

STATISTICS IN THE REAL WORLD: CITING SOURCES¹
Jo Hardin Fall 2018

Instructions: Listed below are 10 examples in which the left-hand column provides text from an original source and the right-hand column features a sentence that might appear in a research paper along with the corresponding bibliographic citation from the paper's References list. Work with several teammates to examine each example, and determine whether or not the information provided in the right-hand column represents proper citation of the source material.

1.

MATERIAL FROM THE ORIGINAL SOURCE	STUDENT "EXAMPLE" SENTENCE & REFERENCE
<p>Police officers encounter work-related stressors unknown to most other professionals. Street-level police work often places the officer in imminent risk of physical injury or death. Even when their own personal safety is not at risk, officers are often witness to others who have been brutalized or killed, and are suffering. Coupled with this often-unpredictable work environment, many officers also experience stress as a result of their exposure to the bureaucratic structure of the police department itself. Officers experience both acute and chronic stressors that, over time, can affect job performance, personal relationships, and long-term psychological adjustment and physical health.</p> <p>[Block quote from Hadfield, K. (2005). Stress. In L. Sullivan & M. Rosen (Eds.), <i>Encyclopedia of law enforcement</i>. (Vol. 1, pp. 443-445). Thousand Oaks: Sage Reference. Quote appears on pp. 443-444. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Gale Virtual Reference Library.]</p>	<p>Policing is a very stressful job.</p> <p>Referenece: [None]</p>

Was the source cited correctly in the right-hand column? Please explain briefly.

¹taken entirely from the Kean University Library <http://libguides.kean.edu/handouts> "Citing Sources and Avoiding Plagiarism Scenarios." https://www.kean.edu/~library/handouts/Citing_Sources_Avoiding_Plagiarism_Scenarios.pdf Worksheet originally prepared by Linda Cifelli and Caroline Geck, Kean University Library. Updated by Linda Cifelli, June 9, 2014.

2.

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<p>To summarize the discussion thus far, the effect of vicarious victimization on attitudes toward capital punishment has never been systematically studied. While the public seems to assume that capital punishment is in the interests of family members and friends of homicide victims and the media portray vicarious victims as particularly supportive of the death penalty, sociological theories challenge this assumption. Black's theory of law predicts that social and cultural distance lead to greater use of the law. Hence, to the extent that most homicides occur between intimates and those of the same race, and insofar as the family members and close friends of homicide victims share with the offender these same social and racial relationships, the theory suggests an inverse effect of vicarious homicide victimization on capital punishment.</p> <p>[Block quote from Borg, M. J. (1998). Vicarious homicide victimization and support for capital punishment: A test of Black's theory of law. <i>Criminology</i>, 36(1), 537-567. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals. Quote appears on pp. 541-542.]</p>	<p>There are many theories about the relationship between vicarious homicide victimization and capital punishment views. One popular theory, for example, claims that families and acquaintances of victims advocate the death penalty, while Black's theory of law, a sociological theory, claims an inverse correlation between vicarious victimization and attitudes toward the death penalty. Yet, despite the existence of many theories, the effect of vicarious victimization on attitudes toward capital punishment has never been systematically studied (Borg, 1998, p. 541-542).</p> <p>Referenece: Borg, M. J. (1998). Vicarious homicide victimization and support for capital punishment: A test of Black's theory of law. <i>Criminology</i>, 36(1), 537-567. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals.</p>

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<p>In terms of racial or homophobic harassment reported to the police, it is possible to say that the majority of perpetrators are persons who are recognized, perhaps known, by the victims as locals or neighbours?.The localized nature of this harassment means that many perpetrators are not absolute strangers to the victims but nor are they known to the victim in any capacity other than neighbour or local. Victims often know who these perpetrators are on the basis of where the incident took place (the difference between knowing who someone is and actually knowing someone). This way of knowing highlights the uncertainty and ambiguity of the victim-perpetrator relationship in racial and homophobic harassment (and perhaps in other forms of hate crimes as well). It points to the possibility that a perpetrator may be someone who is familiar to the victim yet simultaneously a virtual stranger.</p> <p>[Block quote from Mason, G. (2005). Hate crime and the image of the stranger. <i>British Journal of Criminology</i>, 45(6), 837-859. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals. Quote appears on p. 856.]</p>	<p>Perpetrators of harassment based upon race or sexuality are often not complete strangers to their victims, who may not personally know the perpetrator but may recognize or be aware of the perpetrator as someone who resides in or frequents the same neighborhood.</p> <p>Referenece: [None]</p>

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4.

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<p>We interpret the absence of significant differences in sentences for hate and non-hate crimes in our study as an indication of both a general concern for proportionality in sentencing and a tendency to focus on the immediate harm caused by an offense, rather than on more long-term and/or widespread harm (e.g., the terrorizing effects of hate crimes on other members of the target community). In the language of sentencing, proportionality generally means that punishment is meted out in proportion to the harm caused by an offense. Proportionality is also taken as an indicator of equality-people who are convicted of similar offenses will receive similar treatment by the courts. It is possible that many of our respondents equated the hate crime with the non-hate crime for one of two reasons. First, they may have focused on the immediate harm caused by the crimes, which was identical in both scenarios. Second, they may not have interpreted the hate crime scenario as a hate crime, since hate crimes that receive wide publicity (thereby becoming the standard by which people define hate crimes) are generally those that fit the racial animus model and that cause physical harm to the victim (e.g., the murders of James Byrd and Matthew Shepard).</p> <p>[Block quote from Steen, S., & Cohen, M. A. (2004). Assessing the public's demand for hate crime penalties. <i>Justice Quarterly: JQ</i>, 21(1), 91-124. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals. Quote appears on p. 118.]</p>	<p>Survey results indicated that study participants did not favor more severe punishment for hate crimes than for other kinds of crime. Such responses may demonstrate the public's regard for sentencing that corresponds with the degree of harm caused at the moment the offense was committed. Participants did not appear to consider sentencing based on harm that might extend beyond the current time frame or circumstances of the offense, such as through fear or anxiety experienced by people who identify with a hate crime victim (Steen & Cohen, 2004, p. 118).</p> <p>Refernece: Steen, S., & Cohen, M. A. (2004). Assessing the public's demand for hate crime penalties. <i>Justice Quarterly: JQ</i>, 21(1), 91-124. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals.</p>

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<p>The present study finds that a central factor in understanding existing racial disparity in death sentences may be the severity with which those who kill white females are treated relative to other gender-race victim combinations. Even after controlling for several legally relevant factors, analyses revealed that homicides with white female victims were more likely to result in a death sentence than others. In fact, homicides with white female victims are the only statistically distinct victim dyad. Analyses indicate that the severity of responses to white female victim homicides may partially account for findings of general white and general female victim disparity.</p> <p>[Block quote from Holcomb, J. E., Williams, M. R., & Demuth, S. (2004). White female victims and death penalty disparity research. <i>Justice Quarterly: JQ</i>, 21(4), 877-902. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals. Quote appears on p. 898.]</p>	<p>According to Holcomb, Williams, and Demuth (2004), analysis of capital punishment data in terms of gender and race shows that capital punishment sentences were more probable when the victim of a homicide was a white woman.</p> <p>Referenece: Holcomb, J. E., Williams, M. R., & Demuth, S. (2004). White female victims and death penalty disparity research. <i>Justice Quarterly: JQ</i>, 21(4), 877-902. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals.</p>

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<p>Undoubtedly, continued study is required to understand the different outcomes girls with CD will face in adulthood as well as how these outcomes may be prevented. However, because so many antisocial women do not clearly exhibit signs of CD in adolescence, we may also need to develop more gender-specific theories to account for the emergence of criminal behavior. As a starting point, we began by exploring which existing constellations of CD symptoms were most predictive of later ASPD in women. Analysis of specific patterns of behavior did imply that some CD behaviors could be relatively more informative in the prediction of adult outcomes, at least in this extreme spectrum of the population. The severe CD type, although quite small in number, reported a unique history that corresponded most closely to what has been described in men as the life-course persistent pathway of antisocial behavior (Moffitt, 1993). The group represented the clearest analogy to the subset of men who engage in a developmentally continuous and escalating pattern of antisocial behavior across the life span. However, this group was only about 9% of our sample of incarcerated, maximum-security prison inmates and cannot account for the vast majority of women who have been judged antisocial by current legal standards.</p> <p>[Block quote from Burnette, M. L., & Newman, D. L. (2005). The natural history of conduct disorder symptoms in female inmates: On the predictive utility of the syndrome in severely antisocial women. <i>American Journal of Orthopsychiatry</i>, 75(3), 421-430. Retrieved on May 15, 2010 from PsycArticles. Quote appears on p. 428.]</p> <p>[Work cited in the paragraph refers to Moffitt, T. E. (1993). Adolescence-limited and life-course persistent antisocial behavior: A developmental taxonomy. <i>Psychological Review</i>, 100, 674-701.]</p>	<p>According to Burnette and Newman (2005), the large number of incarcerated women deemed antisocial under the law cannot be explained by a persistent pattern of antisocial behaviors over the life span, as observed and predicted in male populations, or by the early presence of conduct disorders.</p> <p>Referenece: Burnette, M. L., & Newman, D. L. (2005). The natural history of conduct disorder symptoms in female inmates: On the predictive utility of the syndrome in severely antisocial women. <i>American Journal of Orthopsychiatry</i>, 75(3), 421-430. Retrieved on May 15, 2010 from PsycArticles.</p>

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<p>Our findings suggest that a moral panic (as defined by consensus, concern, hostility, volatility, and disproportionality) about hate crimes existed in America during 1998 and 1999. The measure of concern was manifested in numerous concrete ways. Public opinion poll results illustrated the presence of concern in the public regarding hate crimes in the late 1990s. Increased amounts of print media and activist group attention, proposed federal legislation, and both public and private sector attention were also an indication of the presence of social concern about hate crimes?.Our finding that letters to the editor exhibited high hostility levels indicated that the general public held a high level of hostility towards hate crime offenders. We also found that the peak in hostility coincided with the peak in media attention, indicating that public hostility increased in conjunction with media attention.</p> <p>Overall, media attention given to the issue of hate crimes was quite volatile from 1997 to 2000. The data illustrated that the nature of the hate crime panic was explosive and had a measurable fever pitch. The data also suggested that the significant fluctuations in the amount of attention were independent of the actual threat of hate crimes. There was a dramatic increase in media attention given to hate crimes in 1998, another in 1999, then a steep decline by 2000. At the same time, the occurrence of hate crime offenses either decreased or increased only moderately. This, of course, suggests a high degree of disproportionality.</p> <p>[Block quote from Colomb, W., & Damphousse, K. (2004). Examination of newspaper coverage of hate crimes: A moral panic perspective. <i>American Journal of Criminal Justice</i>, 28(2), 147-163. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals. Quote appears on p. 160.]</p>	<p>While the extent of hate crime media coverage has risen and fallen over time, the considerable shifts in the amount of attention were independent of the actual threat of hate crimes (Colomb & Damphousse, 2004, p. 160). ly presence of conduct disorders.</p> <p>Referenece: Colomb, W., & Damphousse, K. (2004). Examination of newspaper coverage of hate crimes: A moral panic perspective. <i>American Journal of Criminal Justice</i>, 28(2), 147-163. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Criminal Justice Periodicals.</p>

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<p>The first gap pertains to the effectiveness of juvenile drug court, per se. Although the effectiveness of juvenile drug courts has received little empirical attention, several factors suggest that such courts might be more effective than traditional justice services at reducing adolescent substance use. First, the related literature on adult drug courts (Belenko, 2001) suggests that close collaboration of criminal justice professionals and alcohol and drug treatment providers under a drug court rubric increases retention in treatment, provides closer and more comprehensive supervision, reduces substance use, and produces short-term cost savings.</p> <p>[Block quote from Henggeler, S. W., Halliday-Boykins, C. A., Cunningham, P. B., Randall, J., Shapiro, S. B., & Chapman, J. E. (2006). Juvenile drug court: Enhancing outcomes by integrating evidence-based treatments. <i>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</i>, 74(1), 42-54. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from PsycArticles. Quote appears on p. 42.]</p> <p>[Work cited in the paragraph refers to Belenko, S. (2001). Research on drug courts: A critical review 2001 update. New York: The National Center on Addiction and Substance Abuse, Columbia University.]</p>	<p>Belenko (2001), as cited in Henggeler et. al. (2006, p. 42), indicates that crossdisciplinary collaborations between criminal justice and substance abuse professionals within structured court and closely supervised environments help decrease drug and alcohol abuse.</p> <p>Referenece: Henggeler, S. W., Halliday-Boykins, C. A., Cunningham, P. B., Randall, J., Shapiro, S. B., & Chapman, J. E. (2006). Juvenile drug court: Enhancing outcomes by integrating evidence-based treatments. <i>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</i>, 74(1), 42-54. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from PsycArticles.</p>

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<p>Entering the labor force and establishing a stable work history are central tasks in young adulthood and critical to individual and family well-being. Failure in this transition often has long-term negative economic and psychosocial consequences (Ezzy 1993; Furnham 1994). In criminology, interest in the effects of crime on subsequent early adult work outcomes has increased only recently (Bushway 1998). Influential contemporary theories posit that those with an early onset of delinquent behavior tend to show a more chronic and persistent pattern of crime and have more detrimental adult outcomes than those with onset in mid to late adolescence (e.g., Moffitt 1993; Patterson and Yoerger 1993), with the latter group showing offending limited to adolescence with few adverse long-term consequences (Moffitt 1993).</p> <p>[Block quote from Wiesner, M., Kim, H. K., & Capaldi, D. M. (2010). History of juvenile arrests and vocational career outcomes for at-risk young men. <i>Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency</i>, 47(1), 91-117. Retrieved on February 14, 2013 from Sage Journals Online. Quote appears on p. 92.]</p> <p>[Works cited in the paragraph refer to: Moffitt, T. E. (1993). Adolescence-limited and life-course-persistent antisocial behavior: A developmental taxonomy. <i>Psychological Review</i>, 100, 674-701; Patterson, G. R., & Yoerger, K. (1993). Developmental models for delinquent behavior. In S. Hodgins (Ed.), <i>Mental Disorder and Crime</i> (140-72). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.]</p>	<p>Various studies have shown that the long-term effect of juvenile delinquency depends on the juvenile's age when the delinquent behavior begins. Influential contemporary theories posit that those with an early onset of delinquent behavior tend to show a more chronic and persistent pattern of crime and have more detrimental adult outcomes than those with onset in mid to late adolescence (e.g., Moffitt 1993; Patterson and Yoerger 1993), with the latter group showing offending limited to adolescence with few adverse long-term consequences (Moffitt 1993).</p> <p>Referenece: Moffitt, T. E. (1993). Adolescence-limited and life-course-persistent antisocial behavior: A developmental taxonomy. <i>Psychological Review</i>, 100, 674-701.</p> <p>Patterson, G. R., & Yoerger, K. (1993). Developmental models for delinquent behavior. In S. Hodgins (Ed.), <i>Mental Disorder and Crime</i> (140-72). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.</p> <p>Wiesner, M., Kim, H. K., & Capaldi, D. M. (2010). History of juvenile arrests and vocational career outcomes for at-risk young men. <i>Journal of Research in Crime and Delinquency</i>, 47(1), 91-117.</p>

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