CHAPTER 7

ORGANIZING THE COLLECTED INFORMATION

The Aim of Organizing Information

There are different ways of developing a theme. The choice of a pattern depends on the purpose of the writer. As Corbett (1977, pp. 128-129) summarizes, the main methods of developing a topic are

- to present examples and illustrations of what is being discussed,
- to cite data --facts, statistics, evidence, details-- that will support or confirm what is being discussed,
- to quote, paraphrase, or summarize claims and suggestions of scholars on the topic,
- to tell an anecdote that has some relevance to the topic,
- to define the technical terms utilized in the study,
- to compare or contrast the issues involved in the topic by bringing out the similarities or the differences,
- to explore the causes or reasons for the phenomenon or situation regarding the topic,
- to point out the effects or consequences of the phenomenon or situation regarding the topic,
- to explain the process of the technical item utilized in the research,
- to describe the person, place, or things that are vital to the study.

A consideration of the topic statement may suggest one or more ways to develop an essay. Corbett (1977) gives a couple of examples:

EXAMPLE I: The toy business has been expanding   despite the decline in the birth rate.

Methods of development depend on the aim:

1.   In order to confirm the decline in the birth rate and increase in sales of toys some statistics can be cited.
2.   The causes or reasons for the expansion of the toy business despite the decline in birth rate can be explored.

EXAMPLE II: Aerosols, in fact, may have a slight edge over other hazards when it comes to potential danger.

Methods of development focusing on the aim:

1.   In order to support the statement, some examples demonstrating the hazards of aerosol spray-cans can be provided.
2.   In order to show how aerosols are potentially more dangerous, they can be compared with other household hazards.

Types of Organizational Patterns

"Organization is the process of systematically arranging the independent parts so that their sequence clearly portrays the relationship of the parts" (Glidden 1964, p. 134). Relationship can be maintained by putting the parts in logical sequence and in a comparative degree of importance. The best way to get these would be in the form of an outline. This is because it enables the researcher to organize the pieces of information gathered from different sources within the framework of the design introduced in the research proposal, and at the same time, it helps him/her to focus on the degree of importance of the gathered information. Thus, the most important items are indicated under general headings, and the minor ones under subheadings.

Glidden (1964) cites the following organizational patterns commonly used in research writing:

1. Chronological
   a. Description of process
   b. Narration
   c. Situation in which there is a linear movement
   d. Cost reports (for each year)
2. Functional
   a. Functions performed that are not necessarily in chronological order
   b. Process involving the interrelationship of several functions
3. Manufacturing sequence
   a. Following raw material through the various stages prior to final sale
   b. Assembly operations
4. Organizational
   a. Situations where the echelon of management is shown
   b. Responsibilities and duties set forth (chain of command)
5. Order of need to know
   (Most texts afford examples or organize chapter sequence to offer the information in the order in which it is required by the student).
6. Cause and effect or vice versa
   (This system is particularly useful when it is necessary to explain why something happened, or to predict what will happen. It is also called "from the particular to the general and vice versa.")
7. Known to unknown
   (Many mathematical solutions require this system in order to go from the known to the exploration and understanding of the unknown.) (pp. 135-136)

D'Angelo (1977) gives the categorization of logical organization of topics under two major headings based on whether they are progressive or static:

I. **Progressive logical topics**
   A. Narration
   B. Process
   C. Cause and effect
II. **Static logical topics**
   A. Identification
   B. Description
   C. Definition
   D. Analysis
      1. Partition

2. Enumeration
E. Classification
F. Exemplification
G. Comparison and contrast
1. Similarity
    a. Literal
    b. Figurative
2. Difference
    a. In kind
      b. In degree   (p. 32)

Corbett (1978, pp. 60-61) classifies the common patterns of organization into nine categories:

1.   **Chronological order**
In narrative prose, chronological order takes events in order of *time*. In description of process, it follows *actual sequence* .

2.   **Spatial order**
In descriptive prose, spatial order follows a "natural" order, as from top to bottom, right to left, outside to   inside, etc.

3.   **Clearing the ground before (or after building)** In expository and argumentative prose, this type of order, sets forth the inadequacies of previous accounts, explanations, etc., or it refutes arguments of opponents and then sets forth its own account, explanation, or argument.

4.   **Familiar to unfamiliar order**
In explanatory prose, this type of order explains new, complex ideas, issues, and other similar components by moving from known to unknown.

5.   **Climatic order**
In narrative and argumentative prose, this order takes matters in order of increasing importance or intensity.

6.   **Logical order**
In expository and argumentative prose, logical order employs inductive reasoning (from the particular to the general) or deductive reasoning (from the general to the specific) or cause-to-effect or effect-to-cause reasoning.

7.   **Whole to part (or reverse)**
In descriptive prose, the order works from the smaller to the larger, from aspect to whole (or reverse), etc.

8.   **Anticlimatic order**
In argumentative and occasionally in expository prose, this type of order takes matters in order of decreasing importance or intensity.

9.   **Associational order**
In any prose where one thing, person, place, etc. "naturally suggests" (in the mind of the writer) some other person, place, thing.

In stream-of-consciousness prose, it follows the mind's erratic, illogical motions. In episodic narrative and in accounts of personal experiences, events may be in no discernible order.

Styles of Organizational Patterns

In this section, following D'Angelo's categorization of logical patterns, narration, process, cause and effect, description, definition, analysis, enumeration, classification, exemplification, comparison and contrast, and argument patterns are going to be discussed separately, explaining the function and the developmental pattern of each. Furthermore, the common vocabulary items and the structural patterns utilized in each pattern will be discussed.

Narration

The aim is to answer the following questions:

- What happened or is happening or will happen?
- When and where did (will) it happen?

As the events are mentioned, they need to be elaborated and clarified with relevant details. Each event needs to be narrated in such a way that one part must guide the reader to develop expectations towards the following event. Thus, the reader will anxiously wait for the rest of the narration to see if his/her expectations will be fulfilled.

Since the focus is on what happened and when and where it happened, the writing consists of many verbs, prepositional phrases, and adverbs. Action verbs such as *go, walk, set out, rush, turn, enter, interrupt, invade, disappear, arrive* are used intensively.

Since, in narration, the time factor plays an important role, words indicating the order of events in a time cycle are used at great length:

now	first	previously
then	second	everyday
before	third	a long time ago
as soon as	fourth	one of these days
until	finally	after a few days
earlier	former	last year
soon	latter	up to this time
later	prior to	on that occasion

In narration, adverbial clauses of time and place (Examples a and b) are frequently seen. Another frequently used structure is short sentences placed one after the other, and separated with commas or semicolons (Example c). As seen in Example **c**, information that needs to be mentioned but not within that structure is cited between dashes and sometimes within commas:

a. When they were children, they used to swim by the lake.
b. Sheila went to dine where she and her husband had first met.

c.   Something happened to the hindmost sledge; the driver lost control - he was probably very drunk - the horses left the road, the sledge was caught in a clump of trees, and overturned.

Process

"Process is a series of actions, changes, functions, steps or operations that bring about a particular end or result" (D'Angelo 1977, p. 98). The process takes place in a series of interrelated steps and the gradual change can be observed through these steps. The process involves variation within a sequence of time; therefore, in explaining this variation, terms such as *change, alter, vary, invert, modify, transform, convert, and transmit* are frequently used. Within the same line of reasoning, nominals such as *phase, occurrence, step, change, state, condition, modification, alteration, variation, transformation, conversion, mutation, displacement, transfiguration, shifting, transplantation, inconsistency, inversion* are widely utilized.

In indicating the sequence of steps, terms similar to those of narration are used. Among the very common ones are *now, then, next, afterwards, later, from,* and *to.* Terms used in enumeration are also applied in mentioning the exact order of steps. Thus, terms like *first, second, third* are often encountered in writings of this sort.

In explaining a process, one needs to mention what is needed for the process (a), consequent activities (b), and the simultaneous actions (c).

a.   1. Before beginning, you must have the following materials.
      2. The chief ingredients for this … are … .

b.   1. The first step is to boil the water.
      2. The first thing you need to do is to cut the glass into pieces.
      3. Once the glass is completely covered, it is time to …
      4. When the pieces have dried, attach them …
      5. After soaking it in the tub for ten hours, you start …ing.

c.   1. While you let the pieces dry, cover the drinking glass with a thin   coat of glue.
      2. While Linda sterilized the necessary equipment, the patient was
          prepared for surgery.

As seen from the examples, the process is dictated to a second person (a 1 - b 2,4,5 and c 1), it is explained in general terms using passive voice (b 3), or it is narrated (c 2). The researcher uses the structure that best fits his/her purpose. In most research papers, however, the process is described in the passive voice, ignoring the agent unless it is significant for the performance of the process. Since in action research, the person involved in the action is explicitly stated, the researcher expresses what he has done himself/herself using the first person singular pronoun.

Cause and effect

Cause and effect organization is used if the researcher is interested in finding out answers to questions of the following nature:
-    Why do events happen?
-    What are the causes of these events?

- What could be the purpose behind that event?
- How is that event or action related to another event or action?

Cause and effect organization may overlap with narration, process, and description because a progression logic needs to be pursued to make generalizations about the reasons causing the event in relation to the topic. In order to investigate the cause, one has to indicate probable reasons causing that particular event. A detailed account of the chronological progression of preceding events needs to be given. Generalizations on the impact of such events for the development of a single event show the main concern of the research.

Although there are other organizational patterns involved in the cause and effect paradigm, the ultimate goal is to find an answer to "why" and not to "how" and "what." The "how" and "what" questions are answered in arriving at the answer for the "why" question. The cause and effect organization aims at finding the logical relationship between events; therefore, the verbs and nouns frequently used are the following:

VERBS	PREPOSITION	ADVERBS CONJUNCTIONS	NOUNS
cause produce lead to result from make possible accomplish as	in by due to owing to by means of on account of	since as because (of) if… then thus therefore consequently accordingly	the cause of the reason for the effect of the consequence of

The cause and effect organizational pattern has two basic forms. In one, the cause or causes are stated first, and its/their effect/effects are mentioned later (Example 1). In the other form, the effect/effects is/are mentioned, and then the cause/causes is/are investigated (Example 2).

Example 1
Cause: The Agriculture Department estimates that the 1975 corn crop will yield a record 6.05 billion bushels.
Effect 1:   One effect of this projected record harvest is expected to be lower prices for whisky drinkers and drinkers of other kinds of alcoholic spirits, …
Effect 2:   Another effect of a bumper corn crop would be that the cost of livestock grain will go down, this resulting in low prices for milk and poultry.

(From "Liquor Prices Could Go Down" D'Angelo, 1977, p. 115)

Example 2
Effect 1:   The trees on the streets in that city keep drying up.
Effect 2:   Many people in that city have heart attacks and lung problems.
Effect 3:   The hands and the faces of the people in that city get black when they go out for a walk.
Cause: These situations are due to the fact that there is intense air pollution in that city.

 The basic syntactic patterns for cause and effect are illustrated in the following boxes:

The cause of The effect of The consequences of The result of The reason for	E F F E C T (noun phrase)	is are	C A U S E (noun phrase)

C A U S E	Therefore, So, Thus, Hence, Accordingly, Consequently, As a result of this, As a consequence of this, Because of this, For this reason,	E F F E C T

Because As Since Now (that)	C A U S E (subordinate clause),	E F F E C T (main clause).

E F F E C T (main clause)	because as since ----------- because of as a result of on account of owing to through	C A U S E (main clause). ---------------- (noun phrase)

Because of	C A U S E (noun phrase),		E F F E C T (main clause).
One reason for	EFFECT (noun phrase),	is	CAUSE (noun phrase).

C A U S E (noun phrase/clause)		causes results in leads to produces	E F F E C T (noun phrase)

E F F E C T (noun phrase/clause	is are	caused by due to because of	C A U S E

When If	C A U S E (subordinate clause),	then	E F F E C T (main clause).

Description

Description is a process of perceiving objects in relation to time and space. In description, the writer is interested in the physical properties of items. He/she describes the shapes, dimensions, features, characteristics, and structure of the items. He/she may also name other items that are similar in nature, and focus on these properties; he/she may mention the origin or the source of the item and its application.

According to D'Angelo's (1977, p. 128) description can be in one of the following orders:

1. **Spatial order**: describing the items within a location in a specific order
2. **Radiant order**: describing the items in the group depending on which ones strike observers most.
3. **Dominant order**: taking one concept and describing all the other items in the scene with that concept in mind. Therefore, there is probably much repetition of the items on which the reader should focus.
4. **Order of memory**: the order of definition of ideas depends on the vividness in the memory with no logical order. This type of description is fantasy.
5. **Order of observation**: the randomly selected impressions of the past are described.

In describing the observable items, different points of view can be used:

1. From near to far or vice versa
2. From above to below or vice versa
3. In a direct line
4. In an oblique form
5. From inside to outside or vice versa

Following phrases are frequently used to locate the place of the described items:

here	beyond	adjacent to
there	opposite to	closer to
nearby	further on	to the left (right) of
above	next to	under
below	over	inside
outside	elsewhere	somewhere …

In description, figurative as well as literal language can be used. Vocabulary items appealing to our five senses are frequently employed:

A: **Sight**
    1. Color *(blue, yellow)*
    2. Form *(big, tall, shallow, circular)*
B. **Touch**
    1. Thermal *(hot, cold)*
    2. Sample *(soft, hard)*
    3. Pressure *(squeezed)*
C. **Taste** *(delicious, sour, bitter, sweet, spicy)*
D. **Sound**
    1. High *(shrill)*
    2. Low *(moan)*
E. **Smell** *(sharp, floral, awful)*

<u>Definition</u>

Definition is the explanation of concepts. In defining a concept, the researcher discusses how a concept is defined by other sources or scholars, and then brings his/her views and opinions about the concept, and tries to arrive at a definition of his/her own. Meantime, he/she investigates if this concept is associated with others, how people are affected by this concept, and what might be the best definition to let it work properly (Corbett,1977, p. 43).

In any research writing, the technical vocabulary items and other new words that are not known to most people need to be defined in order to clarify the meaning. If a restricted meaning of a term is used, that needs to be specified as well. Another reason for using definition would be to make fine distinctions between terms utilized in the research.

D'Angelo mentions three types of definition (1977, pp. 141-143):

1.   <u>Logical or formal definition:</u> putting the word into a class and differentiating it from other members of the same class.

e.g. <u>Term</u>   <u>Class</u>   <u>Differentiation</u>
    Mini   is a short dress   two or more inches above the knee.

2.   <u>Etymological definition:</u> tracing the origin and the historical development of the word.

e.g.   The word "problem" comes from the Greek word   "proballain"
meaning "put forward."

3.   <u>Substitutional definition</u>: using a synonym.

e.g.   difficult: hard

In defining a term, the following syntactic patterns can be employed:

X	means signifies is considered to be is taken to be refers to	…

X	is	the study of the science of	…

X	may be defined as	the study of the science of the branch of	…

In this paper In this context For this reason	X	will be taken to mean will be used in this sense will be considered to be	…

By	X	I mean it is meant	…

Aside from definitions, sometimes the writer needs to clarify a complicated sentence by rephrasing or exemplifying using phrases similar to the following:

in other words	certainly
simply stated	such as
that is to say	indeed
to clarify	in fact
to put it another way	
to rephrase it	

Analysis : Deductive or Inductive Reasoning

If, in analysis, the attempt is made to arrive at the aimed result by starting with parts and showing how these parts are related to the whole, this would be the indication of inductive reasoning. If the analysis starts with the whole, and details and parts qualifying the characteristics of the whole are found accordingly, then the reasoning pursued would be deductive.

In arriving at a deductive reasoning, attempt needs to be made to distinguish between a fact and an opinion. A fact is based on data which can be measured and verified. An opinion, on the other hand, is based on personal preferences. When an argument is not constructed on a valid deduction, it is very likely to fall into fallacies. Whitten, Horner, Web & Miller (1990) define fallacies as "faults in premises (truth) or in reasoning (validity)" (p. 318).   These fallacies may be the result of misusing or misrepresenting evidence. They may be due to relying on faulty premises or omitting an obligatory premise, or may be due to

distorting the main issues in the argument. Whitten et al., (1990, pp. 118-120) cite the following major forms of fallacies:

1. **Non sequitur**: This is a statement that does not follow logical sequence. For instance, the argument, "Tom is honest; he will be successful in life." is faulty because, the conclusion is not a result of any premise. We know that there are so many honest man who are not successful.

2. **Hasty generalizations:** These types of generalizations are based on exceptional or biased evidence as in "Teenagers do not respect their elders." Here the generalization made does not apply to the whole population.

3. **Ad hominen**: In the argument, an illogical reason is provided for the conclusion made. For instance, if a person's scholarly presentation is evaluated according to the way he/she is dressed, an invalid reasoning is made because, his/her way of dressing has nothing to do with the argument made.

4. **Bandwagon**: In this type of fallacy, the generalizations are made according to how everyone behaves or what everyone does, rather than what is plausible or reasonable. If people start crossing the road while the red light is on because everyone is doing so, they would be basing their argument on a faulty premise because we know that the majority may not always be right.

5. **Red herring**: While trying to avoid the issue, people tend to draw the listener's attention to issues that have no relevance to the matter in concern. In the statement, "Why do you worry about the environment, we need to find a way to end the war between X and Y countries," the issue of environment has nothing to do with the war.

6   **Either ... or fallacy**: In this type of fallacy, the argument comprises only two alternatives as if there are no other possibilities. For instance, in an argument, "He will either marry her or commit a suicide," no other alternative is provided.

7. **False analogy**: After having observed a similarity in one respect, people tend to extend the analogy to other issues as well. An argument, "Since these two books both have ten chapters, they must include the same type of material," is an outcome of a false analogy.

8. **Equivocation**: In this type of fallacy, an assertion is made using the two different meanings of the same word.
    e.g. "They belong to the same religion, but money is his real religion. [Religion in the first sense means an organized church; in the second sense it means a cause or principle] " (p. 320).

9. **Slippery slope**: If the argument is based on the assumption that allowing one thing to happen will cause other negative events to happen, it is said to have a slippery slope fallacy. For instance, if we think that if a person's leg is amputated, his/her other leg will be amputated as well, we would be making a fallacy.

10. **Oversimplification**: In this type of fallacy, the issue is oversimplified without giving the real reason. If we consider people who have been successful in an achievement test lucky, we are basing everything on luck. This however, is not true because we know that one has to study in order to be successful on a test.

11. **Begging the question**: In a faulty argument of this kind, both in the premise and the in the conclusion, the same assertion is made. (e.g. He is afraid because he has fear of dogs.)

12. **False cause:** In this type of fallacy, cause and effect relation is assumed to exist in every sequence of events. (e.g. The success rate of the students fell by 20 percent when another teacher took over the class. Aside from the change in the teacher, there may be other factors, that might have affected the students' performance.

        In an analysis pattern of writing, the following words and phrases are expected to appear:

NOUNS	VERBS AND MODIFIERS
aspect	aggregate
bulk	analyze
characteristic	break up
component	compose
constituent	constitute
detail	originate
division into	resolve
element	separate
embodiment	trace
entity	
feature	_____
fraction	active
fragment	affirmative
individuality	entirely
ingredient	individualistic
member	particular
part	partly
particle	positive
particular	significant
partition	unique
piece	
portion	
section	
sector	
subdivision	
sum	
totality	
trait	
unit	
unity	
whole	

<u>Enumeration</u>

Enumeration is a kind of informal analysis where the concern lies on the sequential arrangement of groups of objects, events, or ideas. Therefore, the basic pattern is the numerical order (e.g. first, second, third.... finally). For that reason, the following vocabulary items are frequently used in this type of writing:

NOUNS	VERBS

analysis	assign a number to
catalogue	constitute a group
chain	count
item	come to
list	count
number	enumerate
progression	itemize
sequence	limit to
series	mention separately
set	number
string	restrict to
	take an account of
	tell

Classification

In classification, parts are classified and categorized into distinct groups on some common basis. Corbett (1977, p. 35) gives an example of how a topic can be classified in different ways according to different bases:

TOPIC: COLLEGE STUDENTS	
BASIS	CLASSIFICATION
sex	male/female
geographical origin	in-state/out-of-state
year-standing	freshman/sophomore/junior/senior
department	engineering/science/agriculture etc.
ethnic groups	black/white
religious groups	Catholic/Methodist/Muslim etc.

There are certain vocabulary items utilized in a classification theme that enable the reader to follow the logical progression:

VERBS	NOUNS	MODIFIERS
classify	categories	two, three, etc.
categorize	divisions	several
group	groups	main
divide into	classes	general
arrange	subdivisions	broad
put into	types/sorts	primary
fall into	qualities	major
place in	orders	fundamental
distinguish	families	exclusive
differentiate	members	collection of
assemble	bases	centered around
collect	varieties	various
cluster	parts	
string together	species/kinds	

subclassify	sources
subcategorize	subgroup
subdivide	criteria
	features/characteristics

The basic structures utilized in the classification pattern are the following:

X	consists of comprises	Y	according to whether or not there is Z

X	may be might be can be could be	classified categorized grouped divided subdivided	(into …)	according to … depending (up) on … on the basis of …

We	may might can could	classify categorize group divide subdivide	(into …)	according to … depending (up) on … on the basis of …

There are	two, etc. several few very few	aspects categories divisions kinds methods qualities types	of X …

Exemplification

"Exemplification is the process of illustrating a general principle, statement, or law by citing specific examples. It is the act of showing or illustrating by using examples" (D'Angelo, 1977, p. 184). If, in a research paper, examples are given from real life, they provide better explanations in illustrating and clarifying the unknown concept. Examples are useful not only to clarify the statement but also to support the claim made in the text. As in inductive reasoning, a generalization is supported with a reasonable number of examples. In giving a generalization, one has to make sure that it is a statement of fact (1), not a statement of opinion (2), or inference (3).

(1) Ahmet is working hard.
(2) It is unfortunate that Ahmet is not working today.
(3) Ahmet will probably fail the course this semester.

Among the vocabulary items utilized in exemplification, the following are the most common ones:

NOUNS	VERBS	ADJECTIVES		ADVERBS
example	show	typical		generally
instance	exemplify	illustrative	always	
sample	illustrate	particular	invariably	
case	cite			particularly
specimen	quote			namely

OTHER EXPRESSIONS

for example	exemplified by	for one thing
for instance	as illustrated by	as an example
to illustrate	in other words	as proof
as follows	as an illustration	to substantiate
as shown		on the whole
to give an example		such as
to provide a case		that is

Aside from the cited phrases, the following constructions are frequently encountered in exemplification themes:

X (a specific example)	shows exemplifies illustrates	Y (a general category)

Such Ys as Y's such as (Y= items belonging to a general category)	X1 and X2 ...... (X= examples of Y)

D'Angelo suggests the following to be kept in mind during the process of exemplification (1977, p. 187):

- Stating the generalization in a single declarative sentence and adding qualification to the statement when necessary
- Beginning the supporting paragraph with an expression such as "for example," " for instance," "one example," etc.
- Choosing examples related to one's experience
- Arranging ideas in order of importance

<u>Comparison and Contrast</u>

Comparison is a process of identifying the similarities and differences of two or more items as a result of a thorough examination. In comparison, answers to two main questions are investigated:

- How is **X** similar to **Y**?
- How does **X** differ from **Y**?

D'Angelo talks about two similarities (1-2) and two differences   (3-4):

1.   *Literal similarity*: likeness between subjects that belong to the same class
e.g. Both of his suits are black.

2.   *Figurative similarity*: likeness between subjects that belong to different classes
e.g. They climbed up the coconut tree like   monkeys.

3.   *Difference in kind*: differences in common traits or aspects of items
e.g. The coconut tree is tall but the pine is not.

4.   *Difference in degree*: different degrees of the same quality
e.g. Oranges have sweeter flavor than   grapefruit.

The following sequence of steps are suggested by D'Angelo (1977) in exploring a topic through comparison:
- Choose a subject that is interesting enough to provoke imagination.
- Look at the items to be compared from a new logical point of view.
- Consider the insight you want to put into your writing in order to create the same impression on your reader.
- Be sure there are enough characteristics or features to be compared.
- Try to include the most significant features in your   comparison. (p. 97)

The following patterns are frequently observed in writings expressing comparison:

Structures Commonly Used in Comparison

X	corresponds to comparable to is like is similar to	Y	… in …

A comparison between X and Y	demonstrates reveals suggests	…

Both X and Y X and Y _____ In the same that X …,	… have … in common. _____ Y …

Structures Commonly Used in Contrast

X	differs from is different from	Y	… in …

The difference between	X and Y	is	…

In contrast to Unlike	X,	Y … (main clause)

Although While Whereas	X …, (clause)	Y … (main clause)

Y … ; (main clause)	in contrast, however, on the other hand, yet, nevertheless	X … (clause)

X	is/are was/were etc.	… er more/less …	than	Y

Structures Indicating Comparison / Contrast

X	is are was were etc.	a great deal considerably (very) much (quite) a lot rather somewhat a bit (only) a little slightly scarcely hardly etc.	greater taller bigger ticker harder larger softer smaller _____ important noticeable known	than as compared to	Y

X	VERB	exactly precisely just virtually practically more or less almost nearly approximately about etc.	the same as	Y …

X	MODAL and NOT	VERB	entirely exactly quite	the same as as/so … as	Y

X	VERB	quite entirely totally completely	different from	Y

X and Y	are were look seem _____ VERB	quite entirely totally completely	different . _____ differently.

X and Y	are were	different dissimilar	in every	way. respect.

Argument

Organizational pattern for argument is used

1. to introduce a point of view,
2. to give one's own opinion,
3. to agree with others' opinions (doubtful/certain), or
4. to oppose others' opinion (doubtful/certain).

Common Patterns Used in Introducing a Point of View

The first thing	we have to consider to be considered	is	…

First of all,	we need	to consider	X

One of our main arguments		in favor of against	X	is that …

Common Patterns Used in Expressing One's Own Opinion

In my opinion, The way I see it,	X … (main clause)

It is a fact It is likely It is probable It is possible There is no doubt I believe I predict It appears to me From my perspective it seems	that … (noun clause)

Common Patterns Used to Agree with Others' Opinions

Cautious agreement:

X	may be correct	when he/she says in saying	that …

I We	tend to agree hesitate to disagree	that …

Non-emphatic agreement:

I We	agree with X when he/she	writes says	that …

I We	believe think	that …

Emphatic or strong agreement:

X	is certainly correct	when s/he	says	that …
___	_____	_____	writes	____
I	completely agree with		proposes	
We	thoroughly approve of	what X		
	disapprove of			
	am/are in total agreement/			
	disagreement with			

As X	states	so	well,	…
	expresses		eloquently,	(main clause)
	puts it		perceptively,	

I know of no better statement than that provided by ....
Given these circumstances, one could argue that ....
I thoroughly approve/ disapprove of ....
Clearly, ...
Undoubtedly, ...
I support the idea that ....

In my/our opinion,	it is clear	that …
From my/our point of view,	it is undoubtedly true	
	there is no question	

I am	convinced	that …
We are	sure	
	certain	

Common Patterns Used to Oppose Others' Opinion:

Partial disagreement:

X may be correct	; however,	…
	; on the other hand,	
	, but,	

I	rather disagree	with …
We	hesitate to agree	
	tend to disagree	

Strong disagreement:

I	completely disagree with	…
We	am in total disagreement with	
	thoroughly disapprove of	
	reject the idea	

If these organizational patterns of writing along with the most frequently used vocabulary items and common structures to be employed for different purposes are known and well practiced, then the task of writing the first draft of the research paper becomes much easier.

EXERCISES

A.   Bring into class some articles or short essays and try to indicate the organizational pattern(s) in each text. Underline the words that are specific to that organizational pattern.

B.   Pick three organizational patterns and try to write a paragraph or a short text of three or four paragraphs making use of the suggested patterns and transition words.