.

To give you a better idea of what the technique of skimming is like, the following article has been highlighted to indicate the portions of the article that you might read when skimming. Of course, this is not the only effective way to skim this article. Depending on your purpose for reading it, you could identify different parts of the article as important. You also might select different key words and phrases while glancing through each paragraph.

AN OVERVIEW OF INTERNET SPEECH AND PRIVACY: THE ISSUE AT A GLANCE

The development of a new medium always creates new anxieties. Gutenberg's press prompted two centuries of debate over whether the spread of books would corrupt society. Privacy and free speech are already among the nations most difficult social issues; and it would be startling if the Internet did not raise new concerns about both of them.

Even the Internet itself is only the beginning. The electronic age is creating an entirely new medium, one that combines the interactive Internet with older media like TV, radio, print, mail, and the telephone. Few rules exist about what can be said or done over this new medium—and no one is really in charge of setting them. The Internet has no headquarters and doesn't exist as an official entity. Rather, it is the sum of millions of networked computers and telephone lines, all using an electronic Web language that, like English or Spanish, has dictionaries and grammars, but no controlling authority.

The questions of how to balance personal privacy and public safety have become all the more urgent since the Sept. 11 terrorist attacks. The “war on terrorism” evolves daily, even as the technology continues to evolve. The public’s opinions about this medium are in flux—and their views on free speech and privacy were far from settled to begin with.

A Planet of Publishers

Press critic A. J. Liebling once said that “freedom of the press is guaranteed only to those who own one.” Thanks to the Internet, millions of individuals now have the power that formerly only belonged to the owners of printing presses and broadcast licenses—the power to spread their views, whether profound or profane, to a worldwide audience. That has prompted a remarkable burst of creativity, but it has also provided hate groups and pornographers with a low-cost way of spreading their messages to anyone, including children, with a personal computer.

So far, the U.S. government has supported two approaches to dealing with offensive content: regulation and filtering. Two major attempts at regulation have been struck down by the courts, either in whole or in part. The first, the Communications Decency Act of 1996, would have made publishing “indecent” or “patently offensive” material on the Internet a federal offense. The U.S. Supreme Court, in *ACLU v. Reno*, came down firmly on the side of granting the highest free-speech protection to the Internet and struck down the indecency portions of the law. A second law, the Children’s Online Protection Act, tried to ban material “harmful to minors.” The Supreme Court sent the law back to a lower court for further review in May 2002, effectively blocking enforcement for the time being.

The other tactic, filtering, rests on the premise that technology can solve the problem technology created. Filters block out Web sites with offensive content, usually based on keywords or lists compiled by the filter developer. Filter supporters say the technology is ideal because it empowers parents and blocks out speech without silencing the speaker. Critics say filters are a crude tool at best because they depend on keywords that could crop up on perfectly legitimate sites devoted to breast cancer, AIDS prevention, or the novel *Moby Dick*. A third federal law would have required all public libraries to use filters, but a federal court threw out the law in 2002, saying filters would block porn and protected speech alike.

Your Personal Fish Bowl

The Internet itself may seem anonymous, but it is far from private. E-mail can be easily intercepted by anyone with enough technical skill, and Web sites can track substantial information about users, either by voluntary registration or involuntarily through the use of “cookies”—files quietly stored on a visitor’s computer that will identify them to the Web site on their next visit.

One way of making Internet communications more secure is encryption, the technique for coding messages so they can only be read by someone who has the encryption “key.” Encryption programs have been available for years, and businesses contend that strong encryption is critical to keeping online commerce secure. But even before Sept. 11, law enforcement officials were concerned that criminals and terrorists will use the programs to send messages they can’t break. Under heavy pressure from the technology industry, the Clinton administration had relaxed laws that treat advanced encryption technology as a munition and prevent its export overseas. In the wake of Sept. 11, the debate over encryption has been reopened, and Congress has already made it easier for authorities to use electronic surveillance.

But the ability of Web sites and hackers to collect information pales next to the newfound power technology gives to governments and marketers. “Data warehouses” are able to mix information from different sources to create a single, detailed profile of an individual, including vital statistics, how much they earn, what they buy, the state of their health, their interests, what they read, and more. And all of that information is for sale—to direct marketers, current and potential employers, or just anybody willing to pay for it. Already, as part of the war on terrorism, the federal government and financial services companies are discussing how to use their databases to flag suspicious activity.

Current privacy laws are rarely enforced and would offer spotty protection even if they were—for example, video store rental records are private under federal law, but medical records are not. The Supreme Court has upheld a federal law barring states from selling information they collect, such as voter registrations and motor vehicle records, to direct marketers. But there are few restrictions on what private companies may do with the information they collect.

The Learning Curve

Not surprisingly, the public is still learning about the Internet, and it shows in the volatile polling results. But the public’s views on free speech have always been contradictory. Americans say they firmly believe in the right to express unpopular views, but often oppose specific examples, like flag-burning. More than one in four say the Internet is under-regulated, but nearly the same number say users, rather than government or private industry, should control the medium. Majorities say they would support bans on publishing child pornography (which is already illegal) or terrorist material on the Net.

Strong majorities of Americans say privacy is an essential right, outweighing the right of others to access information. Most say they are concerned about the privacy of their personal financial or medical information, but very few say their own privacy has been violated. Surveys since Sept. 11 show the public believes some tradeoffs of privacy and civil liberties may be justified in order to fight the war on terrorism.

Three Perspectives

Our Framing the Issue section offers three public approaches to the issues of free speech and privacy:

- **Safeguard the Individual's Rights of Privacy and Free Speech.** Private life is being turned inside out for all to see in this electronic age. That chills free speech and undermines democracy. Americans must have their rights protected through laws that ensure the right to keep personal information private, to send encrypted communications, and provide the highest level of free-speech protection to the Internet.
- **Empower Consumers, not Regulators, to Protect Their Rights.** Technology raises new challenges, but promises Americans unprecedented control over their privacy and in avoiding offensive material on the Internet. There is no need to regulate Internet content when individuals can do it themselves using "filter programs" that block out offensive material. Consumers, however, should have more say in how personal information is collected and used.
- **Protect Communities by Curbing Overly Permissive Rights.** The individual's rights of free speech and privacy are permitting those at the fringe of society to pollute the mainstream—by exploiting laws that permit them to promote violent pornography in cyberspace and send anonymous messages police can't decipher. The Internet is a public communications medium and public standards should apply. Public information should remain accessible in cyberspace.

—*Public Agenda Online*, June 2002

EXERCISE 3

After you have skimmed "An Overview of Internet Speech and Privacy: The Issue at a Glance," on page 9, answer the following questions.

1. What is the purpose of the article?
2. What are the two ways in which the government has approached the problem of inappropriate content on the Internet?
3. Name at least one way privacy is compromised by the Internet.
4. How can the privacy of Internet users be safeguarded in the future?

EXERCISE 4

Skim "Giving Viruses a Cold Reception," on page 13, and answer the following questions.

1. What is the main point of the article?
2. How are cold viruses transmitted?
3. What should you do to prevent colds?

4. List several symptoms that suggest that an infection may be more serious than a cold.
5. List several things to do to relieve cold symptoms.

GIVING VIRUSES A COLD RECEPTION

The immune system learns to recognize specific disease agents through exposure to them. Antigen exposure can occur through vaccination or by natural means. We acquire immunity to chickenpox, measles, mumps, tetanus, cholera, smallpox, and many other life-threatening diseases. So, one might wonder, if the immune system can do such amazing things, why can't it defend us from the common cold?

We are susceptible to at least 200 different cold-causing viruses. The most common type, rhinoviruses (literally "nose viruses"), cause about 30 to 50 percent of all colds in adults. As soon as the immune system learns to recognize and defend us from one, another comes along, and then another. This antigenic diversity creates quite a challenge for the immune system, so much so that most people succumb to one to six colds per year.

Nonspecific Resistance

Cold symptoms are not produced directly by the cold virus, but by the body's nonspecific immune response as it fights the virus. When viruses invade the cells lining the nasal passages, your body responds with inflammation and the production of extra mucus. This causes nasal congestion, a "stuffy nose." As mucous membranes in the nose accelerate their secretion of antibody-containing mucus, you get a runny nose. Congestion in the middle ear or sinuses can cause dizziness or a headache.

The "swollen glands" sometimes felt during a cold are actually swollen lymph nodes. The nodes swell as immune cells, including macrophages, T-cells, and B-cells, work overtime to fight pathogens. A sore throat can result from "postnasal drip" as the sinuses drain mucus into the throat. Throat tissue can also become dry and irritated from breathing through your mouth or coughing.

Like the nasal passages, the trachea and bronchial tubes become inflamed and produce extra secretions if invaded by the cold virus. A wheezing sound indicates airway congestion as mucus accumulates and restricts the flow of air. A "productive" cough assists the respiratory passages in getting rid of the mucus and the virus. A "nonproductive" or dry cough is usually caused by throat irritation. Your body may produce a fever to create an inhospitable climate for the virus. Most cold viruses prefer temperatures of 86 to 96° F (30 to 35.5° C). Since fever is a helpful part of your nonspecific resistance, medication should only be used if the fever exceeds 101.5° F (38.6° C) or is needed to treat accompanying aches and pains.

Cold Prevention

Despite its name, a cold is not caused by cold weather, wet feet, or getting cold, at least according to laboratory studies. Colds do occur more frequently in the winter than in the summer, but no one knows why. The incidence of colds usually rises sharply in the early fall and spring. Some believe that when children go back to school and are exposed to each other's viruses, they bring them home to their families.

Research indicates that most of the time cold viruses are transmitted from the hands of an infected person to the hands of a susceptible person. The virus can survive on the skin for only a few hours and must reach the nose in order to invade the body. On the face near the nose is no good, since the skin provides an effective barrier. The mucous membranes of the mouth are also an inhospitable environment; kissing seldom spreads colds.

If all goes well for the virus, eventually the hand delivers the virus to its new home, the person's respiratory system, by touching the mucous membranes of the nose or the eyes (the virus can travel down the tear duct to the upper nose). One study found that 40 to 90 percent of people with colds had rhinoviruses on their hands. The viruses were also found on about 15 percent of nearby objects, such as door knobs, telephones, and coffee cups.

It is not known what makes some people more susceptible to colds. Small children are the most susceptible, because their immune systems are still immature and haven't learned to recognize as many pathogens. People who are around children a lot also get colds more frequently. Smokers are more likely to catch colds than nonsmokers, partly because smoking inhibits the airway cilia that help move mucus. Some studies have shown that stress can decrease the effectiveness of the immune system, and many people believe that stress and fatigue increase their susceptibility to colds.

Given what we know about the transmission of colds, the single best way to prevent colds is frequent handwashing, especially when you're around people who have colds. Avoid sharing telephones, glasses, towels, and other objects with a person who has a cold. And try not to touch your nose or eyes.

Getting enough rest, eating well, exercising moderately, and managing stress certainly won't hurt and may help keep your resistance up. If you're a smoker, cold prevention is yet another good reason to quit.

What about vitamin C? Studies have failed to show that vitamin C prevents colds, although some research has found that it may lessen the severity of cold symptoms. Vitamin C also increases the intactness of cell membranes, so it may make them harder for viruses to penetrate.

Cold Self-Care

Since a cure for colds continues to elude medical researchers, the best we can do is to treat the symptoms. It's been said that with aggressive medical

treatment a cold will disappear in seven days, while if left alone a cold will last a week. Nevertheless, symptom treatment can at least make us feel better until the cold has run its course.

The first step in cold self-care is to decide whether your symptoms are those of a cold or something more serious requiring medical attention. People who have heart disease, emphysema, diabetes, or another health condition should get professional advice before initiating self-care, especially before taking over-the-counter medication. Pregnant and lactating women should also check with their doctors before taking any medication.

Symptoms that indicate your infection may be more than a cold include:

1. Oral temperature over 103° F (39.5° C).
2. Sore throat with temperature above 101° F (38.5° C) for over 24 hours.
3. Temperature over 100° F (37.5° C) for three days.
4. Severe pain in ears, head, chest, or stomach.
5. Symptoms that persist more than a week.
6. Enlarged lymph nodes.
7. In a child, difficulty breathing or greater than normal irritability or lethargy.

Once you decide you have a cold, there are several things you can do to help yourself feel better. They include the following.

1. Chicken soup, broth, or other hot drinks. Your mother was right: hot fluids help relieve congestion by increasing the flow of nasal secretions. They also soothe irritated throats.
2. Gargle with salt water ($\frac{1}{4}$ teaspoon salt in 8 oz. water) to soothe a sore throat.
3. Use a vaporizer or humidifier to increase humidity, especially if the air is very dry. Humid air is gentler on nose and throat.
4. Breathing steam gives your nose a temporary fever, creating an inhospitable environment for the virus. It also helps to thin the mucus causing a stuffy nose, and thus temporarily relieves congestion. The steam may also feel soothing to irritated throats and nasal passages.
5. While rest may not hasten your recovery, it may help you feel better. It's good to stay out of circulation for the first few days of a cold to keep others from getting it.
6. Many over-the-counter cold medications are available. If you decide you need something, avoid combination drugs that contain several active ingredients to treat several symptoms. If, instead, you buy single drugs for the symptoms you wish to treat, you will avoid taking unnecessary drugs and decrease unpleasant side effects.

Should You Exercise When You Have a Cold?

Many people wonder whether they should continue their exercise programs when they have a cold. Some hope that the exertion will create a fever and

“burn out the cold,” while others believe that the added stress of exercise will only exhaust an already overwhelmed immune system. At this point, there is nothing but anecdotal evidence for these two beliefs. As long as symptoms are mild, exercising doesn’t appear to either prolong the cold or hasten recovery.

It is important to recognize, however, that colds can sometimes lead to more serious complications, such as secondary bacterial infection in the middle ear, sinuses, or respiratory system. Medical authorities generally advise rest during the initial days of infection, just to be sure that what you are catching (or that what is catching you) is really just a cold. People who insist on exercising should start slowly. If they begin to feel better after five or ten minutes, then the exercise is probably not harmful.

—Tortora, *Introduction to the Human Body: The Essentials of Anatomy and Physiology*, pp. 407–08

EXERCISE 5



Working with another student, select and skim one of the end-of-chapter readings in this text. Then question each other on the main points of the reading by using the comprehension questions as guidelines.

EXERCISE 6



Look ahead to the chapter you will study next in one of your textbooks. Skim one or two sections of this chapter and write a brief summary including the main point and most important information. Then check the accuracy of your summary by reading those sections more closely.

When and How to Scan

Have you ever become frustrated when trying to locate a statistic in an almanac or find a reference to a particular research study in a lengthy research review? Have you ever had to read an article completely in order to find a particular fact? These frustrations probably occurred because you were not scanning in the most effective, systematic manner. *Scanning* is a technique for quickly looking through reading material to locate a particular piece of information—a fact, a date, a name, a statistic.

Every time you use a dictionary to find a particular word, you are scanning. When you locate a call number in a card catalogue or find a book on a library shelf, you are scanning. In each case, you are looking for a particular piece of information, and your only purpose in looking through the material is to locate that information. In fact, when you scan you are not at all interested in anything else on the page, and you have no reason to notice or remember any other information.

Many people do not scan as efficiently as possible because they randomly search through the material, hoping to stumble on the information they are seeking. Scanning in this way is time consuming, is frustrating, and often forces the reader to “give up” and read the entire selection. The key to effective scanning is to approach the material in a systematic manner, as outlined in the following steps.

Know Your Purpose Fix in your mind what you are looking for. Scanning is effective only if you have a very specific purpose. Before you begin to scan, try to form very specific questions that you need to answer. For example, instead of scanning for information on the topic of abortions in New York state, it would be more effective to develop questions such as:

- How many abortions were performed in New York State in a specific year?
- What rules and limitations restrict abortions in New York State?
- At what stage are the majority of abortions performed in New York State?

The more specific your purposes and questions are, the more effectively you will be able to scan.

Check the Organization Before you begin to scan, check to see how the article or material is organized.

For graphics (maps, tables, graphs, charts, and diagrams), this step is especially important. The title of the item you are scanning and other labels, keys, and legends are important. They state what the graphics are intended to describe and tell you how they are presented.

For prose selections, assessing the organization is similar to previewing. Your purpose should be to notice the overall structure of the article so that you will be able to predict where in the article you can expect to find the information you are looking for. Headings are especially important because they clearly show how a selection is divided into subtopics.

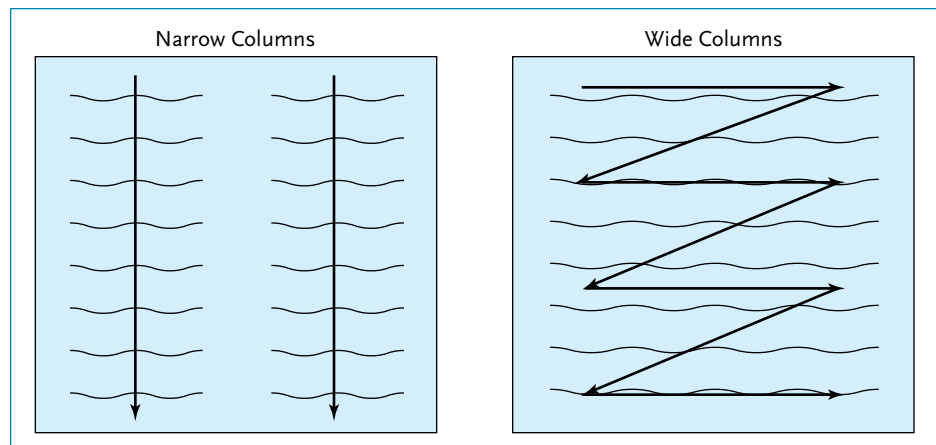
Anticipate Clue Words The next step is to anticipate clues that may help you locate the answer. For example, if you were trying to locate the population of New York City in an article on the populations of cities, you might expect the answer to appear in digits, such as 4,304,710, or in an estimate form using words such as “four million.” If you were looking for the name of the researcher in a journal article, you would expect to find the name capitalized. In looking for the definition of a particular term, you might look for italics and you might scan for the word itself or for words or phrases such as “means,” “can be defined as,” or “refers to.” As accurately

as possible, then, try to fix the image of your clue words or phrases in your mind before you begin to scan.

Identify Probable Answer Locations Using what you have learned from checking the organization of the material, try to identify places where you are likely to find the information you are looking for. You might be able to identify a column or section that could contain the needed information, you might be able to eliminate certain sections, or you might be able to predict that the information will probably appear in a certain portion of the article.

Use a Systematic Pattern Once you know what you are looking for and can anticipate the location and form of your answer, you are ready to scan. Scanning should be organized and systematic. Do not randomly skip around, searching for clues. Instead, rhythmically sweep your eyes through the material. The pattern or approach you use will depend on the material. For material printed in narrow six- or seven-word columns (newspaper articles, for example), you might move your eyes straight down the middle, catching the phrases on each half of the line. For wider lines of print, a zigzag or Z pattern might be more effective. Using this pattern, you move your eyes back and forth, catching several lines in each movement. Each of these patterns is shown in Figure 1. When you do come to the information you are looking for, it may almost seem as though the clue words “pop out” at you.

FIGURE 1 Scanning Patterns



Confirm Your Answer Once you think you have located the answer you have been looking for, read the sentence or two that contain the answer to confirm that it is the information you need. Often, you can be misled by headings and keywords that seem to indicate that you have found your answer when in fact you have located related information, opposite information, or information for another year, a different country, or a merely similar situation.

Now try out this procedure. Assume that you are writing a term paper on applications of genetic engineering and need to find out how it is regulated in agricultural production. You have located a reference book on animal science that contains the following section. Scan to find the answer to one of your research questions: What government agency determines the guidelines for genetically engineered foods coming from plants?

REGULATION OF GENETICALLY ENGINEERED PRODUCTS

Three federal agencies currently regulate genetically engineered products: the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the Food and Drug Administration (FDA), and the United States Department of Agriculture (USDA). In addition, most states monitor development and testing of genetically monitored products within their borders.

Animal and Plant Health Inspection Service (APHIS), a division of the United States Department of Agriculture, regulates genetically engineered products under several statutes. Genetically engineered crops are regulated under the Federal Plant Pest Act. This legislation enables APHIS to regulate interstate movement, importation into the United States, and field testing of altered crops.

The Food and Drug Administration has broad authority and primary responsibility for regulating the introduction of all new foods, including genetically engineered foods, under the Federal Food, Drug, and Cosmetic Act (FFDCA). Two different sets of provisions in the FFDCA pertain to genetically engineered foods. The first are the “adulteration” provisions, which give the FDA authority to remove unsafe foods from the market. The other pertinent section of the act requires premarket approval of food additives. In 1992, the FDA released guidelines for genetically engineered foods coming from plant sources. These guidelines can be found in the Federal Register, and vol. 57, pages 22984 and 22986–88. Because the FDA has authority over drug approval, it also has authority over drugs produced through biotechnological means. In this case, the fact that a drug is produced through biotechnology is not the issue. The FDA already had authority over drugs.

The Environmental Protection Agency oversees genetically engineered microbial pesticides and certain crops that are genetically engineered to produce their own pesticides under the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide, and

Rodenticide Act (FIFRA). The FFDCA authorized the FDA to set tolerances and establish exemptions for pesticide residues on and in food crops. Nonpesticidal, nonfood microbial products are regulated under the Toxic Substances Control Act (TSCA). The regulation under which the TSCA Biotechnology Program functions is titled “Microbial Products of Biotechnology; Final Regulation Under the Toxic Substances Control Act,” which can be found in the Federal Register, vol. 62, No. 70, pages 17909–58. This rule was developed under TSCA because intergeneric microorganisms are considered new chemicals under the act.

Animal vaccines are regulated under the Virus, Serum, and Toxin Act; and engineered poultry and livestock fall under various meat inspection statutes. Transgenic animals other than poultry and livestock are not regulated for environmental risks.

—Damron, *Introduction to Animal Science*, pp. 202–03

Scanning Lists and Tables

In scanning information in list form, the most important step is to become familiar with how the writer has arranged the information. Check the overall organization, and then see whether it is divided in any particular way. For instance, a TV program schedule is organized by day of the week, but it is also arranged by time. In scanning a table of metric equivalents, you would see that it is arranged alphabetically but that it is subdivided into measures of volume, length, and so on. Column titles, headings, and any other clues are important to show the organization of the material.

Many reference books that are arranged alphabetically have guide words at the top of each page to indicate the words or entries that are included on that page. For instance, in the upper-right or upper-left corner of a page of a dictionary, you might find the two words *cinder-circle*. These guide words indicate that the first entry on the page is *cinder* and that the last entry on the page is *circle*. Guide words are valuable shortcuts to help you quickly locate the appropriate page to scan. For lengthy alphabetical material that does not include guide words, you should check the first entry and the last entry on a page to determine whether that page contains the item you are looking for.

In scanning columnar material, often you will be able to scan for a specific word, phrase, name, date, or place name, and it may not be necessary to guess at the form of your answer. For example, in scanning an almanac to find the length of Lake Ontario, you are looking for one very specific statistic. Similarly, you can check *Taber's Cyclopedic Medical Dictionary* just for a description of brittle diabetes.

When scanning material that is arranged alphabetically, focus on the first letter of each line until you reach the letter that begins the word you are looking for. Then focus on the first two letters until you reach the two-letter combination you seek. Successively widen your focus until you are looking for whole words.

EXERCISE 7

Scan Figure 2 from the Environmental Resource Handbook to locate the answers to the following questions.

1. Who sponsors *Leaves Newsletter*?
2. How often is *Journal of Economic Entomology* published?
3. What is the Web address for *In Brief*?
4. When was the Iowa Native Plant Society organized?
5. How many groups are in the IEC (Illinois Environmental Council)?

EXERCISE 8

Scan Figure 3 on page 23 from *A to Zoo: Subject Access to Children's Picture Books* to locate the answers to the following questions.

1. How many books feature the holiday Sukkot?
2. Name the author of *Hooray! It's Passover!*
3. Which book was written by Valerie Tripp?
4. How many books on this page were written by Eve Bunting?
5. For which holiday is the least number of books listed?

Scanning Prose Materials

Prose materials are more difficult to scan than columnar material. Their organization is less apparent, and the information is not so concisely or obviously stated. And unless the headings are numerous and concise, you may have to scan large amounts of material with fewer locational clues. To scan prose materials, you must rely heavily on identifying clue words and predicting the form of your answer.

It is useful to think of scanning prose materials as a floating process in which your eyes drift quickly through a passage searching for clue words and phrases. Your eyes should move across sentences and entire paragraphs, noticing only clue words that indicate you may be close to locating the answer. As you become skilled at scanning prose material, your clue words will “pop out” at you as though they were in boldface print.

FIGURE 2 Environmental Resource Handbook

4409 Illinois Audubon Society
425 B N Gilbert Street
PO Box 2418
Danville, IL 61834

217-446-5085
Fax: 217-446-6375
<http://www.illinoisaudubon.org>

A membership organization dedicated to the preservation of Illinois Wildlife and the habitats which support them. Has sanctuaries and native education and land acquisition programs, and publishes quarterly magazines and newsletters.

Publication Date: 1916 28 Pages Quarterly
ISSN: 1061-9801
Marilyn F. Campbell, Executive Director

4410 Illinois Environmental Council – IEC
Bulletin
197 West Cook
Suite 15
Springfield, IL 62704-2527

217-544-5954
Fax: 217-544-5958
E-mail: iec@ilenviro.org
<http://www.ilenviro.org>

The IEC is a coalition of over 70 environmental, conservation and health groups.

Bi-Monthly

4411 In Brief
223 South King
4th Floor
Honolulu, HI 96813

808-599-2436
Fax: 808-521-6841
E-mail: eajushi@earthjustice.org
<http://www.earthjustice.org>

Newsletter of Earthjustice, a non-profit public interest law firm dedicated to protecting the magnificent places, natural resources and wildlife of this earth and to defending the right of all people to a healthy environment. We bring about far-reaching change by enforcing and strengthening environmental laws on behalf of hundreds of organizations and communities.

Quarterly
David Henkin, Staff Attorney

4412 Iowa Cooperative Fish & Wildlife Research Unit, Annual Report
Iowa State University Science Hall
II
Ames, IA 50011

515-294-3056
Fax: 515-294-5468

Publication Date: 1932 Annual

4413 Iowa Native Plant Society Newsletter
Botany Department
Iowa State University
Ames, IA 50011-1020

515-294-9499
Fax: 515-294-1337
E-mail: dlewis@iastate.edu

An organization of amateur and professional botanists and native plant enthusiasts who are interested in the scientific, educational and cultural aspects, as well as the preservation and conservation of the native plants of Iowa. The Society was organized in 1995 to create a forum where

plant enthusiasts, gardeners and professional botanists could exchange ideas and coordinate activities such as field trips, workshops, and restoration of natural areas.

Publication Date: 1995 12 pages 3/4 times X year
Tom Rosburg, President
Deb Lewis, Contact Person

4414 Journal of Economic Entomology
Journal of Entomology
9301 Annapolis Road
Lanham, MD 20706-3115

301-731-4535
Fax: 301-731-4538
E-mail: esa@entsoc.org
<http://www.entsoc.org>

Contributions report on the economic significance of insects and are divided into categories by subject matter: apiculture and social insects; arthropods in relation to plant disease; biological and microbial disease; ecology and behavior; ecotoxicology; extension; field and forage crops; forest entomology; horticultural entomology; household and structural insects; insecticide resistance and resistance management; medical entomology; plant resistance; sampling and biostatistics.

6 Times a Year

4415 Land and Water Magazine
Land and Water
PO Box 1197
918 B 1st Avenue South
Fort Dodge, IA 50501-1197

515-576-3191
Fax: 515-576-2606
E-mail: landandwater@dodgenet.com
<http://www.landandwater.com>

Edited for contractors, engineers, architects, government officials and those working in the field of natural resource management and restoration from idea stage through project completion and maintenance.

44 pages
Amy Dencklau, Publisher
Teresa Doyle, Editor

4416 Leaves Newsletter
Michigan Forest Association
1558 Barrington
Ann Arbor, MI 48103-5603

734-665-8279
Fax: 734-913-9167
E-mail: mfa@i-star.com
<http://www.mfa.nu>

An organization composed mainly of private owners of small woodlands. Our purpose is to promote good forest management and stewardship of all forest lands.

Monthly
McClain B. Smith Jr., Executive Director

4417 MACC Newsletter
Alba Press
10 Juniper Road
Belmont, MA 02478

617-489-3930
Fax: 617-489-3935
E-mail: staff@maccweb.org
<http://www.maccweb.org>

Published six times a year, each issue features carefully chosen technical and interpretive articles, updates on government actions and policies.

FIGURE 3 A to Zoo: Subject Access to Children's Picture Books

Holidays – Mother's Day

Anderson, Laurie Halse. *No time for Mother's Day*
 Balian, Lorna. *Mother's Mother's Day*
 Bunting, Eve (Anne Evelyn). *The Mother's Day mice*
 Howe, James. *The case of the missing mother*
 Kroll, Steven. *Happy Mother's Day*
 Livingston, Myra Cohn. *Poems for mothers*
 Morgan, Allen. *Matthew and the midnight money van*
 Sharmat, Marjorie Weinman. *Hooray for Mother's Day!*
 Tripp, Valerie. *Happy, happy Mother's Day*
 Wynot, Jillian. *The Mother's Day sandwich*

Holidays – New Year's

Andersen, H. C. (Hans Christian). *The little match girl*, ill. by Rachel Isadora
The little match girl, ill. by Blair Lent
The little match girl, ill. by Jerry Pinkney
 Chiomruom, Sothea. *Dara's Cambodian New Year*
 Grifalconi, Ann. *The bravest flute*
 Holabird, Katharine. *Angelina ice skates*
 Janice. *Little Bear's New Year's party*
 Kudler, David. *The Seven Gods of Luck*
 Modell, Frank. *Goodbye old year, hello new year*
 Ziefert, Harriet. *First Night*

Holidays – Passover

Adler, David A. *A picture book of Jewish holidays*
A picture book of Passover
 Auerbach, Julie Jaslow. *Everything's changing – It's pesach!*
 Behrens, June. *Passover*
 Feder, Harriet K. *Not yet, Elijah!*
 Fishman, Cathy Goldberg. *On Passover*
 Hawxhurst, Joan C. *Bubbe and Gram, my two grandmothers*
 Hirsh, Marilyn. *I love Passover*
One little goal
 Kimmelman, Leslie. *Hooray! it's Passover!*
 Manushkin, Fran. *The matzah that Papa brought home*
Miriam's cup
 Newman, Lesléa. *Matzo ball moon*
 Portnoy, Mindy Avra. *Matzah ball*
 Rosen, Anne. *A family Passover*
 Rothenberg, Joan. *Matzah ball soup*
 Rouss, Sylvia A. *Sammy Spider's first Passover*
 Schotter, Roni. *Passover magic*
 Schwartz, Lynne Sharon. *The four questions*
 Silverman, Erica. *Gittel's hands*
 Simon, Norma. *The story of Passover*
 Swartz, Leslie. *A first Passover*
 Wikler, Madeline. *My first seder*
 Wohl, Lauren L. *Matzoh mouse*
 Zalben, Jane Breskin. *Happy Passover, Rosie*
 Zusman, Evelyn. *The Passover parrot*

Holidays – Purim

Cohen, Barbara. *Here come the Purim players!*, ill. by Beverly Brodsky McDermott
Here come the Purim players!, ill. by Shoshana Mekibel
 Gerstein, Mordica. *Queen Esther the morning star*
 Nerlove, Miriam. *Purim*
 Schotter, Roni. *Purim play*

Suhl, Yuri. *The Purim goat*
 Topek, Susan Remick. *A costume for Noah*
 Wikler, Madeline. *The Purim parade*

Holidays – Ramadan

Ghazi, Suhaib Hamid. *Ramadan*

Holidays – Rosh Hashanah

Fishman, Cathy Goldberg. *On Rosh Hashanah and Yom Kippur*
 Gellman, Ellie. *It's Rosh Hashanah!*
 Goldin, Barbara Diamond. *World's birthday*
 Kahn, Katherine Janus. *The shofar calls to us*
 Kimmelman, Leslie. *Sound the shofar!*

Holidays – St. Patrick's Day

Bunting, Eve (Anne Evelyn). *St. Patrick's Day in the morning*
 Calhoun, Mary. *The hungry leprechaun*
 Dillon, Jana. *Lucky O'Leprechaun*
 Janice. *Little Bear marches in the St. Patrick's Day parade*
 Kroll, Steven. *Mary McLean and the St. Patrick's Day parade*
 O'Donnell, Elizabeth Lee. *Patrick's day*
 Schertle, Alice. *Jeremy Bean's St. Patrick's Day*
 Zimelman, Nathan. *To sing a song as big as Ireland*

Holidays – Sukkot

Groner, Judyth Saypol. *All about Sukkot*
 Lepon, Shoshana. *Hillel builds a house*
 Polacco, Patricia. *Tikvah means hope*
 Zalben, Jane Breskin. *Leo and Blossom's Sukkah*

Holidays – Thanksgiving

Alcott, Louisa May. *An old-fashioned Thanksgiving*
 Anderson, Laurie Halse. *Turkey pox*
 Balian, Lorna. *Sometimes it's turkey*
 Behrens, June. *The feast of Thanksgiving*
 Berenstain, Stan. *The Berenstain bears and the prize pumpkin*
 Borden, Louise. *Thanksgiving is . . .*
 Brown, Marc Tolon. *Arthur's Thanksgiving*
 Bunting, Eve (Anne Evelyn). *How many days to America?*
A turkey for Thanksgiving
 Carlson, Nancy L. *A visit to grandma's*
 Child, Lydia Maria. *Over the river and through the wood*
 Cowley, Joy. *Gracias, the Thanksgiving turkey*
 Dalgliesh, Alice. *The Thanksgiving story*
 De Paola, Tomie (Thomas Anthony). *My first Thanksgiving*
 Devlin, Wende. *Cranberry Thanksgiving*
 Dragonwagon, Crescent. *Alligator arrived with apples*
 George, Jean Craighead. *The first Thanksgiving*
 Gibbons, Gail. *Thanksgiving Day*
 Hopkins, Lee Bennett. *Merrily comes our harvest in*
 Ipcar, Dahlov. *Hard scrabble harvest*
 Jackson, Alison. *I know an old lady who swallowed a pie*
 Janice. *Little Bear's Thanksgiving*
 Koller, Jackie French. *Nickommoh!*
 Kraus, Robert. *How Spider saved Turkey*

EXERCISE 9

Scan the article titled “Giving Viruses a Cold Reception” on pages 13–16 and answer the following questions.

1. How many cold-related viruses are humans susceptible to?

2. What is the difference between a “productive” and a “nonproductive” cough?

3. Why are small children most susceptible to colds?

4. What effects might vitamin C have on cold viruses?

5. How does breathing steam relieve cold symptoms?

■ Documentation and Note Taking

As you read reference sources for a research paper, documentation and note taking are important. You must record carefully the sources you use and take clear and concise notes to use when writing your paper.

Documentation Format and Systems

Documentation—recording the sources you use—is necessary for preparing the footnotes and bibliography of any paper you write. As you use sources, you will need to keep a record of the complete title, author, publisher, place, date, and pages referred to. Before you begin, select the format you will use for the paper’s bibliography, and use this format to record sources as you use them. Several documentation styles are available; often a particular style is preferred in a specific academic discipline. The two most common styles are those of the MLA and the APA, which are explained in the following manuals. Instructors usually require one style or the other.

Gibaldi, Joseph. *MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers*, 6th ed. New York: MLA, 2003.

American Psychological Association. *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association*, 5th ed. Washington, DC: APA, 2001.

Documentation rules are complex and may seem picky and annoying, especially if you have to learn different styles for different courses, but there is good reason for them. If your source is fully documented, your reader can follow up, explore further, or research a topic in more depth. Documentation also may be useful to you. As you complete your paper, for example, you may need to return to a source to get an important date you missed or to check a name spelled two different ways in your notes.

Many researchers list their sources on 3 x 5-inch index cards, which make it possible to alphabetize rapidly when preparing the bibliography. For each source, record the library call number in addition to bibliographic information. (This will save you time should you need to locate the source again.) A sample source card is shown in Figure 4.

Note-Taking Cards

For taking notes, 5 x 8-inch or 4 x 6-inch index cards are best. Use a separate card for each subtopic or aspect of your topic. In the upper-left corner, record the author's last name and the pages you used. In the upper-right corner, record the subtopic. Be sure to write on only one side of the card. A sample note-taking card is also shown in Figure 4. Here are a few suggestions for taking good research notes:

1. **Record the information in your own words instead of copying the author's words.** By recording the author's wording, you run the risk of using it in your paper, perhaps without realizing that you have done so. Whenever you use an author's words or ideas instead of your own, you are required to use quotation marks and/or give proper credit by indicating the author and source from which the material was taken. Failure to give credit is known as **plagiarism**. Plagiarism is a form of theft and therefore a serious error; many institutions penalize students who either knowingly or unknowingly plagiarize.
2. **Try to summarize and condense information.** You will find that it is impossible to record all the information that appears in your sources. If you have already made a note once, do not spend time writing it again. (You might, however, want to note the fact that there is common agreement in a number of sources about the information.) Occasionally, you may need to check back through your notes to see what you already have recorded.
3. **Record useful quotes.** If you find a statement that strongly supports your thesis, you may want to include it as a quotation in your paper. Copy it down exactly and place it in quotation marks in your notes, along with its page reference. Photocopy important articles so you can refer to them while you work.

FIGURE 4 Sample Source and Note-Taking Cards

Source Card

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • T J 211 • C69 2005
<p>Critchlow, Arthur J.</p> <p><u>Introduction to Robotics</u></p> <p>New York : Macmillan, 2005,</p> <p>pp. 39-51</p>

Note Card

<p>Critchlow, P. 42</p> <p>formula for payback</p> $P = \frac{C}{s-o}$	<p>Payback on investment</p> <hr style="width: 50%; margin: auto;"/> <p>yearly - operations savings - cost</p>
<p>Capital includes robot, auxiliary, safety equipment, installation, and training.</p> <p>Operations include overhead and maintenance, wages, and salaries of operators.</p>	

■ Reading Collateral Assignments

In addition to the course textbook, many professors assign collateral readings. These assignments are drawn from a variety of sources: other textbooks, paperbacks, newspapers, periodicals, scholarly journals, and reference books. Often, your professor will place the required book or periodical on reserve in the library. This means the book is held at the reserve desk, where its use is restricted to a specified period of time. Collateral assignments may present

- new topics not covered in your text.
- updated information.
- alternative points of view.
- applications or related issues.
- realistic examples, case studies, or personal experiences.

Reading collateral assignments requires different skills and strategies than reading textbooks. Unless the assignment is from another textbook, you may find that the material is not as well or as tightly organized as it would be in a textbook. It may also be less concise and factual.

Analyzing the Assignment

First, determine the purpose of the assignment: how is it related to the course content? Listen carefully as your professor announces the assignment; he or she often provides important clues. Next, determine what type and level of recall are necessary. If the purpose of an assignment is to present new and important topics not covered in your text, then a high level of recall is required. If, on the other hand, an assignment's purpose is to expose you to alternative points of view on a controversial issue, then key ideas are needed but highly factual recall is not.

Choosing Reading and Study Strategies

Depending on the purpose of the assignment and the necessary level and type of recall, your reading choices range from a careful, thorough reading to skimming to obtain an overview of the key ideas presented. Before you begin, you need to select a strategy to enable you to retain and recall the information. Table 3 lists examples of supplementary assignments and their purposes and suggests possible reading and retention strategies for each. The table shows how strategies vary widely to suit the material and the purpose for which it was assigned.

TABLE 3 Strategies for Collateral Readings

ASSIGNMENT	PURPOSE	READING STRATEGIES	RETENTION STRATEGIES
Historical novel for American history course	To acquaint you with living conditions of the period being studied	Read rapidly, noting trends, patterns, characteristics; skip highly detailed descriptive portions.	Write a brief synopsis of the basic plot; make notes (including some examples) of lifestyles, living conditions (social, religious, political, as well as economic).
Essay on exchange in Moroccan bazaars (street markets) for economics course	To describe system of barter	Read for main points, noting process, procedures, and principles.	Underline key points.
Article titled “What Teens Know about Birth Control” assigned in a maternal care nursing course	To reveal attitudes toward, and lack of information about, birth control	Read to locate topics of information, misinformation, and lack of information; skip details and examples.	Prepare a three-column list: information, misinformation, and lack of information.

Working on Nonprint Collateral Assignments

Occasionally, a professor may ask you to view videotapes, films, lectures, or television documentaries. Approach these assignments as you would approach a reading assignment. It is particularly important to determine your purpose and to take adequate notes at the time because it is usually difficult, or impossible, to review the material later. Making notes on nonprint materials is, in some ways, similar to taking notes on class lectures. In the case of films, dramatic recreations, or performances, your notes should reflect your impressions as well as a brief review of the content.

EXERCISE 10

Summarize how you would approach each of the following collateral assignments. What would be your purpose? What reading and study strategies would you use?

1. Reading a *Time* magazine article about a recent incident of terrorism for a discussion in your political science class.
2. Reading two articles that present opposing opinions and evidence about the rate of the spread of AIDS throughout the United States.
3. Reading a recent journal article on asbestos control to obtain current information for a term paper on the topic.

4. Reading a case study of an autistic child for a child psychology course.
5. Reading IBM's end-of-the-year statement for stockholders for a business class studying public relations strategies.

■ Evaluating Sources

Through your research and supplementary reading, you will encounter a variety of sources ranging from newspaper editorials to professional journal research reports. Not all sources are equal in accuracy, scholarship, or completeness. In fact, some sources may be inaccurate, and some may be purposely misleading. Other sources that were once respected are now outdated and have been discredited by more recent research. Part of your task as a researcher is to evaluate available sources and select those that seem the most reliable and appropriate. Use the following suggestions in evaluating sources. Also refer to Chapter 11 for suggestions on evaluating Internet sources in your text.

1. **Assess the authority of the author.** In standard reference books such as encyclopedias and biographical dictionaries, you can assume the publisher has chosen competent authors. However, when using individual source materials, it is important to find out whether the author is qualified to write on the subject. Does he or she have a degree or experience in the field? What is the author's present position or university affiliation? This information may appear in the preface or on the title page of a book. In journal articles, a brief paragraph at the end of the article or on a separate page in the journal may summarize the author's credentials. If the author's credentials are not provided, then it may be necessary to consult reference sources to establish or verify the author's qualifications. Sources such as *Who's Who*, *Directory of American Scholars*, and numerous biographical dictionaries are available in the library reference section. By appraising the sources the author cites (footnotes and bibliography), you also can judge the competence of the author.
2. **Check the copyright date.** The date the source was published or revised is indicated on the back of the title page. Especially in rapidly changing fields such as computer science, the timeliness of your sources is important. Using outdated sources can make a research paper incomplete or incorrect. Consult at least several current sources, if possible, to discover recent findings and new interpretations. Suppose that in doing research on regulations for day care centers, you have located several articles. One was written in 1993, another in 1996, another in 2002. The 1993 and 1996 articles may be outdated because regulations change frequently.

3. **Evaluate the fulfillment of the work's purpose.** Does the work accomplish what it promises? Purposes are often stated or implied in the title, subtitle, preface, and introduction. Does the author recognize appropriate limitations, or does he or she claim the source is a complete study of a topic?
4. **Assess the intended audience.** For whom is the work intended? Some sources are written for children, others for young adults, and others for a general-interest audience. The work should suit the audience in format, style, complexity of ideas, and amount of detail. Some sources may be too technical and detailed for your purposes. For example, if a book on control of water pollution is written for engineers, then it may be too complicated.
5. **Verify one source against another.** If you find information that seems questionable, unbelievable, or disputable, verify it by locating the same information in several other reputable sources. Ask your reference librarian for assistance, if necessary. If you do verify the information in other sources, then you can be reasonably confident that the information is acceptable. You cannot, however, assume that it is correct—only that it is one standard or acceptable approach or interpretation. For instance, in researching global warming, you might encounter several theories of its cause and many projections of its long-range effects. Eventually, you will recognize the more standard theories and the more widely accepted projections.
6. **Look for a consensus of opinion.** As you read differing approaches to or interpretations of a topic, sometimes it is difficult to decide what source(s) to accept. When you encounter differing opinions or approaches, the first thing to do is locate additional sources; in other words, do more reading. Eventually, you will discover the consensus.
7. **Evaluate statistics carefully.** Many students regard statistical figures as correct and indisputable and assume that no interpretation or evaluation of statistics is required. Actually, statistics must be carefully evaluated, along with the conclusions the authors draw from them. Suppose you read a statement that “at present, a recent survey indicated that 52 percent of single-parent household heads lack a high school diploma, compared to 22 percent in 1965.” To evaluate this statistic, you might ask questions such as, “What year is the ‘present’? How were these data obtained? How many single-parent households were surveyed? How were they surveyed? What was the survey response rate? How is a high school diploma defined? Does it include high school equivalency diplomas? How were the 1965 data obtained?” You can see that the

answers to these questions can influence how the statistics should be interpreted. In general, ask questions about

- sample size (the size of the group studied).
- sample composition (who was included).
- method of obtaining the data.
- definition of terms.

Approach statistics as critically, then, as you would any other type of information.

8. **Consider whether the article is fact or opinion.** Question the author's purpose, the use of generalizations, any basic assumptions, and the type of evidence presented. For a review of these criteria, refer to the section in Chapter 4 in your text titled "Distinguish Between Fact and Opinion."

EXERCISE 11

What questions would you ask when evaluating each of the following sources?

1. An article in *Newsweek* reporting a dramatic increase in domestic violence in the United States.

2. An article written by the president of Chrysler Corporation describing effective and ineffective business management strategies.

3. An essay in a right-to-life pamphlet reporting a high incidence of injury and maternal death resulting from abortion. Other articles, using other sources, report a much lower incidence.

4. An article, published in an advertising trade journal, titled "Teenage Drinking: Does Advertising Make a Difference?"

5. An article in *TV Guide* titled "Should TV Stop Projecting Election Winners?"

■ Synthesizing and Comparing Sources

The first step in comparing several works or different sections within the same work is to read, annotate, and analyze each text. Once you have

studied each carefully, you are ready to discover the similarities and differences among them. Compare the works on the basis of such factors as

- overall theme or position.
- types and quality of supporting evidence.
- degree of bias shown in each work.
- authority of each author.
- author's purpose.
- points of agreement and disagreement.
- how each work approached the subject.
- effectiveness of each work in persuading or educating you.
- types of arguments used.
- style.
- intended audience.

Make notes as you study each work, both in the margins of the works themselves and on separate pieces of paper. Then study your annotations and notes, looking for similarities and differences. Try to put into your own words what you discover. When you write about the two works, rather than just thinking about them, it forces you to clarify your ideas.

Ask questions such as these:

- On what do the sources agree?
- On what do the sources disagree?
- How do they differ?
- Are the viewpoints toward the subject similar or different?
- Does each source provide supporting evidence for major points?

To initiate a discussion on the issue of computer privacy, a business professor distributed two excerpts from articles on the topic. In preparation for the discussion, the instructor asked the class to read both accounts and be prepared to discuss them in class. One student read and annotated each selection as shown below.

Account 1

The advent of e-commerce is, however inadvertently, endangering privacy. Companies have long boasted about the efficiency, convenience and personalized service that distinguish commerce online. But that promise hinges on the merchants' intimate knowledge of their customers' tastes and behavior. For starters, they know who their customers are, where they live and their credit card numbers. And the more someone buys, the more the seller finds out about him: likes bourbon and trash novels; sends someone not his wife flowers every Wednesday.

types of
information
collected

Any Web site operator can reconstruct a visitor's every move on his site: what pages he viewed, what information he entered and the Internet service

does not tell us what to do about the problem

he uses. Privacy advocates warn that most online companies won't fight subpoenas seeking access to those logs. Security guru Richard Smith, founder of Phar Lap Software, likens Web sites to VCRs "constantly recording when you come in, who you talked to and maybe what you talked about."

—Sandberg, "Losing Your Good Name Online," *Newsweek*, September 20, 1999, p. 57

Account 2

exchange of personal information marketing databases

We live in an information age, and data is one of the currencies of our time. Businesses and government agencies spend billions of dollars every year to collect and exchange information about you and me. More than 15,000 specialized marketing databases contain 2 billion consumer names, along with a surprising amount of personal information. The typical American consumer is on 25 marketing lists. Many of these lists are organized by characteristics like age, income, religion, political affiliation, and even sexual preference—and they're bought and sold every day.

organization

businesses and agencies that collect information

Marketing databases are only the tip of the iceberg. Credit and banking information, tax records, health data, insurance records, political contributions, voter registration, credit card purchases, warranty registrations, magazine and newsletter subscriptions, phone calls, passport registration, airline reservations, automobile registrations, arrests, Internet explorations—they're all recorded in computers, and we have little or no control over what happens to most of these records once they're collected.

—Beekman, *Computer Confluence: Exploring Tomorrow's Technology*, p. 204

Then the student made notes and wrote the following paragraph.

Paragraph

Sandberg discusses the types of information that can be collected from e-commerce and focuses on personal data collected by online merchants and from Web sites. Beekman states that information that is collected becomes part of a database and explains that other businesses and agencies collect information, as well. Both emphasize that privacy may be endangered.

EXERCISE 12

Assume you are taking a business retailing course. Your instructor has asked you to read each of the following brief descriptions of Jeff Bezos, the founder of Amazon.com, an online bookstore. Using information from both articles, write a paragraph summarizing Bezos' personality and leadership style.

Statement 1

MEDIA PROFILES: JEFF BEZOS

Amazon.com's Jeff Bezos is often portrayed in press coverage as charismatic, ambitious and a shrewd businessman. He has also been characterized as a fun-

loving guy with a great sense of humor. He has been heralded as an Internet success story, even in the wake of the dot-com bust. In interviews he is known to be light-hearted, laughing and joking with reporters. Bezos, 37, is also well known for participating in high-profile charitable work. Recently he played in a tennis tournament with Bill Gates, Andre Agassi and Pete Sampras to benefit breast care and cancer research, despite the fact that he reportedly didn't own a pair of tennis shoes a week before the tournament. Bezos combined his sense of humor with his charitable intentions again when he starred in a goofy Taco Bell commercial for "the hot new handheld," the Taco Bell chicken quesadilla. Bezos' proceeds went to the Special Olympics foundation, with a deal for Taco Bell to match this donation. On Sept. 11, Bezos had Amazon.com change gears, canceling the planned promotion of a major partnership with Target Stores. Amazon.com's homepage became a donation site for the Red Cross. At 5:15 p.m. (PDT) on Sept. 11, Amazon.com launched the donation box, raising more than \$100,000 in the first four hours. Much has been made of his fall from the heights of being named Time's "Man of the Year" in 1999, yet he is still widely viewed as one of the few leaders left in the e-commerce arena. Although Bezos ranked fourth overall in the CEO MediaShare, he topped the list in Brand Power this year, signaling his strengthening ties to the company he built.

—"Media Profiles: Jeff Bezos," *Adweek Magazine's Technology Marketing* (December 2001), p. 22

Statement 2

IN E-BIZ, MOST ARE BEZOS WANNABES

Is he a humble technology visionary or the P. T. Barnum of e-business? Amazon.com founder and CEO Jeff Bezos is probably some of both. He pioneered personalization in business-to-consumer e-commerce as well as the growth-at-all-costs business strategy. Both have been widely copied. But the individual is not so easy to clone. Bezos is one of those rare individuals who has a grasp of technology, business, finance (some would debate that) and human nature and, above all, has the willingness to act on his vision and the ability to sell it.

New ideas come easily to him. Amazon's personalization technology is great but tends to put customers in a box of past purchases. What about the random walk through a bookstore that we all sometimes take to challenge ourselves with new subjects and ideas? He's thinking of that, too. Although not yet implemented, in his recent PC Expo keynote in New York he discussed a "serendipity knob" that, when pressed, would give you a list of books that would be different from—perhaps the opposite of—what would otherwise be predicted from your earlier book buys. One imagines a person who bought a biography of Vince Lombardi and an NFL pictorial volume being presented

with tomes chronicling Italian baroque art and contemporary feminism. Why not?

So the serendipity knob is not far off, from a man who says we're still in "the Kitty Hawk era of personalization." However, Bezos does caution that although these things are not that difficult to accomplish on a small scale, when you want to do them for millions of customers—any of whom might be logging on at the same time—the task becomes much harder.

The other side of the Bezos coin is his ability to sell his vision to the investment community. This skill was tested recently when a bond analyst wrote an emperor's-new-clothes report on the company's bonds that sent its stock down 19 percent in one day. Bezos and company responded with vehemence, but an objective analysis still places the bonds in the junk category. The real question is whether Amazon will run out of cash before it is profitable, and, here, Bezos says not to worry.

Bezos may be replaced by a bean counter at some point, but it's hard to imagine any other entrepreneur who has accomplished so much, so fast in a completely new field. In five short years at the helm of Amazon, Bezos has earned his place in the pantheon of business greats.

—Gibson, "In E-biz, Most Are Bezos Wannabes," *e-Week* (July 10, 2000), p. 62

Self-Test Summary

1. What is the first critical step in doing successful research?

The first step is to define and focus your topic.

2. What are the other steps necessary in developing a systematic approach to reading research sources?

Devising a search strategy; previewing sources, defining the purpose for reading.

3. What are two alternative reading strategies for getting the most out of research materials?

Skimming is a rapid reading technique that enables you to quickly obtain main ideas only; scanning is a process of searching for a specific piece of information.

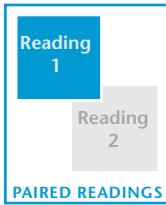
4. What is a "collateral" reading assignment?

"Collateral" assignments are those drawn from a variety of sources that present new topics not covered in your text, updated information, alternative points of view, applications or related issues, and/or realistic examples, case studies or personal experiences.

5. What must you do to compare and synthesize multiple sources?

Focus on similarities and differences between them.

SPEECH COMMUNICATION



Reading 1

Plagiarism

Joseph A. DeVito

Prereading Questions

1. What is plagiarism?
2. What forms of academic dishonesty have you observed or heard about?

What Is Plagiarism?

- 1 The word *plagiarism* refers to the process of passing off the work (ideas, words, illustrations) of others as your own. Understand that plagiarism is not the act of using another's ideas—we all do that. It is using another's ideas without acknowledging that they are the ideas of this other person; it is passing off the ideas as if they were yours.
- 2 Plagiarism exists on a continuum, ranging from representing as your own an entire term paper or speech written by someone else to using a quotation or research finding without citing the author. Plagiarism also can include getting help from a friend without acknowledging this assistance.
- 3 In some cultures—especially collectivist cultures (cultures that emphasize the group and mutual cooperation, such as Korea, Japan, and China)—teamwork is strongly encouraged. Students are encouraged to help other students with their work. In the United States and in many other individualist cultures (cultures that emphasize individuality and competitiveness), teamwork without acknowledgment is considered plagiarism.
- 4 In U.S. colleges and universities, plagiarism is a serious violation of the rules of academic honesty and can bring penalties, sometimes even expulsion. And it's interesting to note that instructors are mobilizing and are educating themselves in techniques for detecting plagiarism. Further, as with all crimes, ignorance of the law is not an acceptable defense against charges of plagiarism. This last point is especially important, because many people plagiarize through a lack of information as to what does and what does not constitute plagiarism.

Why Is Plagiarism Unacceptable?

- 5 Here are just a few reasons why plagiarism is wrong.
 - *Plagiarism is a violation of another's intellectual property rights. Much as it would be unfair to take another person's watch without permission, it's unfair to take another person's ideas without acknowledging that you did it.*

- *You're in college to develop your own ideas and your own ways of expressing them; plagiarism defeats this fundamental purpose.*
- *Evaluations (everything from grades in school to promotions in the workplace) assume that what you present as your work is in fact your work.*

How Can a Person Avoid Plagiarism?

6 A few guidelines will help you avoid plagiarism.

7 Let's start with the easy part. You do not have to, and should not, cite sources for common knowledge—information that is readily available in numerous sources and is not likely to be disputed. For example, the population of Thailand, the amendments to the U.S. Constitution, the actions of the United Nations, or the way the heart pumps blood all are widely available knowledge, and you would not cite the almanac or the political science text from which you got this information. On the other hand, if you were talking about the attitudes of people from Thailand or the reasons the constitutional amendments were adopted, then you would need to cite your sources, because this information is not common knowledge and may well be disputed.

8 For information that is not common knowledge, you need to acknowledge your source. Three simple rules will help you avoid even the suggestion of plagiarism:

1. *Acknowledge the source of any ideas you present that are not your own.* If you learned of an idea in your history course, then cite the history instructor or the textbook. If you read an idea in an article, then cite the article.
2. *Acknowledge the words of another.* It's obvious what to do when you're quoting another person exactly; then of course, you need to cite the person you're quoting. You also should cite the person even when you paraphrase his or her words, because you are still using the other person's ideas. When paraphrases need to be credited may not always be clear, so some of the plagiarism websites established by different universities include exercises and extended examples; see, for example, Indiana University's site at www.indiana.edu/~uts/wts/plagiarism.html or Purdue University's at <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/handouts/print/research/r-plagiar.html>. The same is true when you use the organizational structure of another person; just say, for example, "I'm following the line of reasoning proposed by James McCroskey in his discussion of apprehension."
3. *Acknowledge help from other.* If your roommate gave you examples or ideas or helped you style your speech, acknowledge the help. For example, notice how some of the award-winning speeches that are reprinted as models in this book give credit to the speakers' speech coaches.

—Devito, *The Essential Elements of Public Speaking*, Second Edition

Writing About the Reading

CHECKING YOUR VOCABULARY

1. For each of the words listed below, use context; prefixes, roots, and suffixes (see Chapter 3 in your text); and/or a dictionary to write a brief definition or synonym of the word as it is used in the reading.
 - a. acknowledging (para. 1) _____
 - b. continuum (para. 2) _____
 - c. violation (para. 4) _____
 - d. expulsion (para. 4) _____
 - e. mobilizing (para. 4) _____
 - f. cite (para. 7) _____
 - g. disputed (para. 7) _____
 - h. paraphrase (para. 8) _____
2. Underline new, specialized terms introduced in the reading (see Chapter 3 in your text).
3. Draw a word map of one of the words in the reading.

CHECKING YOUR COMPREHENSION

1. What is the difference between collectivist cultures and individualist cultures?
2. What reasons does the author give for why plagiarism is wrong?
3. List three guidelines for avoiding plagiarism.
4. How do U.S. colleges and universities treat plagiarism?
5. What kind of information is considered “common knowledge” and does not have to be cited?

THINKING CRITICALLY

1. Explain why students from another culture might have difficulty understanding the concept of plagiarism in the United States.
2. Why is it important to understand what constitutes plagiarism?
3. According to the reading, instructors are educating themselves in techniques for detecting plagiarism. How would you go about trying to detect plagiarism?
4. Did your knowledge of what constitutes plagiarism change after reading this article? In what ways?
5. Do you think plagiarism should be treated as a crime? Why or why not?

LEARNING/STUDY STRATEGY

Prepare a study sheet. Include a definition of plagiarism, reasons why it is wrong, and tips for avoiding plagiarism.

MEDIA/MASS COMMUNICATION



Reading 2

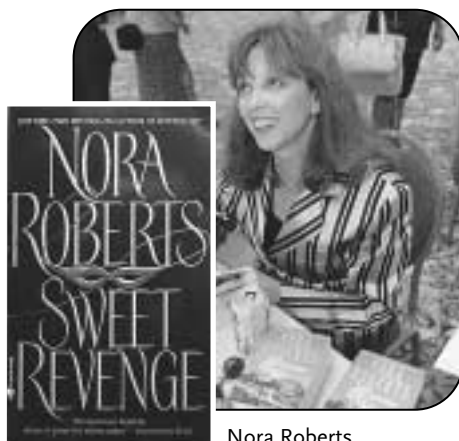
Plagiarism

John Vivian

Prereading Questions

1. In what entertainment/media areas is it important to give credit to the writer or artist?
2. How do authors and journalists give credit to their sources?

- 1 Perhaps the most fiercely loyal media fans are those who read romance novels and swear by a favorite author. In an Internet chatroom in 1997, romance writer Janet Dailey found herself boxed into an admission that she had plagiarized from rival writer Nora Roberts. There is no scorn like that of creative people for those who steal their work, and Roberts was "very, very upset." HarperCollins recalled *Notorious*, Dailey's book that contained the plagiarism, and Robert's fans, many of them long-time Dailey detractors, began a hunt for other purloined passages.
- 2 What is **plagiarism**? Generally, it's considered passing off someone else's creative work as your own, without permission. It's still plagiarism if it's changed a bit, as was Dailey's loose paraphrasing.
- 3 The fact that Dailey's 93 books over 20 years had sold an average of more than 2 million each made the scandal all the juicier. In the end, Roberts proposed a financial settlement, and the proceeds went to promote literacy.
- 4 Everyone agrees that plagiarism, a form of thievery, is unethical, but the issue is not simple. The fact is that in many media, people draw heavily on other people's ideas and work. Think about sitcom story lines that mimic each other or the bandwagon of movies that follow an unexpected hit with an oddball theme that suddenly becomes mainstream. Journalists, most of whom consider themselves especially pristine compared to their media brethren, have standard practices that encourage a lot of "borrowing."



Nora Roberts



Janet Dailey

Romance Plagiarism Cynics think all romance novels are the same, but aficionados know the difference. It shook Janet Dailey fans in 1997 to learn that she had loosely paraphrased a passage from rival Nora Roberts. The publisher withdrew Dailey's book with the plagiarized passages, and the question was whether Dailey, whose 93 titles had sold more than 200 million copies, would ever recover from the tarnish. You decide how serious the transgression:

“Talk to me.”

“It was just a dream as you said.”
 “You’re hurting.” He touched her cheek. This time she didn’t jerk away, only closed her eyes. “You talk, I’ll listen.”
 “I don’t need anyone.”
 “I’m not going away until you talk to me.”

—From *Sweet Revenge* (1989)
 by Nora Roberts

“Talk to me, Eden.”

“It was only a dream, just as you said.”
 His fingers brushed her cheek ...
 She closed her eyes at the contact.
 “You need to talk about it. I’ll listen.”
 “I don’t need anyone,” she insisted stiffly.
 “I’m not leaving until you tell me about it.”

—From *Notorious* (1996)
 by Janet Dailey

- 5 Among factors that make journalists uncomfortable when pressed hard on plagiarist questions are:
- Institutionalized exchanging of stories.
 - The role of public relations in generating news stories.
 - Monitoring the competition.
 - Subliminal memory and innocent recall.

Swapping Stories

- 6 Some creative work, like scholarship, requires that information and ideas be attributed to their sources. Journalists are not so strict, as shown by story swapping through the Associated Press. The AP picks up stories from its members and distributes them to other members, generally without any reference to the source. Some publications and broadcasters do not even acknowledge AP as the intermediary.

- 7 Conditioned by 150 years of the AP's being a journalistic model and under pressure to gather information quickly, many journalists have a high tolerance for "borrowing." When the *Chicago Tribune* was apologizing for a story cribbed from the *Jerusalem Post*, for example, one of the writer's colleagues defended the story: "Everybody rewrites the *Jerusalem Post*. That's how foreign correspondents work."
- 8 Incredible as it seems, journalistic tolerance for plagiarism once even allowed radio stations to pilfer the local newspaper for newscasts. Sometimes you could hear the announcer turning the pages. A sad joke that acknowledged this practice was that some stations brought their news at 50 cents a copy, which was cheaper than hiring reporters to cover the community. So pervasive was the journalistic tolerance for "borrowing" that few newspapers protested even mildly their stories were pirated.

News Releases

- 9 In many newsrooms the plagiarism question is clouded further by the practice of using news releases from public relations people word for word without citing the source. Even in newsrooms that rewrite releases to avoid the embarrassment of running a story that is exactly the same as the competition's, it is standard practice not to cite the source. Public relations people, who are paid for writing favorable stories on their clients, have no objections to being plagiarized, and news organizations find it an easy, inexpensive way to fill space. Despite the mutual convenience, the arrangement raises serious questions of ethics to which many in the media have not responded. The practice leaves the false impression that stories originating with news releases actually originated with the news organization. More serious is that the uncredited stories are a disservice to democracy. Marie Dunn White, in the *Journal of Mass Media Ethics*, wrote, "In order for the reader to evaluate the information he or she is receiving correctly and completely, he or she must know which information came from a press release and, therefore, may be biased."

Monitoring the Competition

- 10 Competitive pressure also contributes to fuzziness on the plagiarism issue. To avoid being skunked on stories, reporters monitor each other closely to pick up tips and ideas. Generally, reporters are not particular about where they pick up information as long as they are confident that it is accurate. For background, reporters tap newsroom libraries, databases, journals, books and other sources, and in the interest of not cluttering their stories, they do not use footnotes.

Subliminal Memory

- 11 Covering breaking events has its own pressure that puts journalists at special risk. Almost every journalist who writes under the pressure of a deadline has had the experience of writing a story and later discovering that phrases that came easily at the keyboard were actually somebody else's. In their voracious pursuit of information,

reporters store phrases and perhaps whole passages subliminally in their memories. This happened to a drama critic at the St. Paul, Minnesota, *Pioneer Press*, who was horrified when a reader pointed out the similarity between his review of a play and an earlier review of the same play in the *New York Times*. Once aware of what he had done unwittingly, the critic offered his resignation. His editors instead moved him to the copy desk.

- 12 The muddiness on the issue of journalistic plagiarism is encapsulated in the fact that the Society of Professional Journalists' ethics code makes a flat statement that plagiarism is "dishonest and unacceptable" but then sidesteps the knotty part of the issue by declining to define *plagiarism*.

Writing About the Reading

CHECKING YOUR VOCABULARY

1. For each of the words listed below, use context; prefixes, roots, and suffixes (see Chapter 3 in your text); and/or a dictionary to write a brief definition or synonym of the word as it is used in the reading.
 - a. detractors (para. 1) _____
 - b. purloined (para.1) _____
 - c. unethical (para. 4) _____
 - d. pristine (para. 4) _____
 - e. intermediary (para. 6) _____
 - f. pilfer (para. 8) _____
 - g. pervasive (para. 7) _____
 - h. voracious (para. 11) _____
 - i. encapsulated (para. 12) _____
2. Underline new, specialized terms introduced in the reading (see Chapter 3 in your text).
3. Draw a word map of one of the words in the reading.

CHECKING YOUR COMPREHENSION

1. What was the issue between Janet Dailey and Nora Roberts?
2. How was the plagiarism case involving the romance novelists resolved?
3. How does the Associated Press "swap" news stories?

4. Give two reasons why news releases from public relations people present ethical questions.
5. Why did the drama critic at the *Pioneer Press* offer to resign?

THINKING CRITICALLY

1. Do you think the Roberts/Dailey plagiarism case was resolved appropriately? What other resolution would you suggest for this situation?
2. Why do you think journalists consider themselves “pristine” compared to their counterparts in other media?
3. Should plagiarism in the entertainment industry (e.g., movies and television sitcoms) be prosecuted? Why or why not?
4. Do you think plagiarism can be unintentional? Why or why not?
5. Why do you think the Society of Professional Journalists has declined to define *plagiarism* in its ethics code?

LEARNING/STUDY STRATEGY

Write a list of situations you have heard about in which plagiarism has occurred.

Thinking About the Paired Readings

INTEGRATING IDEAS

1. Compare the author’s purpose in each reading.
2. How do the readings differ?
3. What information would you use from each reading to make a speech to a group of high school students explaining plagiarism?

GENERATING NEW IDEAS

1. What is your school’s policy on plagiarism? Write an essay describing whether you agree with the rules and penalties and explaining why. Detail any changes you would make in school policy.
2. Consider how plagiarism is interpreted in other areas besides the written word. For example, it has become common practice for singers to “sample” other people’s songs in their music. Is this plagiarism? What about artists who “borrow” styles or techniques in their paintings? Write an essay exploring the topic of plagiarism outside the written word.

ADDITIONAL PRACTICE

Multimedia Activities

1. Plagiarism

<http://www.indiana.edu/~wts/pamphlets/plagiarism.shtml>

This site from Indiana University offers a clear treatment of plagiarism, explaining why it is wrong and how to avoid it, using numerous examples. Look at some articles in scholarly journals. Keep track of how many times the authors give credit to another. Does the amount surprise you? Why or why not?

2. Guide to Library Research

<http://www.lib.duke.edu/libguide/home.htm>

A comprehensive online tutorial from Duke University covering “Seven Steps of the Research Process.” Familiarize yourself with the contents of this tutorial, and bookmark it for future reference. Ask your librarian for a quick overview of your library’s resources.

MyReadingLab

If your instructor has asked you to use Reading Road Trip, be sure to visit the Indianapolis Speedway module for multimedia tutorials, exercises, and tests on reading rate.