

CHAPTER 7

Studying Effectively and Taking Exams

Academic success depends on active, involved learning. If you haven't already, read the previous chapter on academic writing. Use the principles there along with this chapter's practical tips for managing your time, getting the most from your classes and your reading, and taking exams.

As a first step, become familiar with your school's resources and procedures:

7a Managing your time

Planning and pacing your schoolwork and other activities will help you study more efficiently with less stress.

1 Surveying your activities

How do you spend your days? For a week, keep track of all your activities and the time they absorb. How many of the week's 168 hours do you spend eating, sleeping, watching television, talking on the phone, attending classes, studying, working at a job, attending religious services, exercising, commuting, caring for children, doing laundry, socializing, and so on? How much time can you realistically devote to studying?

2 Scheduling your time

One way to organize your time is to use a calendar that divides each day into waking hours. Block out your activities that occur regularly and at specific times, such as commuting, attending classes, and working. Then fill in the other activities (such as exercise, eating, and studying) that do not necessarily occur at fixed times. Be sure to leave time for relaxing: an unrealistic schedule that assigns all available time to studying will quickly prove too difficult to live by. If you use a computer regularly, consider keeping your schedule online using a calendar program. Set it to remind you of important due dates.

3 Organizing your workload

Use the syllabuses for your courses to estimate the amount of weekly study time required for each course. Generally, plan on two hours of studying for each hour in class—that is, about six hours for a typical course. Block out study periods using these guidelines:

- ✓ **Schedule study time close to class time.** You'll study more productively if you review notes, read assigned material, or work on projects shortly after each class period.
- ✓ **Pace assignments.** Plan to start early and work regularly on projects requiring extensive time, such as research papers, so that you will not be overwhelmed near the deadline. (See pp. 559–60 for advice on scheduling research projects.)
- ✓ **Adjust the weekly plan as needed to accommodate changes in your workload.** Before each week begins, examine its schedule to be sure you've built in enough time to study for an exam, finish a paper, or meet other deadlines and commitments.

4 Making the most of study time

When you sit down to study, use your time efficiently:

- ✓ **Set realistic study goals.** Divide your study sessions into small chunks, each with a short-term goal, such as previewing a textbook chapter or drafting three paragraphs of a paper. Plan breaks, too, so that you can clear your mind, stretch, and re-focus on your goals.
- ✓ **Tackle difficult homework first.** Resist any urge to put off demanding jobs, such as working on papers, reading textbooks, or doing math problems. Save easy tasks for when you're less alert.

- ▼ **Evaluate how you use your study time.** At the end of each week, ask yourself whether you were as productive as you needed to be. If not, what changes can you make to accomplish your goals for the coming week?

7b Listening and taking notes in class

When you begin each class, push aside other concerns so that you can focus and listen. Either on paper or on a computer, record what you hear as completely as possible while sorting out the main ideas from the secondary and supporting ones. (See the box below.) Such active note taking will help you understand the instructor's approach to the course and provide you with complete material for later study.

7c Reading for comprehension

The assigned reading you do for college courses—such as textbooks, journal articles, and works of literature—requires a greater focus on understanding and retention than does the reading you do for entertainment or for practical information. The process discussed here may seem time consuming, but with practice you'll become efficient at it.

Note The following process stresses ways of understanding what you read. In critical reading, covered in the next chapter, you extend this process to analyze and evaluate what you read and see.

1 Writing while reading

Reading for comprehension is an *active* process. Students often believe they are reading actively when they roll a highlighter over the important ideas in a text, but truly engaged reading requires more than that. If you take notes while reading, you “translate” the work into your own words and reconstruct it for yourself.

The substance of your reading notes will change as you preview, read, and summarize. At first, you may jot quick, short notes in the margins, on separate pages, or on a computer. (Use the last two for material you don't own or are reading online.) As you delve into the work, the notes should become more detailed, restating important points, asking questions, connecting ideas. (See p. 154 for an example of a text annotated in this way by a student.) For in-depth critical reading, you may want to keep a reading journal that records both what the work says and what you think about it. (See p. 154.)

2 Previewing

For most course reading, you should **skim** before reading word for word. Skimming gives you an overview of the material that will help you understand any part of it. Your goal is not to comprehend all the details or even the structure of the author's argument. Rather, working as outlined below, aim for a general sense of the length and difficulty of the material, its organization, and its principal ideas.

- ▼ **Gauge length and level.** Is the material brief and straightforward enough to read in one sitting, or do you need more time?
- ▼ **Examine the title and introduction.** The title and first couple of paragraphs will give you a sense of the topic, the author's approach, and the main ideas. As you read them, ask yourself what you already know about the subject so that you can integrate new information with old.
 - ▼ **Move from heading to heading.** Viewing the headings as headlines or as the levels of an outline will give you a feeling for which ideas the author sees as primary and which subordinate.
 - ▼ **Note highlighted words.** You will likely need to learn the meanings of terms in **bold**, *italic*, or **color**.
 - ▼ **Slow down for pictures, diagrams, tables, graphs, and other illustrations.** They often contain concentrated information.
 - ▼ **Read the summary or conclusion.** These paragraphs often recap the main ideas.
 - ▼ **Think over what you've skimmed.** Try to recall the central idea, or thesis, and the sequence of ideas.

3 Reading

After previewing a text, you can settle into it to learn what it has to say.

v **First reading**

The first time through new material, read as steadily and smoothly as possible, trying to get the gist of what the author is saying.

- v **Read in a place where you can concentrate.** Choose a quiet environment away from distractions such as music or talking.
- v **Give yourself time.** Rushing yourself or worrying about something else you have to do will prevent you from grasping what you read.
- v **Try to enjoy the work.** Seek connections between it and what you already know. Appreciate new information, interesting relationships, forceful writing, humor, good examples.
- v **Make notes sparingly during this first reading.** Mark major stumbling blocks—such as a paragraph you don’t understand—so that you can try to resolve them before rereading.

If English is not your first language and you come across unfamiliar words, don’t stop and look up every one. You will lose more in concentration than you will gain in understanding. Instead, try to guess the meanings of unfamiliar words from their contexts, circle them, and look them up later.

v **Rereading**

After the first reading, plan on at least one other. This time read *slowly*. Your main concern should be to grasp the content and how it is constructed. That means rereading a paragraph if you didn’t get the point or using a dictionary to look up words you don’t know.

Use your pen, pencil, or keyboard freely to highlight and distill the text:

- v **Distinguish main ideas from supporting ideas.** Look for the central idea, or thesis, for the main idea of each paragraph or section, and for the evidence supporting ideas.
- v **Learn key terms.** Understand both their meanings and their applications.
- v **Discern the connections among ideas.** Be sure you see why the author moves from point A to point B to point C and how those points relate to support the central idea. It often helps to outline the text or summarize it (see below).
- v **Add your own comments.** In the margins or separately, note links to other readings or to class discussions, questions to explore further, possible topics for your writing, points you find especially strong or weak. (This last category will occupy much of your time when you are expected to read critically. See pp. 157–63.)

4 Summarizing

A good way to master the content of a text is to **summarize** it: reduce it to its main points, in your own words. Some assignments call for brief summaries, as when you summarize the plot in a critical essay about a novel (p. 747). Summary is also an essential tool in research papers and other writing that draws on sources (p. 617). Here, though, we’re concerned with summarizing for yourself—for your own enlightenment.

A summary should state in as few words as possible the main ideas of a passage. When you need to summarize a few paragraphs or a brief article, your summary should not exceed one-fifth the length of the original. For longer works, such as chapters of books or whole books, your summary should be quite a bit shorter in proportion to the original. A procedure for drafting a summary appears in the following box.

Summarizing even a passage of text can be tricky. Below is one attempt to summarize the following material from an introductory biology textbook.

Original text

As astronomers study newly discovered planets orbiting distant stars, they hope to find evidence of water on these far-off celestial bodies, for water is the substance that makes possible life as we know it here on Earth. All organisms familiar to us are made mostly of water and live in an environment dominated by water. They require water more than any other substance. Human beings, for example, can survive for quite a few weeks without food, but only a week or so without water. Molecules of water participate in many chemical reactions necessary to sustain life. Most cells are surrounded by water, and cells themselves are about 70–95% water. Three-quarters of Earth’s surface is submerged in water. Although most of this water is in liquid form, water is also present on Earth as ice and vapor. Water is the only common substance to exist in the natural environment in all three physical states of matter: solid, liquid, and gas.

—Neil A. Campbell and Jane B. Reece, *Biology*

Draft summary

Astronomers look for water in outer space because life depends on it. It is the most common substance on Earth and in living cells, and it can be a liquid, a solid (ice), or a gas (vapor).

This summary accurately restates ideas in the original, but it does not pare the passage to its essence. The work of astronomers and the three physical states of water add color and texture to the original, but they are asides to the key concept that water sustains life because of its role in life. The following revision narrows the summary to this concept:

Revised summary

Water is the most essential support for life, the dominant substance on Earth and in living cells and a component of life-sustaining chemical processes.

Note Do not count on the AutoSummarize function on your word processor for summarizing texts that you may have copied onto your computer. The summaries are rarely accurate, and you will not gain the experience of interacting with the texts on your own.

7d Preparing for and taking exams

Examinations give you a chance to demonstrate what you have learned from listening, reading, and writing. Studying for an exam involves three main steps, each requiring about a third of the preparation time: reviewing the material, organizing summaries of the material, and testing yourself. Your main goals are to strengthen your understanding of the subject, making both its ideas and its details more memorable, and to increase the flexibility of your new knowledge so that you can apply it in new contexts.

The procedure outlined here works for any exam, no matter how much time you have, what material you're studying, or what kind of test you'll be taking. Because an essay exam requires a distinctive approach during the exam itself, it receives special attention on pages 144–49.

Note Cramming for an exam is about the least effective way of preparing for one. It takes longer to learn under stress, and the learning is shallower, more difficult to apply, and more quickly forgotten. Information learned under stress is even harder to apply in stressful situations, such as taking an exam. And the lack of sleep that usually accompanies cramming makes a good performance even more unlikely. If you must cram for a test, face the fact that you can't learn everything. Spend your time reviewing main concepts and facts.

1 Reviewing and memorizing the material

Divide your class notes and reading assignments into manageable units. Reread the material, recite or write out the main ideas and selected supporting ideas and examples, and then skim for an overview. Proceed in this way through all the units of the course, returning to earlier ones as needed to refresh your memory or to relate ideas.

During this stage you should be memorizing what you don't already know by heart. Try these strategies for strengthening your memory:

- ▼ **Link new and known information.** For instance, to remember a sequence of four dates in twentieth-century African history, link the dates to simultaneous and more familiar events in the United States.
- ▼ **Create groups of ideas or facts that make sense to you.** For instance, memorize French vocabulary words in related groups, such as words for parts of the body or parts of a house. Keep the groups small: research has shown that we can easily memorize about seven items at a time but have trouble with more.
- ▼ **Create narratives and visual images.** You may recall a story or a picture more easily than words. For instance, to remember how the economic laws of supply and demand affect the market for rental housing, you could tie the principles to a narrative about the aftermath of the 1906 San Francisco earthquake, when half the population was suddenly homeless. Or you could visualize a person who has dollar signs for eyes and is converting a spare room into a high-priced rental unit, as many did after the earthquake to meet the new demand for housing.
- ▼ **Use mnemonic devices, or tricks for remembering.** Say the his-tory dates you want to remember are separated by five years, then four, then nine. By memorizing the first date and recalling $5 + 4 = 9$, you'll have command of all four dates.

2 Organizing summaries of the material

Allow time to reorganize the material in your own way, creating categories that will help you apply the information in various contexts. For instance, in studying for a biology exam, work to understand a process, such as how a plant develops or how photosynthesis occurs. Or in studying for an American government test, explain the structures of the local, state, and federal levels of government. Other useful categories include causes/effects and advantages/disadvantages. Such analytical thinking will improve your mastery of the course material and may even prepare you directly for specific essay questions.

3 Testing yourself

Convert each heading in your lecture notes and course reading into a question. Answer in writing, going back to the course material to fill in what you don't yet know. Be sure you can define and explain all key terms. For subjects that require solving problems (such as mathematics, statistics, or physics), work out a difficult problem for every type on which you will be tested. For all subjects, focus on the main themes and questions of the course. In a psychology course, for example, be certain you understand principal theories and their implications. In a literature course, test your knowledge of literary movements and genres or the relations among specific works.

When you are satisfied with your preparation, stop studying and get a good night's sleep.

4 Taking essay exams

In writing an essay for an examination, you summarize or analyze a topic, usually in several paragraphs or more and usually within a time limit. An essay question not only tests your knowledge of a subject (as short-answer and objective questions do) but also tests your ability to think critically about what you have learned.

v Planning your time and your answer

When you first receive an exam, take a few minutes to get your bearings and plan an approach. The time spent will not be wasted.

- v **Read the exam all the way through at least once.** Don't start answering any questions until you've seen them all.
- v **Weigh the questions.** Determine which questions seem most important, which ones are going to be most difficult for you, and approximately how much time you'll need for each question. (Your instructor may help by assigning a point value to each question as a guide to its importance or by suggesting an amount of time for you to spend on each question.)

Planning continues when you turn to an individual essay question. Resist the temptation to rush right into an answer without some planning, for a few minutes can save you time later and help you produce a stronger essay.

- v **Read the question at least twice.** You will be more likely to stick to the question and answer it fully.
- v **Examine the words in the question and consider their implications.** Look especially for words such as *describe*, *define*, *explain*, *summarize*, *analyze*, *evaluate*, and *interpret*, each of which requires a different kind of response. Here, for example, is an essay question whose key term is *explain*:

Question

Given humans' natural and historical curiosity about themselves, why did a scientific discipline of anthropology not arise until the 20th century? Explain, citing specific details.

See the box opposite, and consult other discussions of such terms on pages 24–25 and 91–100.

- v **Make a brief outline of the main ideas you want to cover.** Use the back of the exam sheet or booklet for scratch paper. In the brief outline on page 146, a student planned her answer to the anthropology question above.

Outline

1. Unscientific motivations behind 19th-c anthro.
 - Imperialist/colonialist govts.
 - Practical goals
 - Nonobjective and unscientific (Herodotus, Cushing)
2. 19th-c ethnocentricity (vs. cultural relativism)

3. 19th-c anthro. = object collecting

20th-c shift from museum to univ.

Anthro. becomes acad. disc. and professional (Boas, Malinowski)

- v **Write a thesis statement for your essay that responds directly to the question and represents your view of the topic.** (If you are unsure of how to write a thesis statement, see pp. 27–31.) Include key phrases that you can expand with supporting evidence for your view. The thesis statement of the student whose outline appears above concisely previews a three-part answer to the sample question:

Thesis statement

Anthropology did not emerge as a scientific discipline until the 20th century because of the practical and political motivations behind 19th-century ethnographic studies, the ethnocentric bias of Western researchers, and a conception of culture that was strictly material.

- v **Starting the essay**

An essay exam does not require a smooth and inviting opening. Instead, begin by stating your thesis immediately and giving an overview of the rest of your essay. Such a capsule version of your answer tells your reader (and grader) generally how much command you have and also how you plan to develop your answer. It also gets you off to a good start.

The opening statement should address the question directly and exactly, as it does in the successful essay answer beginning on the facing page. In contrast, the opening of the unsuccessful essay (pp. 148–49) restates the question but does not answer it, nor does the opening provide any sense of the writer's thesis.

- v **Developing the essay**

Develop your essay as you would develop any piece of sound academic writing:

- v **Observe the methods, terms, or other special requirements of the discipline in which you are writing.**
- v **Support your thesis statement with solid generalizations,** each one perhaps the topic sentence of a paragraph.
- v **Support each generalization with specific, relevant evidence.**

If you observe a few *don'ts* as well, your essay will have more substance:

- v **Avoid filling out the essay by repeating yourself.**
- v **Avoid other kinds of wordiness that pad and confuse,** whether intentionally or not. (See pp. 529–35.)
- v **Avoid resorting to purely subjective feelings.** Keep focused on analysis or whatever is asked of you. (It may help to abolish the word *I* from the essay.)

The following essays illustrate a successful and an unsuccessful answer to the sample essay question on page 144 about anthropology. Both answers were written in the allotted time of forty minutes. Marginal comments on each essay highlight their effective and ineffective elements.

Successful essay answer

Anthropology did not emerge as a scientific discipline until the 20th century because of the practical and political motivations behind 19th-century ethnographic studies, the ethnocentric bias of Western researchers, and a conception of culture that was strictly material.

Before the 20th century, ethnographic studies were almost always used for practical goals. The study of human culture can be traced back at least as far as Herodotus's investigations of the Mediterranean peoples. Herodotus was like many pre-20th-century "anthropologists" in that he was employed by a government that needed information about its neighbors, just as the colonial nations in the 19th century needed information about their newly conquered subjects. The early politically motivated ethnographic studies that the colonial nations sponsored tended to be isolated projects, and they aimed less to advance general knowledge than to solve a specific problem. Frank Hamilton Cushing, who was employed by the American government to study the Zuni tribe of New Mexico, and who is considered one of the pioneers of anthropology, didn't even publish his findings. The political and practical aims of anthropologists and the nature of their

research prevented their work from being a scholarly discipline in its own right.

Anthropologists of the 19th century also fell short of the standards of objectivity needed for truly scientific study. This partly had to do with anthropologists' close connection to imperialist governments. But even independent researchers were hampered by the prevailing assumption that Western cultures were inherently superior. While the modern anthropologist believes that a culture must be studied in terms of its own values, early ethnographers were ethnocentric: they judged "primitive" cultures by their own "civilized" values. "Primitive" peoples were seen as uninteresting in their own right. The reasons to study them, ultimately, were to satisfy curiosity, to exploit them, or to prove their inferiority. There was even some debate as to whether so-called savage peoples were human.

Finally, the 19th century tended to conceive of culture in narrow, material terms, often reducing it to a collection of artifacts. When not working for a government, early ethnographers usually worked for a museum. The enormous collections of exotica still found in many museums today are the legacy of this 19th-century object-oriented conception of anthropology, which ignored the myths, symbols, and rituals the objects related to. It was only when the museum tradition was broadened to include all aspects of a culture that anthropology could come into existence as a scientific discipline. When anthropologists like Franz Boas and Bronislaw Malinowski began to publish their findings for others to read and criticize and began to move from the museum to the university, the discipline gained stature and momentum.

In brief, anthropology required a whole series of ideological shifts to become modern. Once it broke free of its purely practical bent, the cultural prejudices of its practitioners, and the narrow conception that limited it to a collection of objects, anthropology could grow into a science.

Unsuccessful essay answer

The discipline of anthropology, the study of humans and their cultures, actually began in the early 20th century and was strengthened by the Darwinian revolution, but the discipline did not begin to take shape until people like Franz Boas and Alfred Kroeber began doing scientific research among nonindustrialized cultures. (Boas, who was born in Germany but emigrated to the US, is the father of the idea of historical particularism.)

Since the dawn of time, humans have always had a natural curiosity about themselves. Art and literature have always reflected this need to understand human emotions, thought, and behavior. Anthropology is yet another reflection of this need. Anthropologists have a different way of looking at human societies than artists or writers. Whereas the latter paint an individualistic, impressionistic portrait of the world they see, anthropologists study cultures systematically, scientifically. They are thus closer to biologists. They are *social scientists*, with the emphasis on both words.

Another reason why anthropology did not develop until the 20th century is that people in the past did not travel very much. The expansion of the automobile and the airplane has played a major role in the expansion of the discipline.

Cushing's important work among the Zuni Indians in New Mexico is a good example of the transition between 19th-century and 20th-century approaches to anthropology. Cushing was one of the first to develop the method of *participant observation*. Instead of merely coming in as an outsider, taking notes, and leaving, Cushing actually lived among the Zuni, dressing like them and following their customs. In this way, he was able to build a relationship of trust with his informants, learning much more than someone who would have been seen as an outsider.

Franz Boas, as mentioned earlier, was another anthropology pioneer. A German immigrant, Boas proposed the idea of *historical particularism* as a response to the prevailing theory of *cultural evolution*. Cultural evolution is the idea that cultures gradually evolve toward higher levels of efficiency and complexity. Historical particularism is the idea that every culture is unique and develops differently. Boas developed his theory to counter those who believed in cultural evolution. Working with the Kwakiutl Indians, he was also one of the first anthropologists to use a native assistant to help him gain access to the culture under study.

A third pioneer in anthropology was Malinowski, who developed a theory of *functionalism*—that culture responds to biological, psychological, and

other needs. Malinowski's work is extremely important and still influential today.

Anthropologists have made great contributions to society over the course of the past century. One can only hope that they will continue the great strides they have made, building on the past to contribute to a bright new future.

v **Rereading the essay**

The time limit on an essay examination does not allow for the careful rethinking and revision you would give an essay or research paper. You need to write clearly and concisely the first time. But try to leave yourself a few minutes after finishing the entire exam for rereading the essay (or essays) and doing touch-ups.

- v **Correct mistakes:** illegible passages, misspellings, grammatical errors, and accidental omissions.
- v **Verify that your thesis is accurate**—that it is, in fact, what you ended up writing about.
- v **Ensure that you have supported all your generalizations.** Cross out irrelevant ideas and details, and add any information that now seems important. (Write on another page, if necessary, keying each addition to the page on which it belongs.)

Campus know-how

Learn the answers to the following questions from your school's Web site, its catalog, or, best yet, an orientation session.

- v **Where are the important buildings and offices?** Locate the library, classrooms, registrar, financial-aid office, health center, gym, and other facilities.
- v **What support services are available for students?** Investigate your options for getting help when you need it. Most schools provide advisers and counselors, writing centers, tutoring centers, computer assistance, library tours, and other services.
- v **What are the key procedures for students?** Learn how to register for classes, drop or add a class, declare or change your major, request a transcript, or pay tuition bills.

<http://www.ablongman.com/littlebrown>

Visit the companion Web site for more help with studying effectively and taking exams.

Tips for taking class notes

- v **Use your own words.** You will understand and retain the material better if you rephrase it. But use the speaker's words if necessary to catch everything.
- v **Leave space in your notes if you miss something.** Instructors usually welcome questions about content but not requests for simple repetition, and it's not fair to distract fellow students during class. Ask someone for the missing information as soon as possible after class.
- v **Include any reading content mentioned by your instructor.** Use the notes to integrate all the components of the course—your instructor's views, your own thoughts, and the assigned reading, even if you've already read it.
- v **Review your notes shortly after class.** Reinforce your new knowledge when it is fresh by underlining key words and ideas, adding headings and comments in the margins, converting your notes to questions, or outlining the lecture based on your notes. If you don't understand something in the notes, consult a classmate for his or her version.

Writing a summary

- v **Understand the meaning.** Look up words or concepts you don't know so that you understand the author's sentences and how they relate to one another.
- v **Understand the organization.** Work through the text to identify its sections—single paragraphs or groups of paragraphs focused on a single topic. To understand how parts of a work relate to one another, try drawing a tree diagram or creating an outline (pp. 34–38).

- v **Distill each section.** Write a one- or two-sentence summary of each section you identify. Focus on the main point of the section, omitting examples, facts, and other supporting evidence.
- v **State the main idea.** Write a sentence or two capturing the author’s central idea.
- v **Support the main idea.** Write a full paragraph (or more, if needed) that begins with the central idea and supports it with the sentences that summarize sections of the work. The paragraph should concisely and accurately state the thrust of the entire work.
- v **Use your own words.** By writing, you re-create the meaning of the work in a way that makes sense for you.

Sample instructions for essay examinations

Sample instructions	Key terms	Strategies for answers	Examples of wrong answers
Define <i>dyslexia</i> and compare and contrast it with two other learning disabilities.	Define	Specify the meaning of <i>dyslexia</i> —distinctive characteristics, ways the impairment works, etc.	Feelings of children with dyslexia. Causes of dyslexia.
	Compare and contrast	Analyze similarities and differences (severity, causes, treatments, etc.).	Similarities without differences, or vice versa.
Analyze the role of Horatio in <i>Hamlet</i> .	Analyze	Break Horatio’s role into its elements (speeches, relations with other characters, etc.).	Plot summary of <i>Hamlet</i> . Description of Horatio’s personality.
Explain the effects of the drug Thorazine.	Explain	Set forth the facts and theories objectively.	Argument for or against Thorazine.
	Effects	Analyze the consequences.	Reasons for prescribing Thorazine.
Discuss term limits for elected officials.	Discuss	Explain and compare the main points of view or against one	Analysis of one view. Argument for
	on the issue.		view.
Summarize the process that resulted in the Grand Canyon.	Summarize	Distill the subject to its main points, elements, or steps.	Detailed description of the Grand Canyon.
How do you evaluate the Laffer curve as a predictor of economic growth?	Evaluate	Provide your opinion of significance or value, supported with evidence.	Explanation of the Laffer curve, without evaluation. Comparison of the Laffer curve and another predictor, without evaluation.

Introduction stating thesis

Direct answer to question and preview of three-part response

First main point:
practical aims

Example

Example

Second main point:
ethnocentricity

Third main point (with transition *Finally*): focus on objects

Examples

Conclusion, restating thesis supported by
essay

Introduction, not
answering question

No thesis statement or sense of direction

Irrelevant information

Cliché added to language of question without answering question

Wheel spinning, positioning contemporary anthropology as a scientific discipline

Not *Another reason* but the first reason given

Assertion without support

Next three paragraphs: discussion of pioneers showing familiarity
with their work but not
answering question

Padding with repetition

Irrelevant information

Vague assertion without support

Irrelevant and empty conclusion