

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter the writer starts from the definition of discourse analysis, argument, debate, the concept of debate, the debate structure, displaying structure in graphical argument, the advantages of the Toulmin's Model and Karapin's Model and plausible argument.

2.1 Discourse Analysis

The study of debate involves content analysis. Linguistic content of human language is investigated through discourse analysis. According to Stubbs (1983:1), discourse analysis concerned with (a) language use beyond the boundaries of a sentence or utterance, (b) the interrelationships between language and society and (c) the interactive or dialogic properties of everyday communication. The same definition also claimed by Linguistic Society of America (2012); discourse analysis is sometimes defined as the analysis of language 'beyond the sentence'. This contrasts with types of analysis more typical of modern linguistics, which are chiefly concerned with the study of grammar. Both definition has the same idea where discourse analysis means analysis of languages that used beyond the sentences or focuses on the structure of naturally spoken language as found in conversation interviews, commentaries and speeches which are concerned with the study of grammar.

To understand a debate, we need to study what an argument is. This is because arguments are main components of a debate. If there is no argument inside the debate, the debate will not happen. In other words, a debate is media to deliver an

argument. A debate is effective if it is well structured, strongly related and follows standard format of debate.

2.2 Argument

The expert define the arguments in their own way. Taylor (2007) states that an “argument” is a logically connected series of reasons, statements, or facts (evidence) used to support or establish an idea or point of view. The purpose of argument is to persuade the reader to accept the claim as true, and/or to undertake some action. That opinion also in line with Michigan Association of Intermediate School Administrators (2012), an argument is an opinion supported by facts. The writers refer to opinions as claims and facts as evidence. The claim clearly states a stance on a topic or issues while the evidence to prove this claim including reasons, personal experience, statistics, confirmed facts, and expert research.

From both theories above, there are similar definitions among them. The writer can conclude that argument is an opinion or statement that is followed by reasons and facts to support the claim or point of view to reach the premise or the conclusion. Meanwhile the purpose of argument itself is used to persuade the reader to accept the claim as true, and/or to undertake some action.

Other definition of argument also delivered by Johnson (2007), he believe that arguments are composed of three components: *claim*, *support*, and *inference*. *Claim* is a statement that a person says to make other person accept the argument. *Support* is an idea or set of ideas that are accepted as true and provide the claim. The discovery of the connection is known as *inference*. Meanwhile Sonreich (2012) states that there are three basic formats that are necessary to have a properly formed argument. They are idea, analysis, and evidence. Idea refers to the concept or proposition to prove. Analysis means (the process) of why the idea is likely to be true – why it is logical

and reasonable to believe it. Evidence is most commonly presented by case study or analogy.

Johnson and Sonreich have different opinions about the elements of the argument, but they succeed to make a good argument from each format of elements. Johnson states that there are three elements; they are claim, support, and inference while Sonreich believe that there are also three basic components of arguments with different terms; they are idea, analysis, and evidence.

Arguments are main components of a debate. Because without argument a debate will not happen. The speakers must deliver their argument in term of to convince the adjudicators. To convince the adjudicators itself, the speakers don't have to make a long argument but otherwise they have to make plausible argument. The plausible argument means the arguments that have "line argument". This line arguments can be learnt from Toulmin's Model of Argumentation that has introduced by the Stephen Toulmin (1958; Toulmin et al., 1984).

2.3 Debate

Since the era of globalization, all of things in this world seemed to be developed. The functions of language also develop. Not only for communication among people, language is also used to deliver an argument and also give the solution toward the problem that exist. Debate is one of any media to deliver the arguments and give point of view about a problem using language.

According to 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. Both of the experts believe that a debate is the way of speaker to deliver their own minds that followed by reasoned argument. This reasoned argument will be made to reach the decision or solving the issue that exist. Reasoned argument also can be defined as the logical argument that has a strong structure.

A debate needs to be learned because a debate gives many benefits. According to Idebate.org (2011), the process of debate offers profound and lasting benefits for individuals, for societies and for the global community as a whole. With its emphasis on critical thinking, effective communication, independent research and teamwork, debate teaches skills that serve individuals well in school, in the workplace, in political life and in fulfilling their responsibilities as citizens of democratic societies. Those benefits are often get in learning and teaching activities like usual. It can be easy to be learnt in debate activity, because in debate you can sharpen your critical thinking and give the solution toward the problem. At the end, you also can learn on how you can do good communicate with others. The same idea about the value of debate coming from Austin J. Freely and David (2008; p.8), people need to debate both to maintain freedom of speech and to provide a methodology for investigation of and judgment about contemporary problems.

According to the explanations above, the writer take the definition of debate as a way of speaker on how they have to deliver their own minds followed by a strong argument to reach the decision about an issue that exist. From the side of value, debate itself is a media for freedom of speech in public, to train the speaker's logic so it can result critical thinking, and a way to solve a problem.

2.4 The Concept of Debate

A debate system consists of a description of the teams, the roles and the times for each speaker in debate. In academic system, there are two common types of debate. They are British Parliamentary System and Australia/Asian Parliamentary Debate. Asian Parliamentary System sometimes called three on three debate because each team consist of three debaters in government side and three debaters opposition side. Tim Sonreich (2012:28) in book Monash Association of Debaters argued that Asian Parliamentary system has some roles that must be fulfilled by debaters to make the debate runs well. 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 this guideline is Australian/Asian Parliamentary.

There are certain things that each speaker *must* do, in order to fulfil their role in the debate. The following are the roles in debate:

1. There are two sides in debate. Affirmative or Government sides and Negative or Opposition sides (the Affirmative, who argue in favor of a topic; and the Negative, who argue against it)
2. Each side consist of three speakers
3. A topic/motion is set for each debate
4. Teams are given one hour to prepare their argument (brainstorming)
5. Each speaker is given 7 minutes to deliver their argument.
6. Speakers alternate between the teams, from First Affirmative through to Third Negative, as follows:
7. The details role of each speaker in Debate

Speaker	Government	Opposition
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First	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contextualize the debate • Define any unclear parts of the motion • Introduce a model, if necessary • Outline a team split • Make 2-3 arguments in favor of the motion • Conclusion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Re-contextualize the debate • Resolve any definitional issues • Introduce a counter-model, if necessary • Outline a team split • Rebut the arguments made by the first affirmative • Make 2-3 arguments in favor of the motion • Conclusion
Second	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resolve any definitional issues, if necessary • Rebut the arguments made by the first negative • Make 2-3 arguments in favor of the motion • Conclusion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rebut the arguments made by the second affirmative • Make 2-3 arguments in favor of the motion • Conclusion
Third	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intro – core clash • Rebut and summarize the debate • Summary and conclusion 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intro – core clash • Rebut and summarize the debate • Summary and conclusion

8. 2-6 minutes opposition is pleased to give any Points of Information (POI)

During each of these speeches, debaters from the opposite side may ask for the opportunity to interrupt the speaker. Known as (or POIs), these interjections are short questions or statements taken at the discretion of the debater holding the floor. A debater may request the opportunity to present a Point of Information (either verbally or by rising) from a speaker on the opposite side of the motion at any time after the first minute and before the last minute of any speech. The debater holding the floor may accept or refuse POIs at her discretion.

If accepted, the debater asking the POI has approximately 15 seconds to make a statement or ask a question. During the POI, the speaking time continues to run. Following the POI, the primary speaker resumes her/his speech and is expected to integrate her/his response to the POI into her/his speech. Debaters are judged on their efforts (successful or not) to offer POIs and to respond to POIs.

2.5 Debate Structure

According to Russel (1983:p.31) structure is the arrangement between the parts or elements that can be used to portray the argument. The structure used to determine whether reasons and evidence are provides a complete rational argument for the claim that being presented. A suitable structure capable for making an analysis toward an argument, for instance the structure that provided by Toulmin (1958) in *The Uses of Argument*. In his introduction. Toulmin indicates that there are six possible elements of an argument and their proper relationship to each other. The three most basic elements are Claim, Data, and warrant. The three additional elements are Backing, Qualifier, and Rebuttal (Capitalization of the first letters indicates use of terms in the sense given by Toulmin.). Toulmin also elaborated the elements in a

structure of argument. The following are the basic information regarding the elements.

1. Claim

Claim is the main point, the thesis statement, or the controlling idea. The claim may be directly stated (usually at the first of a text, but sometimes at the end of the argument, especially for effect) or the claim may be implied. The reader can find the claim as a thesis statement or as the main point if the argument is in inductive reasoning. According to Bradford (In the Journal of Deductive Reasoning and Inductive Reasoning, 2017), inductive reasoning is the generalizations from specific observation. Basically there is data, then the conclusion are drawn from the data or this claim can be called as major premise. The reader can also find the claim as the conclusion from data, warrant, and other elements that involved of the argument (because the type of the argument is in deductive reasoning). Deductive reasoning is a basic form of valid reasoning. It starts out with a general statement or hypothesis and examine the possibilities to reach a specific, logical conclusion. Deductive reasoning usually follows steps. First, there is a premise, then a second premise, and finally an inference. A common form of deductive reasoning is the syllogism in which two statements (a major premise and a minor premise) reach a logical reasoning. This deductive reasoning of the argument is hold in debate. The writer can find the claim as the conclusion from the major premise (or data element in debate) and minor premise (or warrant element in debate). Last, the writer can simply prove the claim by asking the question for example, “what is the writer trying to prove in this paper, essay, journal, etc?” In the structure of Toulmin model, claim is abbreviated as C.

2. Support (Data)

Support or Data are also known as evidence, proof, or grounds of an argument or information. 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?". The first minimum extension (made by Toulmin himself in his recent textbook on reasoning, 1984) allowed *generalizations or statements about classes of individuals* to function as data, as in "The primary function of automobiles is transportation." In addition to simple generalizations, it was also common to find a general statement functioning as a datum for a claim, backed up by examples or instances. While it is possible to treat the examples in turn as data supporting the generalization, supported by a warrant such as "Given x examples we can draw a general conclusion," this seems awkward and somehow misses the flavor of examples, which often function as much to explicate the generalization as to support it. Also, in some cases, such as an existence proof, the number of examples does not matter at all -- you only need one. Thus we found it desirable at times to represent examples as part of a single complex datum consisting of a generalization and instances. Beside the data can be in form of general statements, the data also are appealed to explicitly. Means that the writer should clearly mention the data that support the claim. Last, the data can be divided into two categories. They are strong data and weak data. Strong data is the data that consist of numerical form. Such as the amount of something, the percentages, the statistic, and so on. The weak data is the data that only consist of assumption that is not supported by evidence or even the fact. In the structure of Toulmin model, claim is abbreviated as D.

3. Warrants

These are the assumptions or presuppositions underlying the argument. Warrants are almost always unstated and implied. Warrants are important because

they are the "common ground" of the writer and audience; shared warrants invite the audience to participate by unconsciously supplying part of the argument. Generally, warrant is hypothetical (and often implicit) logical statements that serve as bridges between the claim and the data. This warrant can also be accepted as the authority. In the structure of Toulmin model, claim is abbreviated as W.

4. Backing

Backing element also can be called secondary evidence/reason. Because this element refers to the general conditions that support the acceptability or authority of a Warrant (Toulmin: pp. 101-103). The purpose of this element is to make the warrant more believable or further "back up" to the argument. This "backing" of warrant should be analyzed very carefully, because it precisely the claim, data, warrant, and condition of rebuttal deserve some clarification. In the structure of Toulmin model, claim is abbreviated as B.

5. Qualifiers

Qualifiers indicate the degree of force with which the Data support the Conclusion, as when a Conclusion is only probable, rather than necessary, given the available Data. The statement that being a qualifier should limit the strength of the argument or propose the conditions under which the argument is true. Instead the writers may need to qualify (tone down) their claim with expressions like many, many times, some or rarely, few, possibly, so, enough, and too. In the structure of Toulmin model, claim is abbreviated as Q.

6. Rebuttal

Rebuttal can be called attacking element. It's usually presented by opponents to deny the statement of one or more particular elements for example attacking the claim, data, warrant, and backing of an argument. The statement consist of Counter-statements that indicating circumstances when the general argument does not hold true. Besides, the rebuttal should give statement that can break the point of opposition. Rebuttal is abbreviated into R. Furthermore, in making an argument, rebuttal can come from the writer itself to find out the weakness of each point in the argument. The rebuttal should prepared well to make sure the argument plausible

According to the explanation above, the writer conclude that the structure is media to visualize the arrangement of elements. The elements divided into six categories. It is Claim, Data, Warrant, Backing, Qualifier and Rebuttal elements. This arrangement is used to show whether an argument is a well-reasoned argument or not according to Toulmin Model. In addition, Toulmin Method helps people to develop their critical thinking, analysis and decision making skills. In the structure of Toumin model, claim is abbreviated as R. The following is the example of Toulmin Model of Argumentation.

C: Harry is a British subject

D: Harry was born in Bermuda

W: A man born in Bermuda will generally be a British subject

B: The following statues and other legal provision

Q: Presumably

R: Both his parents were aliens/He has become a naturalized American

Note:

C: Claim

D: Data

W: Warrant

B: Backing

Q: Qualifier

R: Rebuttal

2.6 Displaying structure in Graphical Argument

An argumentative structure is frequently used in education (Anderson, 1984). It is used because it can help visualize the argument's non-linear and multi relational structure. Argumentative structure can show a debate structure with multiple relations. The writer does not mean that the structure of the graphical resembles a structure in someone's head. Eventually, the structure is constructed through debate; it should at least represent ideas of the debaters working at it. The structure is not developed in isolation, but combined affirmative and negative arguments. Moreover, it is expected that the structure in the structure may show argumentative interaction containing counterarguments, or weighing of arguments.

The structure probably will not portrays well-supported argument, as proposed by Toulmin. Instead, it will consist of several lines of argument relating the views from the debaters. The writer can independently decide on the structure of the graphical argument of debater. There are relations that can be analyzed in the graphical argument such as claim relation, data relation, warrant relation, backing relation, qualifier relation, and rebuttal relation. First, claim relation that is the relation among claim element, data element, and warrant element. Second, data relation that is the relation between the data and claim element. Third, warrant relation is the bridge that relates the data to the claim element. Fourth, backing relation that relates backing and warrant element. Then, qualifier relation that is showed by line connecting the data into claim. The last is rebuttal relation that is a line to show on how rebuttal element attacking other elements. Those relations can be seen in detail in the graphical analysis of argument. There are a lot of example about graphical concept that use to help visualize the argument's non-linear and multi relational structure, such as;

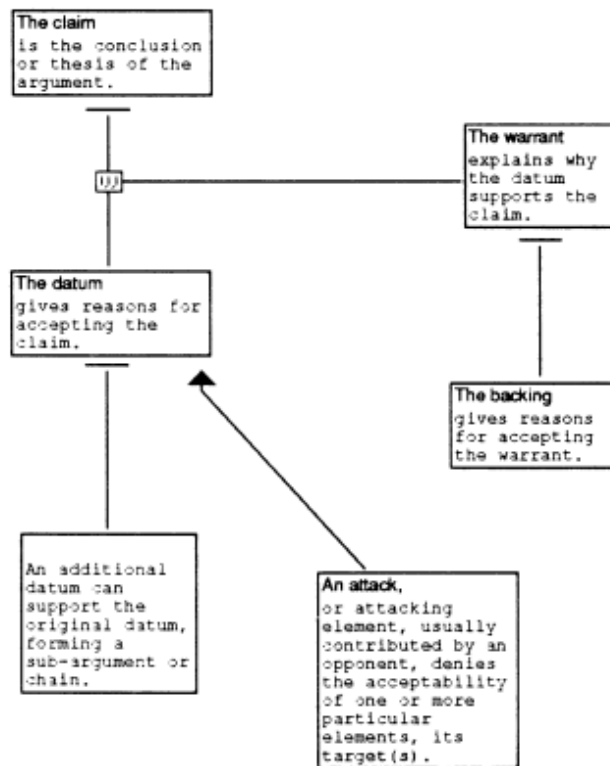


Figure 1

The graphical analysis, as illustrated in Figure 1, was used by adopting the approach proposed by Homer-Dixon and Karapin (1989) as the result of refinement from Toulmin model. The graph facilitates conceptual visualization to help the writer see the connections among relations. There are three kinds of relations in Graphical Argument Analysis. The first relation is support relation which is an informal inferential relation derived from relation between datum and claim (represented by a T-shaped symbol between these elements). The second relation, a warrant relation, is the link between a statement and the support relation symbolized by a "W" superimposed on the support relation. Finally, attack relation (visualized by a solid-headed arrow) suggests an attacking element to its oponent to indicate contradiction of the element under attack. This relation frequently shows that the attack is aimed to argue the believability or plausibility of the oponent idea. A successful attack weakens the target oponent element until the attack is satisfactorily responded. (Birnbaum, 1986).

Example of graphical argument from transcription of debate between Speaker A and Speaker B by Homer-Dixon and Karapin:

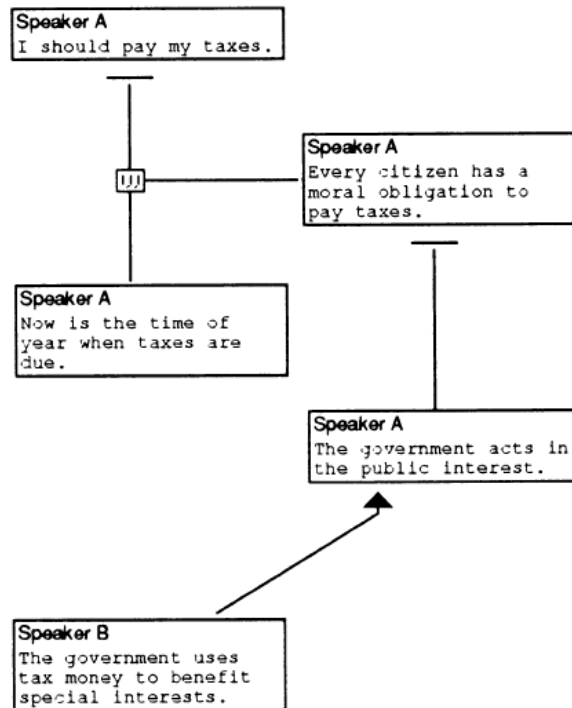


Figure 2

Graph of Simple Argument

The argument graph used in this study adopted the following Homer-Dixon and Karapin's illustration (1989). They illustrate the three relations in Figure 2 which shows a debate concerning an every-day issue: the reasons for paying taxes. Texts inside boxes (nodes) represent the statements of two debaters (Speaker A and Speaker B). Speaker A says that he should pay taxes with a datum saying that taxes are due. The speaker's statement justifies the move from datum to claim with the warrant that every citizen has a moral obligation to pay taxes. The warrant is then supported by the statement (backing) that the government acts on behalf of people. Speaker B attacks this backing, trying to jeopardize it and, in turn, A's warrant and main claim. Researchers can identify warrants that support relations by finding "if-then-because" rule, which states "if the datum, then the claim, because of the warrant." In this case if "now is the

time of year when taxes are due," then "I should pay my taxes," because "every citizen has a moral obligation to pay taxes."

2.7 The Advantages of Using Toulmin Model and Karapin Model

Toulmin's work has been widely influential in the various fields that touch on argumentation. According to Susan (1991:p.9), Toulmin model argumentation has initial contribution in logic and epistemology. His analysis of argument enabled him to find out relation between deductive and inductive reasoning and the relation between analytic and substantive reasoning. Toulmin's work has also influenced the field of rhetoric, such as created a classical taxonomy of argument types that is expressed within his framework (Brockreide and Ehringer, 1960). In addition, Toulmin's model has been used in cognitive science and education as an analysis tool for characterizing differences in expert-novice reasoning (Voss, 1983) and for use in evaluating students' argumentative writing (Hillocks, 1987). And finally, Toulmin himself has developed a textbook which uses his framework to teach reasoning skills to young adults through the process of producing and evaluating arguments (Toulmin et al., 1984).

Toulmin structures provide an intuitively plausible set of categories and relations for representing the logical structure of arguments organized in a distinctive graphical layout. Perhaps for these reasons, the structure has appealed to a number of researchers interested in argument representation tools. For example, David Lowe adapted it for SYNVIEW, a community knowledge structuring tool (1985, 1986); Taylor, et al. (1989) are using Toulmin structures as the representational substrate for constructing detailed argumentation to support recommendations for changes and initiatives in social service policy. Streitz and colleagues (1989) propose it as representational basis for the activity of structuring the logic of an argument independently of its rhetorical organization.

In term of those advantages in using Toulmin model of argumentation, the writer conclude that there are two main benefits. First, by using this model the writer can have the ability in making logical reasoning. Logical reasoning can be determine by seeing in detail the relation among the element based on arguments structure that proposed by Toulmin. Second, this

Toulmin model is benefit for evaluating students' argumentative writing. This is because in using this model the teacher can see the plausible and implausible argument of students by the structure of argument itself.

2.7 Plausible Argument

Plausibility shows that there is logical reasoning in data and also premise from an argument. According to Douglas (2014:p.163), plausibility of the argument identified by relevance, validity, and sufficient of the data students cited as evidence for their claims. Relevance means on how one data connected to another data that can make one argument complete. Then, valid means the data that is being used is legitimate and true based on the fact or evidence. The last is sufficient that showed the amount of data to give clear explanation to reach the claim/conclusion.

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 extend the data are logical to justify their claim. Moreover, Paul (1978) stated that arguments result only in plausibility. If the premises seem to be true, then it is justified to infer that the conclusion also seems to be true. The characteristic to be true is identified also by an explanation, or set of explanations, of the given body of evidence, or set of facts in a case. Both theories above basically agree that the plausibility is on how people serve relevance, valid, sufficient, toward the data that will form an argument.

The plausibility is identified by inferencing implicit meanings of warrants, supported claims, reasoning, lines of possible attack, and structural relations between elements in the debater's 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 marijuana legalization. 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.