

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

In this chapter the writer starts from the definition of argument, Argument pattern, graphical concept, plausible argument, definition of debate, the type of debate system, and the situation over the motion.

#### **2.1 Argument**

There are several definitions of argument. Angell (1964) holds that an argument is a concluding statement justified by at least one reason. However, other such as Govier (1987) defines an argument as a statement where the premises are stated to provide a means of proving or justifying a conclusion. Homer-Dixon and Karapin (1989) hold that an argument is an asserting statement supported by one or more reasons why it should be.

Argument is used to influence someone to do something, by giving reasons or evidence for accepting a particular conclusion. The general and simple pattern of an argument in a natural language is that of statements or sentences supported by reasons and then a conclusion. Many arguments can also be formulated in a formal language. An argument in a formal language shows the logical form of the natural language arguments obtained by its interpretations. Formal logic provides conceptual testing of arguments based on mathematical rules and human decisions critical audiences.

The formal structure of reasoning gives us special opportunities to make analyses of lines of reasoning and to test their validity. The methods and terminologies of both the classical and the contemporary structures are now widely used in argumentation. Therefore, more often than not, the test of an argument in debate is not whether it is true or false, but rather, is it strong or not.

The method of argument analysis of this study adopted the pioneering work of the philosopher Stephen Toulmin (1958; Toulmin et al., 1984).

## 2.2 Argument Pattern

According to the Monash Association of Debater Handbook (2010, P. 16), an argument should be consisted of four aspects. They are Assertion, Reasoning, Evidence, and Link Back.

1. Assertion – the statement which should be proved.

This a statement encapsulated in ONE sentence, which answers the following question: Why the judges should support your proposition? If you don't manage to formulate your assertion in one sentence, you'd better drop this argument. In most of the cases it will be a failure.

2. Reasoning – the reason why that statement is logical. It isn't enough to state something. It is equally important to explain your statement. So if you make a statement youu should explain to the adjudicators: Whyyour assetion is true and logical?
3. Evidence – examples/data that support the assertion and reasoning above. It isn't enough to claim and explain something. Why the judges should believe you? It is important to substantiate your claim and explanation with facts, statistics and experts' opinions (we call this staff – evidence).
4. Link Back – the explanation of the relevance of this argument to the motion. As you have talked a lot explaining the argument and substantiating it with evidence. The judges might have forgotten what the whole staff is about. So it is worth to remind them your assertion for the second time thus making a conclusion.

Meanwhile, according to Van Dijk as cited in Rashidi & Souzandehfar (2010) proposes a conceptual framework to construct an argument. The framework consists of two main discursive strategies of positive self-representation (semantic macro-strategy of in-group favoritism) and negative other-representation (semantic macro-strategy of derogation of out-group) which are represented in discursive moves such as actor description, authority, burden (Topos), categorization, comparison, consensus, counterfactuals, disclaimer, euphemism, evidentiality, example/illustration, generalization, hyperbole,

implication, irony, lexicalization, metaphor, self-glorification, norm expression, number game, polarization, US-Them, populism, presupposition, vagueness, victimization.

Whereas formal logic provides for rigorous testing of arguments based on almost mathematical rules, most human decisions, even by critical audiences, are made on a basis of more practical reasoning. Therefore in debate, more often than not, the test of an argument is not whether it is true or false, but rather, is it strong or weak. According to Freeley, Austin J. and David (2008, p. 163), Philosopher Stephen Toulmin offers a model for better understanding the structure of practical reasoning that occurs in any argument. He maintains that six elements can be found in any wholly explicit argument: (1) claims, (2) grounds, (3) warrants, (4) backing, (5) qualifier, and (6) rebuttals.

Stephen Toulmin, whose concept of the elements of any argument has come into common use. The formal structure of these methods of reasoning gives us special opportunities to make astute analyses of lines of reasoning and to test their validity. The methods and terminologies of both the classical and the contemporary structures are now widely used in argumentation, and students should have a working knowledge of both. To be accepted by the audience, Toulmin suggests that an argument contain the interrelated parts.

## **1. Claims**

Claim is the main point, the thesis, the controlling idea. The claim may be directly stated (usually at the first of a text, but sometimes at the end, especially for effect) or the claim may be implied. The writer can find the claim by asking the question, "What is the writer trying to prove?" Examples would include:

- *Vitamins are good for you.*
- *Breast self-examination saves lives.*
- *Mrs. Smith should take hydrochlorothiazide.*

These claims, on their own, lack any reasoned support to determine whether they are true or false despite the fact that they may be true or false. More is required to establish this.

## 2. Data

These are the reasons given in support of the claim; they are also known as evidence, proof, data, arguments, or grounds. The support of a claim can come in the form of facts and statistics, expert opinions, examples, explanations, and logical reasoning. The writer can find the support by asking, "What does the writer say to persuade the reader of the claim?"

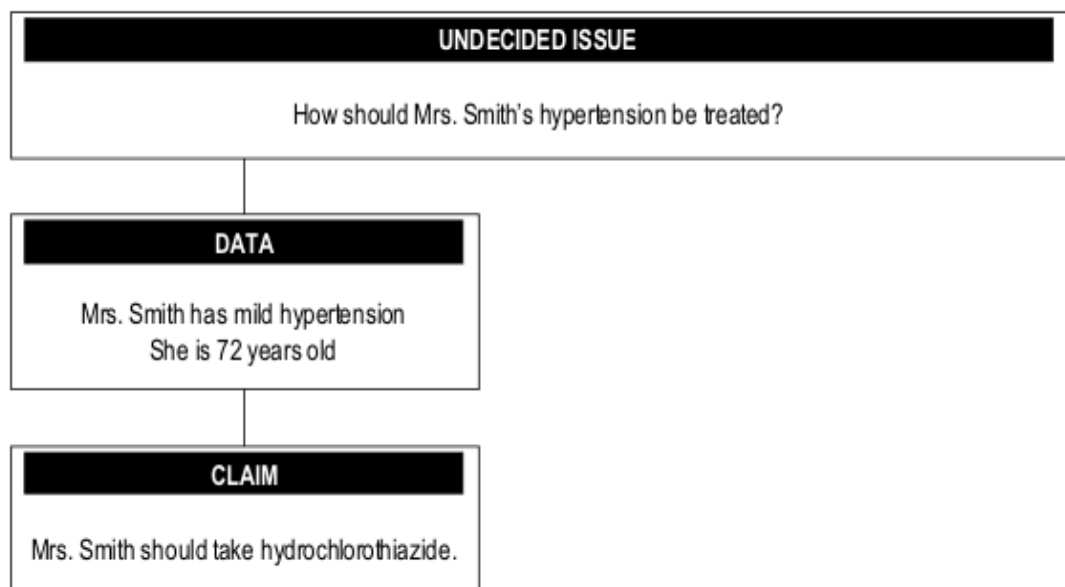


Figure 1 the example of data

(Source: <http://individual.utoronto.ca>)

## 3. Warrants

Even after presenting data that acts as the foundation for an argument, you may be asked "How did you get there?". In other words, can you somehow justify the leap from the data you've provided to the claim?

Supporting the step between data and the claim is the warrant (W). A warrant is distinct from the data and the claim and acts as a bridge between them. The movement from data to the claim through the use of a warrant forms a Stage 2

argument. You should note that warrants are often implicit (i.e. left unstated) in arguments.

Mrs. Smith may then ask why this particular medication. Essentially, you are being requested to supply a warrant for your decision. Quite simply, you've prescribed this medication because it is effective at lowering blood pressure.

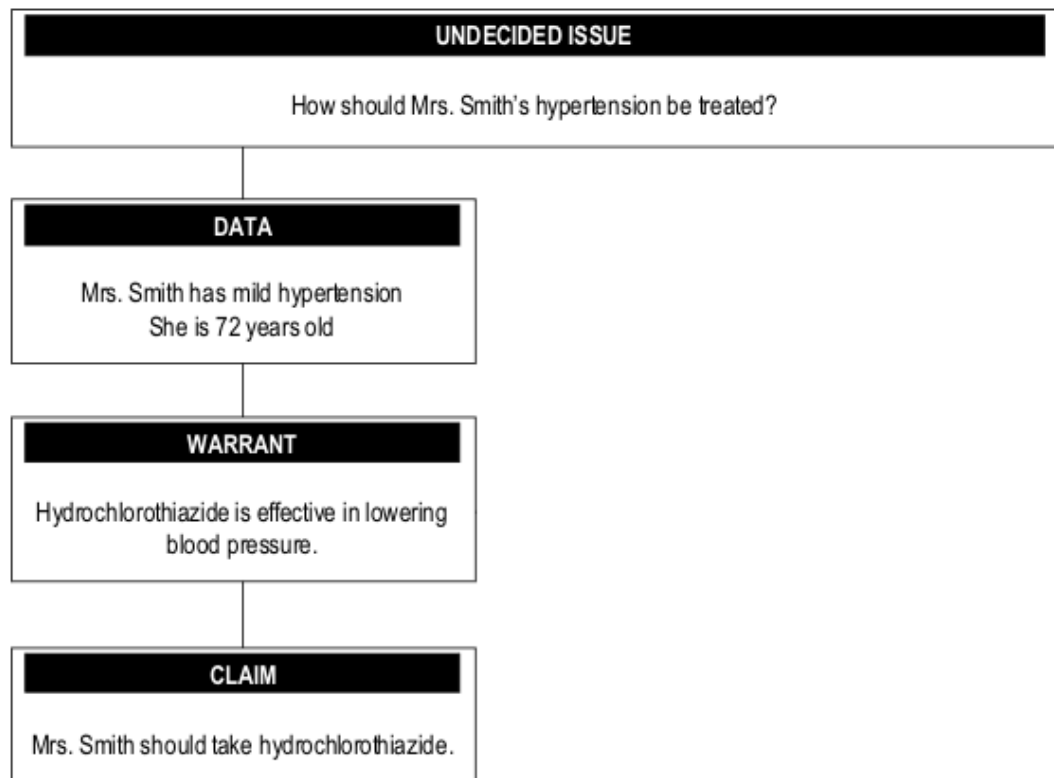


Figure 2 the example of warrant  
(Source: <http://individual.utoronto.ca>)

#### 4. Backing

One may call into question the validity of the warrant. To demonstrate the validity of the warrant it may be necessary to introduce additional data, information or possibly other arguments as backing (B) to a warrant. Example:

*You've told Mrs. Smith that hydrochlorothiazide will lower her blood pressure. But she may respond "How do you know?"*

The ranges of possible answers available to you as her physician include the following:

1. *Because I'm a doctor (intuition/authority)*
2. *Because in my experience it works (experience)*
3. *Because it interferes with a specific biochemical process that will lower blood pressure (basic science)*
4. *Because many well designed studies have shown that the drug is effective in lowering blood pressure (clinical science)*

Clearly there is a wide variety of available warrants for use in an argument with some being stronger than others. With the use of stronger warrants we become more confident in the validity of the argument and are more likely to accept the claim.

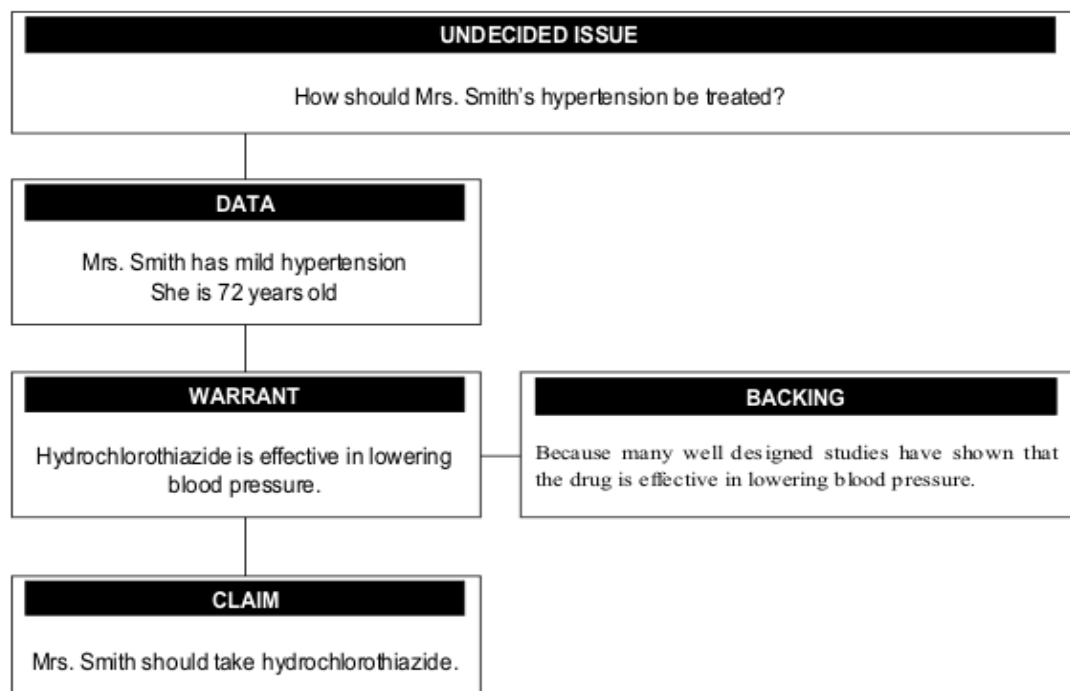


Figure 3 the example of backing  
(Source: <http://individual.utoronto.ca>)

## 5. Qualifiers

As most arguments are not absolute in nature, Toulmin introduced qualifiers (Q) into his model as a way to express the relative strengths of warrants in supporting the conclusions that they justify. If a warrant allows us to unequivocally accept a claim given the appropriate data, we can qualify the claim with "*definitely*" or "*necessarily*". *Qualifier(s)*, or a word such as "necessarily," "probably," and "presumably" that indicates how strong a warrant entitles the claim to be.

If there is any uncertainty surrounding the warrant we may be forced to qualify the claim with terms such as "*probably*" or "*possibly*". By convention the qualifier is considered separate from the warrant. Many arguments do not contain this explicit reference, this would not prevent Toulmin from holding this element, at least implicitly,

Taking hydrochlorothiazide does not necessarily guarantee that blood pressure will be lowered. In this case we need to qualify our warrant by stating that hydrochlorothiazide is usually effective in lowering blood pressure.

## 6. Rebuttals

A rebuttal (R) acknowledges limitations of the argument and may be put forward to indicate conditions in which the warrant is not applicable and consequently the conclusion can be overturned.

A rebuttal in the case of Mrs. Smith may be that she is currently on a medication that interacts with hydrochlorothiazide. A more efficacious medication may be suggested and thus act as a rebuttal. Perhaps Mrs. Smith's particular set of values, whatever they may be, prevent her from using the medication.

With the introduction of qualifiers and the search for counterclaims and rebuttals, the Toulmin model can be used to analyze more complex Stage 3 and 4 arguments such as those commonly encountered in the practice of medicine.

According to the various pattern of arguments, the writer chose Toulmin's Argument Pattern as the framework to construct the good argument. It is because,

the pattern is an effective way of getting to the how and why levels of the arguments we read. It allows us to break an argument into its different parts (such as claim, reasons, and evidence), it emphasizes not only claim, reasons, and evidence, but also the social context in which an argument occurs: the attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions that people must hold in order to say that certain reasons are good. Indeed, the Toulmin model has been used as a heuristic tool to teach the logic of English argumentation and to identify and generate well-established arguments for students.

### 2.3 Graphical Concept

An argument can be very complex; it may include more than one counter argument which contradicts a given claim. Arguments are evaluated based on three criteria namely the acceptability of the supporting reason and whether the reason supports the conclusion, or relevance (Fisher, 1988) and the extent to which the argument support the contradiction of the conclusion (Angell, 1964). Many scholars use a graphical concept to visualize the elements of Toulmin model as illustrated in Figure 4.

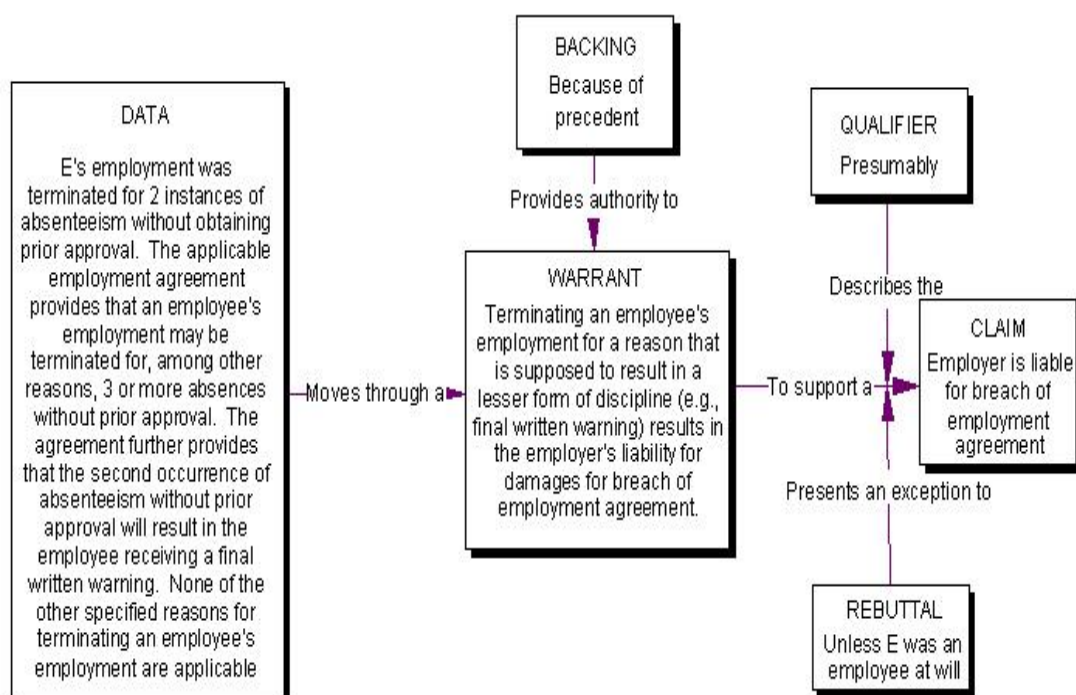




Figure 4 Graphical concept of Toulmin's argument pattern  
(Source: <http://projects.kmi.open.ac.uk/VisualizingArgumentation>)

This graph shows the basic elements roughly from top to bottom helping us navigating the line of argument.

## 2.4 Plausible Argument

According to Walton, Douglas (1992) plausibility of the argument can be seen and identified by the relevance, sufficiency and validity of the data students cited as evidence for their claims. Plausibility has to do with the structure of arguments to the extent that specific data are used to provide warrants for claims. Yet, judgments of plausibility are inherently content-based—they cannot be made without reference to what the argument is about. In this case, this meant that plausibility was judged in terms of whether or not students cited enough of the relevant data and to what extent the data are logical to justify their claims in each of the four elements.

The plausibility is identified by inferencing implicit meanings of warrants, supported claims, reasoning, lines of possible attack, and structural relations between elements in the student debate argument. The writer used the graphical template of argument elements and relations as a guide in analyzing the debate. The writer examined debater causal explanations for ideas of the use of violent revolution to separate from Indonesia. It is assumed that the data that students used to support or refute claims in their explanation reflect the conceptions that might be built on through debate.

## 2.5 Debate

A debate usually involves two sides talking about a topic (often called a motion). As a competition, the teams attempt to show the adjudicators that they have the best debating skills. Being the best debaters does not mean that the debater's opinion has to coincide with that of the adjudicators.

According to Freeley, Austin J. and David (2008, p. 06) debate is the process of inquiry and advocacy, a way of arriving at a reasoned judgment on a

proposition. Individuals may use debate to reach a decision in their own minds; alternatively, individuals or groups may use it to bring others around to their way of thinking. Debate provides reasoned arguments for and against a proposition. It requires two competitive sides engaging in a bipolar clash of support for and against that proposition. Because it requires that listeners and opposing advocates comparatively evaluate competing choices, debate demands critical thinking. Society, like individuals, must have an effective method of making decisions. A free society is structured in such a way that many of its decisions are arrived at through debate. For example, law courts and legislative bodies are designed to utilize debate as their means of reaching decisions. In fact, any organization that conducts its business according to parliamentary procedures has selected debate as its method. Debate pervades our society at decision-making levels.

According to Finkel, Victor (2010, p. 06), debating is a form of argumentation formalized where the winner is the team that most effectively persuades the adjudicators. The argumentation in a debate is a process whereby humans use reason to communicate claims to one another (Action-Heather et al., 2003, p. 08). According to this definition, the focus reason becomes the feature that distinguishes argumentation from other modes of rhetoric. When people argue with one another, not only do they assert claims but they also assert reasons they believe the claims to be plausible or probable. Argumentation is a primary tool of debate, but it serves other activities as well. Argumentation is, for instance, an important tool in negotiation, conflict resolution, and persuasion. Debate is an activity that could hardly exist without argumentation. While according to Zarefsky, David (2005, p. 06) argumentation is the study of effective reasoning. Arguing is reason giving, where reasons are justifications or support for claims. Rationality is the ability to engage in reason giving. The alternative to reason giving is to accept or reject claims on whim or command.

During the debate, a debater assembles and organizes effective arguments, persuades and entertains an audience, and use the language to convince the audiences especially adjudicators that his/ her arguments outweigh his/ her opposition's. An argument is a collection of statements organized in a way that

highlights connections between those ideas to demonstrate that because some of the statements in the collection are believed to be true, other statements in the collection should be accepted as true (Johnson, S.L., 2009, p. 17).

Debating is not about personal abuses, irrational attack or purely emotional appeal, debate is an activity to ensure the judges that their arguments are stronger than the opposites and also by showing some evidences to justify and persuade them which are valid or correct in order to win the debate.

According to the explanations above, the writer take the definition of the debate as a method of formally presenting an argument in a disciplined manner and with the good strategies to construct strong arguments so that, it can influence to the winning decision.

## **2.6 Debate System**

The following description about a debate is based on Johnson, S.L. (2009, p. 104) Each speaker must fulfill certain roles for a team to perform well and for a good debate to occur. While role fulfillment is mandatory and marked under method, these guidelines are also the most effective and powerful way to present a debating speech. The format of these guidelines is British Parliamentary.

The teams on each side in a British Parliamentary round cooperate using a very similar approach. Two teams, known as the Opening Government and Closing Government, are responsible for arguing on behalf of the topic, known as a motion in British Parliamentary debating. Two more teams—the Opening Opposition and Closing Opposition—are responsible for arguing against the motion. Each of these teams is comprised of two debaters, each of whom has a unique name in the debate.

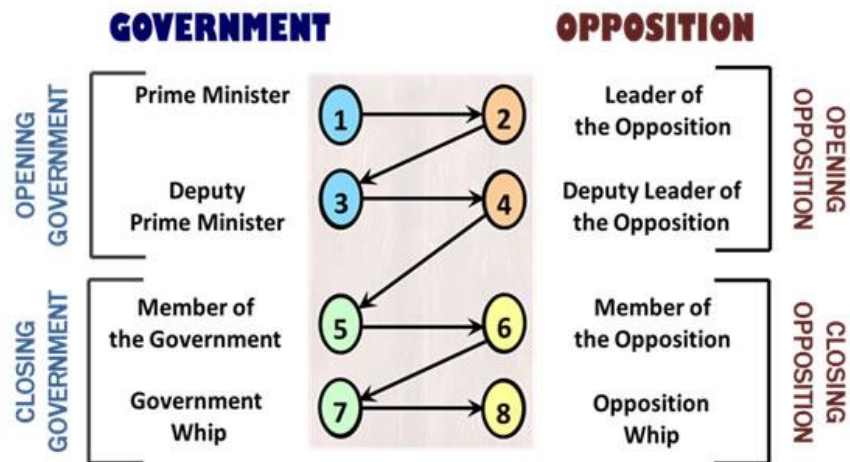


Figure 5: British Parliamentary Debate System

(Source: <https://jogjadebatingforum.files.wordpress.com/2014/10/british-format.jpg>)

Each debater gives one 7-minute speech in a BP round, beginning with the first speaker for the Opening Government (the Prime Minister) and alternating between the Government and Opposition until each debater has spoken. Here are the role of each speaker's description from Agustina, Lely & Bahrani (2016).

#### Speaker Responsibilities for British Parliamentary Debate

Speaker	Speaker Responsibilities
<i>Prime Minister</i> 1 <sup>st</sup> speaker for 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition:	Defines and interprets the motion. Develops the case for the proposition.
<i>Leader of Opposition</i> 1 <sup>st</sup> speaker for 1 <sup>st</sup> opposition:	Accepts the definition of the motion. Refutes the case of the 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition. Constructs one or more arguments against the Prime Minister's interpretation of the motion.

<i>Deputy Prime Minister</i> 2 <sup>nd</sup> speaker for 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition:	Refutes the case of the 1 <sup>st</sup> opposition. Rebuilds the case of the 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition. May add new arguments to the case of the 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition.
<i>Deputy Leader of Opposition</i> 2 <sup>nd</sup> speaker for 1 <sup>st</sup> opposition:	Continues refutation of case of 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition. Rebuilds arguments of the 1 <sup>st</sup> opposition. May add new arguments to the case of the 1 <sup>st</sup> opposition.
<i>Member of Government</i> 1 <sup>st</sup> speaker for 2 <sup>nd</sup> proposition:	Defends the general direction and case of the 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition. Continues refutation of 1 <sup>st</sup> opposition team. Develops a new argument that is different from but consistent with the case of the 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition (sometimes called an extension).
<i>Member of Opposition</i> 1 <sup>st</sup> speaker for 2 <sup>nd</sup> opposition:	Defends the general direction taken by the 1 <sup>st</sup> opposition. Continues general refutation of 1 <sup>st</sup> proposition case. Provides more specific refutation of 2 <sup>nd</sup> opposition. Provides new opposition arguments.
<i>Government Whip</i> 2 <sup>nd</sup> speaker for 2 <sup>nd</sup> proposition:	Summarizes the entire debate from the point of view of the proposition, defending the general view point of both proposition teams with a special eye toward the case of the 2 <sup>nd</sup> proposition. Does not provide new arguments.

<i>Opposition Whip</i> 2 <sup>nd</sup> speaker for 2 <sup>nd</sup> opposition:	Summarizes the entire debate from the point of view of the opposition, defending the general view point of both opposition teams with a special eye toward the case of the 2 <sup>nd</sup> opposition.  Does not provide new arguments.
---	---

Table 1: Speaker Responsibilities for British Parliamentary Debate

(Source: <http://cambridgeschools.cus.org>)

## 2.7 The Situation over the Motion

In the Grand Final of National University Debate Championship (NUDC) 2016, Bina Nusantara University, Brawijaya University, Indonesia University, and Gadjah Mada University debate over the motion This House Believe That Separatist Movement in Eastern Indonesia (e.g Republik Maluku Selatan, Organisasi Papua Merdeka, Gerakan Sulawesi Merdeka ) should unite, take arms and conduct a violent revolution to succeed from the Republic of Indonesia. In this study the debaters of each team tried to construct their good argument and deliver it to the adjudicators in order to convince the adjudicators. Using Toulmin's model of argument, this study investigated how the debaters of each team making their ideas and persuaded their adjudicators by utilizing discourse structure in their speech.