SIKAP DAN PERILAKU APARATUR DALAM MENGELOLA ANGGARAN PENDAPATAN DAN BELANJA DAERAH

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Abstract

ABDUL RAHIM: The aim of this essay is to introduce students to the purpose, types, styles, and procedures for educational and competitive debate.

Most beginning debaters find debate difficult and the words used in debating confusing and complicated. This essay will clarify these terms in detail, so that the students could be prepared to be more effective debaters and communicators.

After reading and applying the material in this essay, you will be able to build a persuasive argument, support and defend it, and present it in a convincing manner.

The early parts deal with the fundamentals of debate, the types and formats, and the proper use of propositions, evidence, and reasoning. The remaining parts focus on building an affirmative and negative case, use of refutation and rebuttal, and effective delivery skills.

Keywords: Education, Argument, Debate.

INTRODUCTION

Debate is a rewarding and challenging form of oral communication. Actually, everybody has been involved in informal debates, ranging from arguing for the daily allowance for your sons and daughters to arguing for a particular place to visit in your summer vacation. Debates also occur in formal and non-formal meetings, in congress, and in the courtroom.

The aim of this essay is to introduce students to the purpose, types, styles, and procedures for educational and competitive debate.

Most beginning debaters find debate difficult and the words used in debating confusing and complicated. This essay will clarify these terms in detail, so that the students could be prepared to be more effective debaters and communicators.

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Unit One: Debate Fundamentals

Definition

Debate is an exchange of two opposing points of view on a particular topic. Teams engage in formal argument in an attempt to convince the audience or judge that their point of view is better. The affirmative team will typically argue for the proposition, which normally suggests a change in a given policy. The negative team will argue against the change and suggest that things should remain the same.

Purpose

As mentioned above, the goal of the debater is to try to convince the judges that his or her position is stronger. This is usually accomplished by providing sound evidence and reasoning to support his or her side. In addition, the ability to refute or argue against the opponents' position is vital in a debate situation. Effective delivery skill is an important factor in the outcome of a debate.
Benefits of debate

Debate has benefits as an educational and competitive activity. Debate automatically improves many speaking skills, and also develops a variety of other skills. Debaters acquire the ability to "think on their feet" while responding to different opinions and arguments. They also learn how to make effective arguments that can stand under attack from an opponent. In addition, because of the nature of the issues discussed, debaters should be more informed on current issues and should develop strong research, critical thinking, and reasoning abilities. One of the most important skill derived from debating is critical listening. Most people are placed on the position as passive listeners, who tune out the majority of what is said to them. On the other hand, debaters are considered as active listeners, who listen carefully to others so that they may respond effectively and persuasively.

Unit Two: Types and Formats of Debate

There are many types and formats involved in debate, but in this essay we will focus on only three formats that are most commonly used by the people. They are the Standard or Traditional Format, the Cross-Examination Format, and the Lincoln-Douglas Format.

Standard format

The standard format usually involves two-person teams, two representing the affirmative position and two representing the negative position. This format includes two types of speeches presented by all four debaters. These are known as the constructive and rebuttal speeches. These speeches are built around the debate proposition, or resolution. The proposition is defined as the topic of the debate or the stand on an issue that the affirmative supports and the negative rejects. Different types of propositions will be examined in Chapter Three.

The constructive speeches are the first speeches in a debate where initial positions and arguments are presented. The first four speeches in the standard format are called constructive speeches. The affirmative argues for the proposition which usually asks for a change in the status quo, the way things are at the present time. Because the affirmative is in favor of a change, it is their job to show why there is a need for this change, present a plan, and show the advantages of the plan. The negative will argue that there is no need for the change, show that the affirmative plan will not work, and point out that there are more disadvantages than advantages to the affirmative plan. Thus, the negative is arguing for the status quo.

Let's assume that the topic (proposition) is Resolved: "All schools should have a strict dress code." With this topic, the affirmative would have to show why there is a need for this change, present a plan, and give advantages of a required dress code. However, the negative might argue that this might be a good idea for some schools but not all schools. The negative would try to show that the affirmative plan would not work and has few, if any, advantages.

The rebuttal speeches are in the latter portion of the debate. This is where the debaters explain again their previous arguments, respond to the opponents' arguments, continue to defend their position, and show how their team has won the debate. For example, the affirmative speakers might point out that the negative has not adequately shown the weaknesses of a required dress code and continue to build upon their plan based on the negative's poor arguments. On the other hand, the negative might argue that the affirmative did not show a clear need for a dress code and failed to respond to their arguments against it. A more detailed discussion of constructive and rebuttal techniques will be covered later in the book.

Although some may modify the actual times for each speaker in standard debate, the format is always the same. Following are the typical time frames and format.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Standard Debate Format</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Affirmative Constructive First</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Constructive Second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative Constructive Second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Constructive First Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Constructive First Negative Rebuttal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Negative Rebuttal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cross-Examination Format

Although the cross-examination debate format has been around for many years, its popularity began to grow in the 1970s. Debaters found it attractive because it was more creative and challenging and required more spontaneous thinking and responses. This type of debate is similar to standard debate because it also has two affirmative and two negative speakers. However, it adds a question and answer period after each constructive speech. This part of the debate is called the cross-examination, known more commonly as the "cross-x." It is at this time that one member of the opposing team stands face-to-face with his or her opponent and directly questions the opponent. For example, following an affirmative constructive speech, one of the negative debaters
would rise and question the points presented by the affirmative speaker. The ability to think and respond spontaneously without much preparation time is an important part of the cross-x format. To more fully understand this, think about a courtroom scene. One lawyer will ask questions, and then the other lawyer will have a chance to ask additional questions. This is an example of a cross-examination format.

Below are the normal time frames and format for cross-examination debates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Affirmative Constructive First</td>
<td>8 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Cross-Examination of First Affirmative Speaker</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Negative Constructive</td>
<td>8 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative Cross-Examination of First Negative Speaker</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Negative Constructive</td>
<td>6 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative Cross-Examination of Second Negative Speaker</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Affirmative Constructive</td>
<td>6 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Cross-Examination of Second Affirmative Speaker</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Negative Constructive</td>
<td>6 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative Cross-Examination of Second Negative Speaker</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Negative Rebuttal</td>
<td>4 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
<td>4 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Negative Rebuttal</td>
<td>4 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
<td>4 min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**LINCOLN-DOUGLAS DEBATE FORMAT**

The third debate format, known as Lincoln-Douglas, or more commonly L-D, is relatively new. It was introduced in the early 1980s and is now becoming one of the more popular forms of debate. The primary difference between L-D and the standard and cross-x format is that there is only one member on each team for the L-D. Thus, there is only one affirmative and one negative speaker. As a result, the burden of debating is placed on the single speaker. The debater must be familiar with all parts of the topic under consideration because he or she cannot break up or share his or her proposal with a teammate. In addition, the debater is the only one responsible for the constructive, cross-examination, and rebuttal speeches. Like the cross-x format, the debater will stand and question the opponent face-to-face.

Below are the normal time frames and format for the Lincoln-Douglas debate style.

**Lincoln-Douglas Debate Format**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First Affirmative Constructive</td>
<td>6 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cross-Examination</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Constructive</td>
<td>7 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
<td>4 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Rebuttal</td>
<td>6 min</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affirmative Rebuttal</td>
<td>3 min</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notice that the affirmative gets to speak once more often, and the negative has more speeches in the middle of the debate. However, also note that both speakers have the same amount of total speaking time.

**PREPARATION TIME**

A final point to be made in this chapter is that some teachers and coaches may want to include something that is known as preparation time. This is defined as "the time that elapses between speeches that is used by the debaters to prepare for their next speech." Of course, this would not be acceptable for the first affirmative speech. The time frames involved are the decision of your teacher or coach. We will examine the three most common types of preparation time formats. The first two are used primarily in standard and cross-examination formats and the third is used for the Lincoln-Douglas format.

**One- or Two-Minute Rule**

This rule applies to individual speakers, not the team as a whole. With this format, each speaker is given one or two minutes to prepare for his or her next speech. If the debater exceeds the allocated time to prepare, the additional time is subtracted from his or her speaking time. Normally, the timekeeper will notify the speaker of the used time at thirty-second or one-minute intervals.

**Eight-Minute Rule**

This rule applies to the affirmative and negative as a team, not individual speakers. Each team is given a total of eight minutes to use as they wish. For example, the affirmative may decide to use three minutes before the second affirmative constructive speech, three minutes before the first affirmative rebuttal, and two minutes before the second affirmative rebuttal. The negative will then have to decide how to use their allocated time. If a team goes beyond the eight minutes, the additional time is subtracted from their next speech. Again, the timekeeper will inform the teams as each thirty-second or one-minute interval elapses.

**Three-Minute Rule**

As mentioned earlier, this rule is normally used in the Lincoln-Douglas format. Here, each speaker (affirmative and negative) is given a total of three minutes preparation time. Like the eight-minute rule, the speakers may use the time as they wish. Once again, when the speakers have used their entire three minutes, any additional preparation time is subtracted from their remaining speeches.

**Part Three: Propositions, Evidence, and Reasoning**

**Propositions**
The proposition usually begins with the word “Resolved.” For example, the topic used earlier read as follows: Resolved: "All schools should have a strict dress code." There are three kinds of propositions that might be used in a debate. They are called proposition of fact, proposition of value, and proposition of policy.

The first type of proposition is called a proposition of fact. This is a statement that makes an evaluation of a person, idea, event, place, or thing. An example of this would be the following statement. "This winter has been milder than normal." Here, a judgment has been made about an actual event. This statement can easily be proved or disproved by comparing this winter’s temperatures to those in previous years. Because it is relatively simple to check out, there is not much clash between the debaters. Thus, this is not the most popular type of proposition.

The second type of proposition is the proposition of value. This is where a statement is made about the worth or value of a person, idea, event, place, or thing. An example would be "Debate is a much more useful exercise than group discussion." This is more difficult to prove than a proposition of fact. It is very subjective in nature and is based upon personal opinions and beliefs. In fact, the speakers could argue for hours and never arrive at a solution. Because of this, it would be nearly impossible for a judge to reach a decision in a standard or cross-examination debate. However, the value proposition is the preferred type for a Lincoln-Douglas debate.

The third type of proposition is the proposition of policy. This is where a statement is made suggesting that a specific action or policy should be adopted. These types of propositions always contain the words "should" or "ought to." An example would be: Resolved: "All members of a sports team should be given equal playing time." Unlike the fact and value propositions, the policy proposition does not necessarily involve verification, but argues whether a policy should be adopted or abolished. This seems to be the most common type of proposition for standard and cross-examination debates. Most of the examples presented in this book will be policy propositions.

Evidence

Evidence is defined as “supporting materials used in a speech to prove or disprove something.” These supporting materials are used to develop your own personal points and observations. In debate, evidence must always be included by both affirmative and negative teams. If evidence is not used or is used improperly, that team will surely lose the debate. Although there are many types of supporting material, we will examine four of the more common ones. They are examples, comparison, statistics, and testimony.

Examples

When you use examples, you are telling or retelling a story, giving details that relate to your argument or point. Let’s assume that you were debating the topic Resolved: "All schools should have a strict dress code." The affirmative might use the following example to support the proposition.

Central Middle School in Jones City, U.S.A., has now had a dress code for two years. Since they established this policy, it has been shown that the students are happier, there is less crime and fewer gangs, and the overall grade point average has improved. These characteristics were not present before the dress code began.

On the other hand, the negative would want to find a story or example of a school where the dress code did not work.

Examples should always be given clearly and in an orderly fashion. Your examples should also be personalized. People are interested in people. Therefore, try to tell stories that your audience can relate to by including human interest examples. Remember, as a debater, you want to convince the audience or judge that your argument is the best. By using examples that people can relate to, you will be more of a persuasive speaker.

You should use a variety of examples and avoid building your plan around only one example. Drawing conclusions without considering enough evidence is called a generalization, and this is not appropriate in a debate. It is dangerous, and your opponent will likely attack you for it. Let us reconsider the example used earlier in this section. If the affirmative followed up the example by saying, "Since the dress code was successful at Central Middle School, we can see that it will work for all schools," a generalization has been stated. The negative could easily respond by saying that this is only one example, and conclusions cannot be drawn from just one incident. This could tip the scales in favor of the negative team.

Comparison

Comparison, also known as analogy, is a comparison of two items, events, people, and so on. More specifically it involves pointing out similarities between that which is known and that which is not known. Although comparison can be effective and persuasive, it must always meet the following test: All things being compared must be closely similar in all respects. It is the speaker’s responsibility to point out these similarities and apply them to his or her plan. Let’s assume that the topic is Resolved: "All members of a sports team should be given equal playing time." In order
for the affirmative to effectively use comparison to support this proposition, it would need to emphasize similarities. For example, the argument might proceed as follows:

We, the affirmative, maintain that equal playing time will work at our school because it has worked at other schools similar to ours. These similarities include enrollment, geographic location, types of students, community support, students' feelings, and types of sports that are available.

Of course, the affirmative might want to include specific figures to make these similarities even more persuasive. It is very important that you point out to the audience or judge that the similarities outweigh the differences. If the judge sees more differences, you have probably lost the debate. Let's reexamine this previous example. If your school has an enrollment of 600 students and you compare it to schools with enrollments of 2,000 or more, you have not emphasized the similarities. At the same time, if your school is located in a rural area of Missouri and you compare it to schools in Chicago or New York City, you have failed to pass the "test of comparison." Using comparison appropriately will make you a better debater.

**Statistics**

Statistics involve the use of numbers to prove or disprove a point. Numbers can be an important factor in winning or losing a debate. Every day we are bombarded by statistics. Television commercials tell us that four out of five doctors or three out of four dentists surveyed recommend a certain product. Consider also the sports world. Newspapers and sportscasters constantly use statistics to explain the performance of a player or a team. In baseball we are given the hitters' batting averages, the pitchers' earned run averages, or a team's fielding percentage. In basketball, it might be the team's shooting percentage, number of turnovers, or the number of blocked shots. In football, it might be the quarterbacks' completion percentages, the number of third-down conversions, or the number of quarterback sacks.

Even though statistics can be effective, they can also be misleading and even meaningless. Because of this, you must keep five things in mind when using statistics.

First, be sure that they are representative of the whole. For example, let's assume you asked ten students in your school if they felt foreign language should be a required course. Let's say that six opposed this and four favored it. Could you then conclude that 60 percent of the students opposed learning a second language? The answer is no, because ten students is not a large enough sample. Other factors that may also be ignored are age, grade, sex, religion, and culture. Thus, the ten people would not be a representative sample.

A second thing to consider when using statistics is if they came from a reliable source. Remember that numbers can be used unethically, and if they come from a source that is prejudicial, in some way, they may also be meaningless. Thus, when presenting statistics, try to use numbers that come from a reliable source. Let's assume that you surveyed 20 students to determine if the arts should receive the same funding as sports. If 15 of the students were heavily involved in art, music, or theater, this would not be a reliable source of information because three-quarters of those interviewed were biased.

A third point to remember regarding statistics is that you may need to explain and interpret them. Although some figures are obvious, others may be vague and difficult to understand. In this case, it is your job to relate them to the audience or judge in order to make them more meaningful.

Fourthly, it is important that you identify the source of your statistics. Tell the audience where these figures came from. Most statistics come from magazines, newspapers, surveys, interviews, and questionnaires. Be sure to cite these sources carefully. For example, if a speaker stated, "80 percent of students surveyed felt that sex education should be required," this statistic would not be very persuasive. It fails to include information such as who conducted the survey, where it was conducted, how many students were surveyed, and so on.

Finally, don't overuse statistics. As we have noted, they can be very effective, but you will soon lose the attention of the audience if you constantly bombard them with figures. Use statistics when you feel they are needed, and make sure they are easy for the audience or judge to understand.

**Testimony**

A fourth type of evidence is testimony, also called quotations. Testimony is stating the opinions or conclusions of others who have special knowledge or experience about the issue you are discussing. Audiences are impressed with quotations from such people. You see examples of testimony every day as you watch television commercials. A famous athlete appears on your screen telling you what type of athletic shoe or sports equipment to buy. You may see a famous movie star telling you what type of breakfast cereal to eat or what type of soft drink you should buy.
Even though these are examples of testimonials, you must remember that these individuals may be famous people in their professions, but they may not know any more about the actual product than you do. This is why you must use quotations from people who have knowledge and experience about your topic. For example, if you were debating the dangers of cigarette smoking, would you quote a famous actor or a recognized doctor? Of course, you would use the doctor’s testimony because of his knowledge and background.

As with the use of statistics, there are certain factors to consider when using testimony.

First, be sure that you quote the person accurately. As a debater, your use of testimony must always reflect the overall meaning and intent of the author. You should never change the meaning of the quotation to fit your own purposes. This practice is unethical, dishonest, and will probably result in your team losing the debate.

A second point to consider is that your testimony should come from a person who is qualified, by training and experience, to speak on the topic you are discussing. As we pointed out earlier, there are famous people trying to sell products, but they are definitely not experts in the field. Quoting famous people only because of their popularity would be a very weak testimony. Your testimony must be from recognized experts with special experience on the debate topic.

Thirdly, it is important to identify the person you are quoting. Be sure to tell the audience who the quoted person is and why he or she is an authority on the particular topic. If you think the audience or judge might not recognize the people you are quoting or their qualifications, be sure you add that information to your speech.

Finally, it is advisable to write out your testimonials on separate notecards and read them specifically for the audience or judge. Trying to memorize quoted material can be dangerous because you may forget part of the quotation or fail to quote the individual accurately.

This section of Chapter Three has dealt with the use of evidence. One final note regarding evidence is where you might look for these supporting materials. There are several sources for locating evidence, and most of them are familiar to you. Here is a list of the more common sources.

1. Newspapers
2. Books
3. Encyclopedias
4. Magazines
5. Documents
6. Biographies
7. Your own personal interviews with an expert
8. Radio and television broadcasts and documentaries
9. Internet (Be careful here because some of the material found on the Internet is not carefully documented.)

Reasoning

Reasoning, or argument, is defined as “the process of drawing conclusions from evidence and connecting ideas, situations, and events.” We all reason in our daily conversations with friends and family. It is an important part of critical thinking and may occur at a conscious or subconscious level. Let's assume that you were lying in bed one morning and heard snowplows outside. You might reason, or conclude, that it is snowing or did snow outside; or if you look outside and see a heavy snowfall, you may reason that school may be cancelled. In both examples, you have used the reasoning process by connecting events to similar previous experiences.

Although reasoning is an integral part of debating, the effective debater realizes that some conclusions presented may be weak or inaccurate because people do tend to generalize. The important thing to remember is that some reasoning can be strong while other reasoning may be weak and damaging to your case. If your reasoning is based upon accurate and plentiful evidence, your conclusion will more than likely be acceptable and persuasive for the judge. On the other hand, if you give minimal evidence and generalize from it, the judge will probably award his or her decision to your opponent. You also need to remember that faulty reasoning on your part may result in an embarrassing attack by your opponent. Let's consider two examples. If you reasoned that it will snow in your geographic location in January because there has been snowfall for the last 25 years in January, you have made a convincing argument. But if you were to state that your basketball team will lose their next game to Bucket City because Bucket City has beaten your Team the last three times they have played, you have made a generalization.

As stated earlier, generalizations are dangerous and will likely result in losing the debate. The successful debating team will quickly pick up faulty reasoning, verbally attack you for it, and make certain that the audience or judge is aware of it.

There are many types or forms of reasoning, but we will only focus on three major types. They are inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and analogical reasoning.

Inductive Reasoning
Inductive reasoning is reasoning from the specific to the general. You draw general conclusions based upon several specific examples or pieces of evidence. Following is an illustration of an inductive argument.

**Example 1**: I received a "D" in Miss Jones's history class last year.

**Example 2**: My brother received a "C" in her history class two years ago.

**Example 3**: My friend is getting "D's" from her this year.

**Conclusion**: Miss Jones is a tough grader.

Although we may not consciously verbalize these steps in the inductive reasoning process, we use it daily. Perhaps it is already obvious to you that inductive reasoning is similar to the use of examples as evidence discussed earlier. Thus, we must be careful not to generalize from too few examples. The illustration above demonstrates this. Although the three examples may be factual, there may be several students who received "A's" and "B's" from Miss Jones. It is important to remember that no matter how many specific observations you include, it is likely that there are some, or several, exceptions. Consider the following example.

You have seen 40 of your classmates smoking cigarettes at one time or another. Although these 40 actual examples may seem to be a large number to you, you cannot draw a general conclusion from these, particularly if your school's enrollment is 800. If you concluded that, because you observed 40 students smoking, all of the students in your school smoked, you have used faulty inductive reasoning.

Another example I like to use is a personal one.

I am an avid fisherman and particularly like to fish small rivers and streams for bass and trout. Not long ago, I fished an attractive river on four occasions and caught only suckers and chubs. When sharing these experiences with my friends, I told them that the river contained only suckers and chubs. To my dismay, I later learned that some of my friends had caught some hefty bass and trout from the same river and from the stretch I had fished. What was the problem? Even though I had drawn conclusions from actual specific events and experiences, I had let my conclusions get out of control and used inductive reasoning incorrectly.

Let's look at the last two examples and note the two words that have been underlined—"all" and "only." These are examples of "sweeping terms." These should be avoided. With this in mind, let us examine two points to remember when using inductive reasoning.

**First**, be careful with the way you word your conclusion. There are very few universal truths, so don't use words such as "all," "only," "never," "always," "everyone," and so on, unless your evidence overwhelmingly supports such a statement. Qualify your conclusion with such phrases as "based upon these examples, it seems fair to conclude" or "these incidents strongly point to a problem."

**Secondly**, use backup evidence such as quotations or statistics to make your reasoning even more persuasive. Remember, it is nearly impossible to give enough examples to reach a general conclusion. Thus, by adding statistics or quotations to your inductive argument, you have reinforced your reasoning so that the judge or opponents cannot dispute your conclusion. Let's return to our earlier example of Miss Jones's history class and her tough grading. You might want to add the following to your inductive argument.

In addition to these specific examples I have just presented, a survey of her assigned grades over the last five years shows that 70 percent of the students received a "C" or lower.

This statement would certainly strengthen your argument.

**Deductive Reasoning**

Deductive reasoning is just the opposite of inductive reasoning. You now reason from the general to the specific. A typical type of deductive argument involves three statements. The first is called the major premise. This is where you make a general statement or belief upon which your argument rests. The second statement is the minor premise. This is where you present a specific case or issue as it relates to the major premise. The third statement is known as the conclusion. This is where you draw a conclusion based upon the connection between the major and minor premise. Another way we might describe the conclusion is to say that you make the same statement about the minor premise as you would do about the major premise. Many textbooks use the following example of deduction.

**Example**: All men are mortal. (Major Premise) Jim is a man. (Minor Premise) Therefore, Jim is mortal. (Conclusion)

As was the case with inductive reasoning, few of us go around consciously thinking and talking in terms of premises and conclusions. However, we all use deductions on a daily basis because we carry several premises in our heads. Consider the following two examples.
We know that John Smith is a student in Miss Jones's history class. We also know that Miss Jones is a hard grader. Therefore, we conclude that John Smith is receiving low grades in history. Our deductive thought process has gone something like this:

All students in Miss Jones's class receive low grades. (Major Premise) John Smith is one of her students. (Minor Premise)

Therefore, John is receiving poor grades. (Conclusion)

You are hiking in the woods and see a snake coiled up in front of you. You are frightened because a coiled snake is a sign that it might strike at any moment. Again, your thought process has been deductive and has gone as follows:

Coiled snakes will often strike. (Major Premise) This snake is coiled. (Minor Premise)

Therefore, this snake may strike me. (Conclusion)

Although deductive reasoning can be effective, it can also be weak and faulty. To use it effectively, consider the following guidelines.

First, be certain that both of your premises are true. You cannot draw a persuasive conclusion if one or both of your premises are false. As pointed out earlier, there are very few universal truths, so be careful of words such as "all," "everyone," "always," and soon. For example, go back to our previous example of Miss Jones's history class. The problem with that argument is that the major premise is false (and thus the conclusion will probably be faulty). The point is that not all of Miss Jones's students receive low grades. A minor premise can also be false. Consider the following example.

All dangerous and evil creatures should be killed. (Major Premise) Snakes are dangerous and evil creatures. (Minor Premise) Therefore, snakes should be killed. (Conclusion)

The problem with this argument is that the minor premise is false. Snakes are not necessarily dangerous and evil. In fact, biologists might argue that some snakes are actually beneficial since they destroy rodents and other unwanted creatures in our environment.

Secondly, be sure that you show a clear relationship between your major and minor premises. It is your job to make this connection very obvious to the audience or judge. Use a good variety of evidence to strengthen this connection. This will make your conclusion persuasive and hard for your opponent to attack. The point here is that after you state your major and minor premises, include statistics and quotations that show their connection and credibility.

Finally, be sure that your conclusion ties the entire deductive argument together. The conclusion should provide a clear direction for the audience. Now that you have made your point, how does it support your case? The conclusion in deductive reasoning should also help the audience make a decision on the issue, hopefully in your favor.

Analogical Reasoning

This type of reasoning is where you compare the similarities between two items, events, people, and so forth. Then you conclude that if two things are alike in some ways, they will be alike in other ways too. It is important to show as many similarities as you can in order to make your concluding argument persuasive. Like inductive and deductive reasoning, we all reason from analogy daily but may not be aware of it. Following are some examples of analogical reasoning.

- Mary is very good at math, so she would be a very good math teacher.
- If you are a good ping-pong player, you would be a good tennis player.
- The new music program has been successful at Central Middle School. Surely, it can be successful at our school also.
- My friend Jane is very pretty and talented. She will be a very famous actress.
- This lake looks just like my favorite one back home. I bet the fishing is terrific.

You have learned that inductive and deductive reasoning can be effective if used properly, but can be dangerous if used improperly. With this in mind, consider the following suggestions from reasoning from analogy.

The most important guideline is to make sure that the two things being compared are actually similar. If they are basically alike, you have a good analogy. If they are not basically alike, you have a bad analogy. Let's reexamine some of our previous examples.

Remember the earlier discussion of comparison as a form of evidence? If you argue that all members of your sports team be given equal playing time because it has been successful at another school, you are using analogical reasoning. However, if your enrollment is 600 and the other school's enrollment is 2,000, you have not reasoned properly. Why? You have not shown similarities between the two schools. In fact, you may have placed too much emphasis on the differences. The audience or judge will quickly pick up on this.
Your friend Mary may be a good math student, but may not have the skills or interest to be a teacher. What if she does not like to stand up in front of a group of people? These are points you did not include in your analogical argument. Again, you have not shown enough similarities to make your argument a good one.

The new lake you have just discovered may look like your favorite one back home, but what other similarities are there? Is the depth similar? Are there as many nesting and feeding areas? Is the water temperature the same? If you cannot include additional comparisons, your reasoning will probably "drown in the lake."

The second suggestion regarding reasoning from analogy is that it is most effective when dealing with propositions of policy. Be sure that your policy has been tried somewhere else and worked. Focus on the fact that your policy will work because it has succeeded in similar situations and circumstances. Let's consider two of our previous examples in this section.

The new music program at Central Middle School will work at our school because of similar enrollment, city population, student demographics, school philosophy, and community support and involvement.

By pointing out these similarities, you have made your reasoning stronger and more persuasive.

The fishing in this new lake will be as terrific as my lake back home because of similar depth, structure, water temperature, feeding chain, and climate.

Again, by giving as many similarities as you can, you have reinforced your analogical argument.

Bibliography


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