ArgAnalysis35K: A large-scale dataset for Argument Quality Analysis

Omkar Jayant Joshi* Priya Nitin Pitre* Yashodhara Haribhakta
COEP Technological University (Formerly College of Engineering, Pune)
Pune, Maharashtra, India
{joshioj16, pitrepn18, ybl}.comp@coep.ac.in

Abstract

Argument Quality Detection is an emerging field in NLP which has seen significant recent development. However, existing datasets in this field suffer from a lack of quality, quantity and diversity of topics and arguments, specifically the presence of vague arguments that are not persuasive in nature. In this paper, we leverage a combined experience of 10+ years of Parliamentary Debating to create a dataset that covers significantly more topics and has a wide range of sources to capture more diversity of opinion. With 34,890 high-quality argument-analysis pairs (a term we introduce in this paper), this is also the largest dataset of its kind to our knowledge. In addition to this contribution, we introduce an innovative argument scoring system based on instance-level annotator reliability and propose a quantitative model of scoring the relevance of arguments to a range of topics.

1 Introduction

Parliamentary Debate is an extemporaneous form of debating. One of the major intersections of Natural Language Processing and Debating was IBM Project Debater (Slonim et al., 2021), an end-to-end system that mines arguments in a text (Ein-Dor et al., 2019; Toledo-Ronen et al., 2018), determines argument quality (Toledo et al., 2019), and through a combination of modules can debate against a human being. The purpose of this paper is to propose a new dataset ¹ that adds a new dimension to the field of argument quality detection in the context of parliamentary debating, eventually enabling the creation of a system that can beat a human debater in a Parliamentary debate.

The dimension that we introduce here is a detailed explanation of why the argument made is

true, applicable or impactful, henceforth referred to as "analysis". Analysis is defined as logical links provided to defend a statement, an example of which can be seen in Table 2. This can be compared against just arguments, as implemented by (Slonim et al., 2021) seen in Table 1. The concept of analysis as logically linked statements is an important improvement to the claim-premise concept that is specifically applicable to Parliamentary Debating and that is what we wish to formalize through this paper. We believe that "analysis" is not defined in NLP and needs to be introduced to the community for the following reasons:

• Reason 1: It's neither a claim nor a premise: while we can say that "arguments" as we use it is equivalent to a claim used in argumentation, the same cannot be said for "analysis". In the context of parliamentary debating, analysis can be a combination of one claim and multiple premises, just a premise, multiple claims and multiple premises, and so on. Premise would be a part of "analysis" but may not be all of it. An example of this is given below:

Argument (claim): Education is the basis of everything a person achieves.

- Analysis: Educated people are 80% more likely to be in the top 10% of the richest people in the world. (Analysis as a premise)
- Analysis: Rich people send their kids to private schools and better colleges. This leads to them getting better jobs and being rich. (Analysis as a claim and one premise)
- Analysis: If you get a good primary education, you are more likely to get into an Ivy League. If you get into an Ivy league, you are more likely to get a higher paying job. With this job, you have a higher chance of sending your kids to private

^{*}These authors contributed equally to this work

¹If you need access to this dataset, please send us an email stating your affiliation, requirement, and intended usage of the data at arganalysis35k@gmail.com

schools, who then go on to achieve the same things. You and your family are then likely to be the top 10% of the richest people in the world. (Analysis as multiple claims and premises)

These logical links need to be seen as one "analysis" instead of multiple claims and subclaims because each subsequent link needs to be seen in the context of the links that come before to build the overall reason for defending the argument. (good primary education \rightarrow ivy league \rightarrow high paying job \rightarrow generational wealth). Here, each individual sub-claim does not defend the overall argument, but rather the collection of links in order that performs that function.

• Reason 2: Premises, as presented in Govier (1985), are statements regarded as true or rationally acceptable, necessarily implying objectivity in those statements. While we agree that analysis includes premises, since it is a debate, analysis will necessarily also include subjective interpretations. Exact definition of what analysis includes is described in Bazari et al. (2015). We think it is unwise to confuse these two terms, hence in the spirit of introducing a debate specific dataset, we have introduced a debate specific term.

| Argument | Motions |
|----------------------------|--------------------|
| a child is still growing, | We should ban cos- |
| physically and mentally, | metic surgery for |
| cosmetic surgery should | minors |
| not be considered until | |
| they are an adult and able | |
| to make these decisions | |
| Racial profiling unfairly | We should end |
| targets minorities and | racial profiling |
| poor | |

Table 1: Arguments with score 1 (highest scored arguments) from IBM-30K, a dataset that just collects arguments

Argument relevance is an important indicator of persuasiveness according to Paglieri and Castel-franchi (2014). In a parliamentary debating context, the same argument can be applied to a variety of topics and can be differently persuasive for each topic. Arguments like "accountability is important" can be used in debates about governments,

churches, corporations, schools, etc. Similarly, arguments that deal with the premise of free speech being important can be used to defend free speech for members of the LGBTQ community, as well as to defend people's right to protest against a corporation. The quantification of relevance of the argument to the topic under discussion is defined as the relevance model which attempts to capture this complexity.

Application of Instance-based annotator reliability to argumentation is another important contribution described in this paper. Some annotators might know a lot more about art than about the criminal justice system, hence might judge certain arguments as more or less persuasive using their knowledge; secondly, because of the element of bias that comes in when ranking arguments. Annotators might be biased about a certain argument on race, for example, because of the strong sentiments they feel towards them in their daily life, but they may not be biased when judging an argument on art. We propose a system that enables us to keep the scores of these annotators instead of dropping them, like previous systems have, and show how this leads to a better overall dataset with a more uniform distribution of scores. The dataset is crucial to designing systems that can interact efficiently with humans. Arguments generated with this system can analyze arguments better, and create effective rebuttals using high scoring arguments of the other side. The dataset can also be used to judge a debate by assigning scores to arguments as per their level. Any interactive system, such as IBMs Project Debater needs this dataset as a preliminary base to analyze and win debates with a human.

In summary, our major contributions detailed in this paper are: (1) Argument-analysis pairs collected from a variety of sources on a variety of topics; (2) Introduction of a relevance model that enables the use of multiple arguments in different contexts; (3) Introduction of an instance based annotator scoring system that reduces bias and makes argument scores more accurate.

2 Related Works

There have been several datasets in the field of argument quality using empirical methods that focus on finding arguments and evidence. Roush and Balaji (2020) collects policy arguments and evidence from National Speech and Debate association, while Hua and Wang (2017) categorises

| Argument | Analysis |
|----------------------|--|
| African American | Reparations are required |
| groups should | because African Ameri- |
| fight for economic | cans were asked to pay |
| reparations from the | equal taxes while being |
| government. | treated unequally with |
| | laws such as Jim Crow |
| | laws, $\frac{3}{5}$ citizen rule, etc. |
| Racial appearance | Anti discrimination leg- |
| changes should be | islation is prefaced on |
| banned because it | the fact that all races |
| leads to discrimina- | should be treated equally |
| tion. | because race is some- |
| | thing you cannot change, |
| | this is undermined when |
| | the government allows |
| | changing of race. |
| · | · |

Table 2: ArgAnalysis35K argument-analysis pairs with score 1 (highest scored arguments), showing a dataset with argument and analysis

arguments into different types like study, factual, opinion, and finds supporting statements for the same. Our work differs from these in several ways: first, the type of evidence used in these papers are either expert citations ("Dr. x recommends y"), results of studies ("According to the 2016 study.."), or opinions of laymen ("In my childhood.."). These are all different from the analysis that we propose, which follows a logical path to reach a conclusion, as seen in Parliamentary Debates ("Cryptocurrency is volatile because companies don't hold it with the intention to make long term profit, which results in no stabilising force being created in the market"). Secondly, these studies aim to find supporting statements, however no quantitative scoring metric has been assigned to the supporting analysis, a problem we solve by giving quantitative scores to both arguments and analysis. Other methods like the ones proposed by Persing and Ng (2017) and Habernal and Gurevych (2016a) learn the reasons that an argument is persuasive or non persuasive to improve upon them, and provide theoretical reasoning but no quantitative score.

Toledo et al. (2019) and Gretz et al. (2020a) have created IBMRank and IBMRank30K, which contains arguments labelled for quality. Our work is different from theirs in several ways: first, we provide analysis points to arguments which helps us get higher quality arguments from annotators as

they are asked to defend their argument without just stating it, and it gives insight into why an argument is persuasive (whether it is persuasive by itself or if the following analysis makes it persuasive) by providing two separate scores. Secondly, these datasets are composed of arguments for random topics that do not cover the diversity of the topics encountered in debating, which is a problem we aim to solve by using 100+ topics covering every genre as stated in multiple sources. Lastly, this dataset is larger in volume than both of these works, consisting of 35K argument-analysis pairs. The methods used to collect data vary for several datasets, some using policy debate arguments from the NSDA (Roush and Balaji, 2020), crowdsourcing (IBMs Speech by Crowd), Reddit (Tan et al., 2016). The common factor with all these methods is that they rely on arguments generated either by non-debaters or by crowdsourcing it entirely without knowing the quality of annotators, hence creating a lack of high-quality arguments and variety of arguments.

Lastly, a major contribution in this work is the proposal of a relevance model. Wachsmuth et al. (2017a) suggested a model that decomposes quality to 15 dimensions to determine the qualities that make an argument persuasive. They discover that relevance is an important factor that determines argument quality. Gretz et al. (2020a) uses this as the basis to discover that Global Relevance (how related an argument is to the topic) has the highest difference between low and high scoring arguments, hence proving that it is the most important factor that determined how persuasive annotators found it. We use this theory as the basis to create a relevance model that judges this quantitatively. Wachsmuth et al. (2017b) finds relevance using the number of other arguments that use it as a premise. Our method is different from this as it does not depend on other arguments and can be used independently on every argument.

3 Dataset Creation

This section deals with the process followed for the creation of the dataset for argument quality analysis. We have broadly split this into three parts: Argument Collection, Argument Annotation and Argument Scoring.

3.1 Procedure for Argument Collection

Argument Collection for ArgAnalysis35K was primarily done through two ways.

- 1. A majority of argument-analysis pairs (~60%) were collected through contribution by a set of active debaters of varying levels of expertise. These people were recruited at debating tournaments, through active debate circuits, debating facebook groups and contacts of past/current debaters.
 - Experts: Won 5+ tournaments at a global or regional level or have 3+ years of active debating experience. Experts contributed around 22% of our argument-analysis pairs.
 - Intermediate: Won 2+ tournaments at a global or regional level or have 1-3 years of active debating experience. Intermediates contributed around 22% of our argument-analysis pairs.
 - Novice: Not won a tournament or < 1
 year of debating experience. Novice debaters contributed around 15% of our
 argument-analysis pairs.
- 2. $\sim 40\%$ of argument-analysis pairs were extracted from speeches given in the outrounds of tournaments. We took an automatically generated transcript of the speech and manually heard the debates to correct minute errors. We then wrote down the argument analysis statements verbatim as the speakers said it. The tournaments considered were regional majors (EUDC, UADC, etc.) or global majors (Worlds University Debating Championships²). We also restricted the extraction to speeches given in the elimination stage (outrounds) of the tournaments, which is a good way to ensure a high quality of argumentanalysis pairs. Only speeches from tournaments within the last 10 years were considered to maintain relevant arguments.

While collecting arguments from contributors, we used the following procedure. Each contributor was presented with a single motion at a time and asked to contribute one argument for and one argument against the motion. It was explained that an argument is a statement in defence of or against the

²https://www.worlddebating.org/

motion presented. Then, the contributor was asked to come up with analysis statements defending the arguments. An analysis statement was explained to be a reason why we find the specific argument persuasive. We also set a character limit of 20-210 for each argument and 35-400 for each analysis point. This limit was set taking into consideration that an argument is expected to be a mere statement that is short and impactful, and analysis is expected to have more content as it defends the argument. All argument contributions were on a non-compensated volunteer basis and the work-load for each volunteer was kept to a maximum of 20 minutes.

3.2 Argument Annotation Collection

200 individuals were involved in the annotation process for the dataset. The annotators chosen had participated in at least one debate at a school or college level. The experience level was set in order to better deal with the additional complexity of annotating argument-analysis pairs, since this concept is part of the fundamental training that is required to participate in a debate. They came from debating circuits all around the world to ensure that diversity (in arguments, thoughts, etc) is being expressed in the dataset. Considering the relatively high experience level of the annotators, each argument was annotated by three annotators. ³Each annotator was asked two questions per argument-analysis pair.

- 1. Is the argument something you would recommend a friend use as-is in a speech supporting/opposing a topic, regardless of personal opinion?
- 2. Would you recommend a friend use the analysis to defend the argument as it is?

The questions are designed in a way that detaches the annotator and their opinions from the content. We also found this element of detachment to be standard NLP practice in papers that asked subjective questions of this nature (Gretz et al., 2020a). The annotations were collected in six sessions over a period of four months. Each annotator was asked to annotate 100 arguments per session. Each session took approximately 120 mins. This meant that on average, each annotator spent more than a minute analysing an argument analysis pair,

³They were paid in compensation as well as arranged training sessions, personal debate coaching, competitions, etc as applicable in specific instances.

a time which is sufficient to gain a representative understanding of how the annotator viewed the argument-analysis pair. In order to gauge whether an annotator was paying attention to the task, there was a hidden test question asking the annotator to leave the response field blank if they had read the question. Annotators that failed the hidden question twice were removed from the annotation process. Surprisingly for an endeavour of this size, only three annotators had to be removed for this reason (1.5% of the total pool).

3.3 Annotator Reliability Score and Tests

Annotator-Rel score is required for the calculation of the Weighted Average scoring function proposed by Gretz et al. (2020a). It is obtained by averaging all pair-wise κ for a given annotator, with other annotators that share at least 50 common responses to the same questions. Annotators who do not share at least 50 common responses with other annotators, do not receive a value for this score. The task-average κ is an important metric in this case to judge the overall quality of the annotation process. It is basically the average of all the pairwise- κ for all annotators. In comparison to Gretz et al. (2020a)'s reported value of 0.83, we find that our task-average κ value is 0.89. We hypothesise that this high value is due to the lower number of annotators involved and the comparatively higher and consistent experience level of the annotators. All annotation was done on a non-compensated volunteer basis.

4 Scoring Functions

Scoring an argument-analysis pair is an inherently subjective task. In order to make it as objective as possible, we have reduced the annotator involvement to two binary questions. However in order to make our dataset usable and interfaceable with others in the field (Gretz et al., 2020a; Habernal and Gurevych, 2016b), we need to convert these annotations to a quality score. In order to do this, we have used the two methods used in the creation of IBM-30k as well as a third, recently proposed method (Li et al., 2019) that models annotator reliability on a per instance basis.

4.1 MACE-P

To determine how dependable annotators are, we use MACE-P. Since we have asked two questions, one related to argument and one to analysis, cor-

respondingly, we have two scores generated per argument-analysis pair. We denote these scores as MACE-P_{Arg} and MACE-P_{Analysis}. By combining the annotators' opinions, the technique predicts the ground truth and enables the identification of reliable annotators. Each annotator's reliability score is estimated by MACE, which is subsequently used to weigh this annotator's conclusions. In order to learn from redundant annotations, MACE does not necessary require that all annotators provide answers on all data, but it does require at least that a sizable pool of annotators annotate a portion of the same data. In our method, each argument is annotated by multiple individuals, thus making it a good use case for the application of MACE.

4.2 Weighted Average

As mentioned previously, we utilize the annotator reliability we have calculated in order to compute Weighted Average scores for the two questions. As before, we get two scores per argument-analysis pair - WA_{arg} and WA_{analysis}

4.3 Instance-Based Annotator Reliability

We have applied a third scoring function to our dataset considering the following assumptions:

- Since we are selecting our annotators with a baseline level of expertise in the field of debating and have ruled out unattentive people, the remaining annotators are unlikely to be incompetent.
- Annotators are human and have human biases.
 They are likely to be biased, prejudiced and unreliable in specific instances

Considering these assumptions, we decided to apply the scoring function proposed by Li et al. (2019) as it seemed to be an ideal use case for their approach of modelling instance based annotator reliability. This method is basically a modified version of MACE and uses Expectation Maximisation training and FNN classifiers to generate per instance annotator reliabilities and use those to predict the true value of an annotation. The reliability estimator is an FNN with 2 hidden layers. It is pretrained on a gold standard dataset, which we created by sampling 500 collected argument-analysis pairs and getting them annotated by a set of 10 experts. These are people who have core adjudicated in multiple tournaments, won awards and have been invited to judge tournaments around the

world. They were compensated appropriately for their respective contributions. Out of the 500 pairs, we observe 100% agreement between experts on 260 pairs. The Instance-Based-model outputs two scores per pair - IA_{arg} and IA_{analysis}, which are the predicted true values of each argument and analysis considering the reliability of every annotator for every argument and analysis.

4.4 Aggregation of scores

Since we are scoring arguments and analysis separately, we have come up with two scores per scoring function discussed so far. Arguments and analysis are linked intrinsically in the context of debate. A good argument defended badly is non-persuasive, as is a bad argument defended well. In order to model this behaviour, we propose that to get the overall score of an argument analysis pair, we multiply the two scores together to get an overall score as shown in equation 1.

$$Score_{pair} = Score_{arg} * Score_{analysis}$$
 (1)

5 Scoring Function Comparison

Here, we have compared the three scoring functions described by performing two experiments. In all experiments, delta indicates the difference between the scores under consideration. Additional details about these experiments can be found in the appendix.

5.1 Disagreement in choosing the better argument-analysis pair

Here, we paired up argument-analysis pairs where we see a difference in scoring between MACE-P, WA and IA scoring functions. Annotators were asked to pick the argument-analysis pair that they would prefer to recommend to someone regardless of personal bias to use as-is. We then look at the agreement between the different annotators on each of the pairs. For those pairs differing in WA and IA, annotators preferred IA in 68% of the pairs. Similarly, for those pairs differing in IA and MACE-P, annotators preferred IA in 64% of the pairs.

5.2 Reproducibility Test

Ideally, a scoring function should be consistent across the dataset. This means that if we were to sample the dataset and follow the same procedure of creating and scoring argument analysis pairs, we should end up with similar scores for the arguments. In order to perform this experiment, we

| Scoring Delta | | Filtered | Precision | |
|------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|--|
| Function | | Pairs | | |
| WA _{pair} | < 0.25 | 11% | 0.67 | |
| WA _{pair} | 0.25-0.5 | 10% | 0.72 | |
| WA _{pair} | 0.5-0.75 | 8% | 0.95 | |
| WA _{pair} | 0.75+ | 4% | 1.00 | |
| MACE-P _{pair} | < 0.25 | 11% | 0.59 | |
| MACE-P _{pair} | 0.25-0.5 | 10% | 0.71 | |
| MACE-P _{pair} | 0.5-0.75 | 8% | 0.83 | |
| MACE-P _{pair} | 0.75+ | 4% | 0.90 | |
| IA _{pair} | < 0.25 | 11% | 0.69 | |
| IA _{pair} | 0.25-0.5 | 10% | 0.73 | |
| IA _{pair} | 0.5-0.75 | 8% | 0.84 | |
| IA _{pair} | 0.75+ | 4% | 0.91 | |

Table 3: Comparing Scoring Functions against Gold Standard Arguments, showing that the higher the delta between the scores, the higher is the precision value for annotators recognizing the higher rated pair, i.e. the difference between an argument scoring 0.2 and an argument scoring 0.8 (delta 0.6) is easier to recognize than the difference between an argument scoring 0.8 and 0.9 (delta 0.1).

| Scoring Function | Correlation Coeffi- |
|----------------------------|---------------------|
| | cient |
| WA _{argument} | 0.74 |
| WA _{analysis} | 0.62 |
| MACE-P _{argument} | 0.69 |
| MACE-P _{analysis} | 0.60 |
| IA _{argument} | 0.70 |
| IA _{analysis} | 0.59 |

Table 4: Reproducibility Test Results

randomly sample 500 argument-analysis pairs from our dataset and send them to a different set of annotators following the same procedure. We then calculate the Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient between the scores calculated using the new annotations and the scores calculated originally. We find that there is a strong correlation for all three scoring functions in terms of the argument scores, but that correlation gets slightly weaker when it comes to analysis scores. This can be explained due to the slightly more subjective nature of the analysis. In terms of the scoring functions, we find that there is a slightly higher correlation for weighted average as opposed to the other two methods, which is an observation that agrees with the previous experiment's findings. These results

are shown in Table 4.

6 Relevance Model

In this section, we describe the relevance model that quantifies the applicability of each argumentanalysis pair to a topic. The underlying assumption is that each argument-analysis pair has a degree of applicability to at least one and likely more topics. This assumption is made on the basis of the personal experience that we have gathered while debating and discussions with experts in the field, where we often find that arguments repeat across multiple topics and motions. (Gretz et al., 2020b) conducted a qualitative evaluation of the correlation between relevance or applicability of an argument and a topic and how that is one of the factors by which we can understand why a particular argument is good. We believe that the approach can be extended in a quantitative manner by application of topic modeling and topic analysis.

6.1 Creation of the Relevance Model

In order to build our relevance model, we utilize the following algorithm.

- 1. We generate a list of 24 topics (Table 9) considering inputs from our experts, analysis of trends in debating and classification of motions that we had presented to our annotators in order to generate our arguments.
- 2. In order to get more nuance on these topics, we asked 50 annotators to come up with a list of 5 keywords (also referred to as subtopics) per topic resulting in 250 keywords per topic. We observed that this process generated keywords that provided holistic coverage of the topics. Moreover, the repetition we noticed with the keywords showed us that asking annotators to come up with any more keywords would not have been productive. The annotators chosen for this task were the ones scoring the highest in the previous tasks we set.
- 3. The keywords were then aggregated for similarity and reduced to the simplest representation ⁴ and the keywords with the most agreement between annotators (> 60% of annotators having included the keyword) were collected.

- 4. The list of keywords was then sent to the experts who were asked to classify them into two bins: one bin containing keywords that they perceived to be highly relevant to the topic and one bin containing keywords that they perceived to be not as relevant. The weight of the keyword was taken to be the percentage of experts placing the keyword in the high relevance bin.
- 5. The probability of each argument-analysis pair belonging to the topics was then calculated. This was achieved by applying W2V and BERT to generate a list of scores per argument-analysis pair and subtopic, which indicates the probability of the pair belonging to that topic.
- 6. These scores are then combined via the following formula to generate the overall relevance score of a particular argument-analysis pair to the main topic.

$$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{percentage} * Prob_{BERT}}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{percentage}}$$
 (2)

6.2 Preliminary Analysis of the model

We observe a small degree of overlap (approximately 15% of keywords having more than one non zero relevance score) in the keyword generation process, i.e. the same keyword being generated for different topics. We take this as evidence that there is a significant overlap of themes when it comes to debate. In this case they were assigned different weights for the different topics depending on the percentage of experts that placed the word in the high relevance bin for that particular topic. This created a set of 84 unique keywords with different weights for the 24 topics.

6.3 Validation of relevance model

In order to validate the relevance model we propose a simple experiment. The hypothesis is that as the delta of relevance scores increases, it will be easier for annotators to identify which of the pair of arguments is more relevant to the given topic.

- 1. To make the comparisons fairer, we randomly select a topic for which the relevance scores will be considered.
- 2. We place argument-analysis pairs into four bins based on the delta of their relevance scores to the selected topic.

⁴For the topic "Economics", the keywords "money", "rupee", "currency" all got reduced to money.

| Topic | Delta | Filtered Pairs | Precision |
|-------|----------|----------------|-----------|
| Art | < 0.25 | 14% | 0.72 |
| Art | 0.25-0.5 | 10% | 0.77 |
| Art | 0.5-0.75 | 5% | 0.84 |
| Art | 0.75+ | 2% | 0.96 |

Table 5: Relevance Model Validation of the topic of art, similar analysis to be done for every topic

- 3. We then randomly sample 150 pairs and send them for pairwise annotations to a set of 50 people (highest scoring annotators and experts). Each annotator was asked to pick the more relevant argument for the given topic and the percentage of annotators picking the higher ranked argument was noted as the precision.
- 4. If sufficient agreement (> 80%) between annotators was not achieved, the pair was dropped.

This procedure was followed for two more randomly sampled topics to ensure coverage of the dataset and the agreements with the relevance scores are recorded in Table 5. We found that all three topics showed similar trends in terms of agreeing with the annotator scoring. Annotator scoring also showed a high correlation with our relevance model for high deltas. This validates the relevance model as it satisfies the basic requirement of a quantitative score: bigger differences are more easily recognized.

7 Experimental Results

7.1 Experiments

We use several methods to learn the task of ranking the quality of arguments. We evaluate the following methods, some accepted standard baselines, some taken from Gretz et al. (2020a) and some other neural models.

- Arg Length: We evaluate the effect the length of an argument has on the scores of the argument to see if there is a correlation between the two, or if the annotators are biased to score longer arguments higher.
- Bi-LSTM GloVe: We implemented the model proposed by Levy et al. on a dropout of 0.10 and an LSTM layer of size 128. 300 dimensional GloVe embeddings were used for input features.

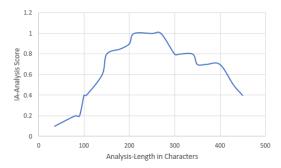


Figure 1: IA-Analysis Scores Vs Arg-Length, showing that argument quality score is not directly correlated to arg-length

• BERT-FT_{topic}: Gretz et al. (2020a) has finetuned BERT to concatenate a topic parameter and replace the final softmax layer with a sigmoid function. This has achieved the best results for their dataset, hence for the purpose of comparison with a standard, we have tested our dataset through the same.

For the purpose of evaluating our methods on the ArgAnalysis35K dataset, we split the dataset into 70-20-10, 70% for training, 10% for tuning hyper parameters (to be used as a dev set), and 20% for testing. To keep the experiments consistent for comparing results with Gretz et al. (2020a), the same model parameters have been used: models have been trained for 5 epochs over the training data, with a batch size of 32 and a learning rate of 2e-5. Pearson and Spearman correlations are reported on the entire set.

7.2 Results and Discussion

The results are presented in Table 6. We find that argument length is not an indicator for quality. However, we notice an interesting trend when looking at analysis length with comparison to the IA score they receive (Figure 1). Analysis scores reach a peak score from 210-270 characters, following which they drop, giving a slight resemblance to a normal curve. This proves that less characters are insufficient to express a point in a persuasive manner, but having more characters than necessary is also not considered persuasive, as the analysis becomes repetitive and less impactful. In order to compare the other scores effectively against existing datasets that do not have an analysis component, we aggregate the two scores per scoring function into one as described in section 4. BERT-FT_{topic} provides a significant improvement over the other methods.

| Model | WA _{pair} | | MACE- | | IA _{pair} | |
|-----------------|--------------------|------|-------------------|------|--------------------|------|
| | | | P _{pair} | | | |
| | r | ho | r | ho | r | ho |
| Arg-Length | 0.18 | 0.19 | 0.19 | 0.19 | 0.16 | 0.17 |
| Analysis-Length | 0.32 | 0.31 | 0.29 | 0.28 | 0.32 | 0.33 |
| Bi-LSTM GLoVe | 0.39 | 0.41 | 0.42 | 0.41 | 0.43 | 0.42 |
| BERT FT TOPIC | 0.52 | 0.53 | 0.54 | 0.53 | 0.54 | 0.55 |

Table 6: Results for the scoring functions

7.3 Comparing Quality of ArgAnalysis35K Arguments to IBM-Rank30

Since WA has been used as a scoring function for ArgAnalysis35K as well as IBM-Rank30K, we are able to compare the scores of both datasets to compare argument quality. Out of the 5000 arguments ranked 1 in IBM-Rank30, we randomly sampled 200. We then use our relevance model to find the topic in our dataset they are closest related to. The specified argument was only taken if it had a relevance score above 0.8 (that is, the argument strongly belongs to that category). From ArgAnalysis35K, we then randomly selected an argument-analysis pair from the same topic that had been scored 1. This pair of arguments were then sent to 500 random debaters where they were asked which argument they found more persuasive. We then look at the agreement between the different annotators on each of the pairs, similar to the experiment performed to compare the different scoring functions. We found that annotators preferred a ArgAnalysis35K argument 71% of the time, hence showing that the arguments in ArgAnalysis35K are more relevant in the context of parliamentary debating, and that an argument is more persuasive when followed by analysis.

7.4 Comparing the relative effect of argument and analysis for the overall score

One of the major purposes of asking annotators to answer two questions and reporting two separate scores of argument and analysis is to answer the question of what makes an argument persuasive: the argument itself or the explanation and analysis given for it. In order to test this, we plot a histogram of arguments and analysis separately against the distribution of the score (additional graphs attached in appendix). We find that analysis points have more scores above 0.7 than arguments alone, hence proving that logical links and explanations are critical to increase the persuasiveness of an argument.

8 Conclusion and Future Works

In this work, we create ArgAnalysis35K and validate it using a variety of methods. This system can be integrated with existing models to create a system that is able to debate more efficiently, be more persuasive, and as a result win more debates.

9 Limitations

The collection and verification of this work has required help from over 250 annotators. This makes the dataset difficult to replicate, as is the case with many dataset papers. We have selected annotators carefully, considering relevant experience and using techniques to determine annotator quality to minimise the subjective variance. We have tried to cover the arguments involved in debating by talking to experts and people from debate circuits across the world, with different experiences and expertise. However, due to the nature of this activity, it is possible that there are arguments and experiences have not been covered in the dataset. These could be experiences of marginalized communities, underrepresented debate circuits, etc. Moreover, some debate motions used are relevant to the time period in which the motion was the most prominent (for example, motions about Trump and his actions, certain policy decisions, wars and their outcomes, etc). Our dataset does not account for the changes that might have taken place pertinent to that issue after the generation of arguments.

10 Broader Impacts and Ethical Considerations

We have attempted to ensure that the broader impact of this work is positive to the best of our ability. We have validated our list using data from multiple tournaments, experts, Core adjudicators to ensure that the maximum possible amount of diversity is incorporated. We have included a large number of high quality arguments, unlike other similar

projects, to increase the possibility of creating a system capable of winning against a human, a chance that is otherwise missing with other datasets. The number of annotators used to create and validate the dataset and its functions is small (200 at most), we find that this is on par with similar projects. We have compensated all annotators as applicable. Lastly, even though arguments were taken from WUDC speeches by watching and recording them, they were anonymized by removing names, paraphasing the argument and making it otherwise unrecognizable to point out where an argument came from (even for an expert debater).

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A Appendix

A.1 Additional Details: Disagreement in choosing the better pair (5.1)

The argument-analysis pairs chosen in this experiment belonged to the same stance on the same topic, in order to avoid annotator bias. This generated a dataset of 737 pairs. The dataset was then split between a set of individuals comprising the highest scoring annotators and experts (around 50 individuals). Each argument was seen by 5 individual annotators and this annotation was done in a single session. IBM-30k used a threshold of 70% agreement between annotators to pick out the final set of pairs in their experiment. Since we used a high threshold to select annotators for this task, we set a correspondingly higher threshold of 80% agreement between all annotators to drop the pairs.

This results in a similar percentage of pairs being dropped (28%) and we are left with a total of 530 pairs. Out of them, 368 are differently ranked for MACE-P and WA, 250 are differently ranked for WA and IA, and 90 are differently ranked for MACE-P and IA. A reason for this disparity might be the relatively similar methodologies followed by MACE and IA.

A.2 Additional Details: Reproducibility Test (5.2)

In this experiment, we did not combine the argument and analysis scores to generate a single score for the pair, as we wanted to gauge the effect of re-scoring the dataset on each of the individual components of our scores and scoring functions.

A.3 Additional Experiment: Pairwise Annotation Agreement

Another simple experiment that helps us determine the quality of the scoring functions is testing the agreement with pairwise gold-standard annotations. We place argument-analysis pairs in four bins as per the delta between the scores. The deltas used for the bins were as seen in Table 3. From each of these bins, we created a random sample of 150 arguments and sent them for pairwise annotations just as in the last experiment. The same process was followed for all three scoring functions.

We find that MACE-P and IA tend to show similar precision for higher deltas but for lower bins, more annotators tend to agree with IA. This may be because of the additional nuance captured as a result of modelling annotator reliability on a perinstance basis. The assumption here is that pairs with a higher delta should show a higher agreement with annotations as it should be easier for annotators to identify the better argument-analysis pair in case of a huge difference in quality. In order to test the agreement with this assumption, we tabulate the results of precision against delta for the three scoring functions. We drop the pairs that do not show sufficient agreement between annotators, a threshold that we set at 80% due to the reasons mentioned above. The results we record for the comparison between MACE-P and WA agree with the ones reported by Gretz et al. (2020a). We find that considering the pairs with delta more than 0.25, that precision tends to be better for WA than either of IA or MACE-P.

A.4 Additional Details: Scoring Functions

Overall, we believe that all three of the scoring functions have unique value when it comes to highlighting different aspects of the dataset. Overall we observe a higher proportion of extreme values for both Weighted Average and MACE-P functions. This might be because of the context lost by dropping all annotator scores below a certain threshold making the resulting annotations more homoge-

neous. IA on the other hand, tends to provide a much smoother curve as we attempt to preserve as much contribution from each annotator as possible, thus leading to a more representative annotation set. Furthermore, Weighted Average tends to generate a continuous scoring scale while MACE-P tends to cluster argument-analysis pairs around either of the two extremes, but we observe that IA offers a middle ground approach to get as close to the true value of an argument as possible, while still maintaining a smooth, continuous scoring curve. However, in order to make our dataset interfaceable with others in the field and to not lose out on the value generated by the other two scoring functions, we report all six scores in the final dataset.

| Source | Number | MACE _{Arg} | MACE _{Analysis} | WA _{Arg} | WA _{Analysis} | IA _{Arg} | IA _{Analysis} |
|--------------|----------|---------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| | of Argu- | Average | Average | Aver- | Average | Average | Average |
| | ments | | | age | | | |
| WUDC | 13995 | 0.76 | 0.93 | 0.75 | 0.91 | 0.77 | 0.93 |
| Speech | | | | | | | |
| Expert De- | 7852 | 0.81 | 0.95 | 0.78 | 0.92 | 0.80 | 0.94 |
| bater | | | | | | | |
| Intermediate | 7796 | 0.69 | 0.87 | 0.69 | 0.86 | 0.70 | 0.88 |
| Debater | | | | | | | |
| Novice De- | 5247 | 0.56 | 0.66 | 0.53 | 0.63 | 0.55 | 0.65 |
| bater | | | | | | | |
| Total | 34890 | 0.73 | 0.88 | 0.71 | 0.86 | 0.73 | 0.89 |

Table 7: An overview of the different sources of arguments and corresponding scores. The total number of rows in the dataset = 34980 * 24 scores for relevance = 839,520.

| Argument | Analysis | IA _{Arg} | IA _{Analysis} | Score |
|-----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|------------------------|--------------|
| Monopolies can jus- | Monopolies do not | 1 | 1 | WUDC |
| tify spending money | have competition | | | Speech |
| on R&D which | and hence they are | | | |
| smaller companies | not worried about | | | |
| cannot do, and hence | other companies | | | |
| it is okay to keep | taking over, which | | | |
| a monopoly like | is why they can | | | |
| Facebook running in | justify the risk of | | | |
| the modern day. | spending money on | | | |
| | R&D which might or | | | |
| | might not work. | | | |
| Big companies are | Since markets are | 0.12 | 0.93 | Intermediate |
| bad. | a zero sum game, | | | Debater |
| | billionaires and big | | | |
| | companies are not | | | |
| | benevolent; they | | | |
| | have stepped on | | | |
| | others and exploited | | | |
| | workers, customers | | | |
| | to get there. | | | |
| Prioritizing being | Customers are a vul- | 0.81 | 0.22 | Novice De- |
| a monopoly over | nerable target. | | | bater |
| short term profit | | | | |
| leads to an Increased | | | | |
| power disparity | | | | |
| between companies | | | | |
| and consumers. | | | | |

Table 8: An example of argument-analysis pairs from different sources with IA scores

| Topic | Keywords | |
|-----------------------------|---|--|
| Authoritarian Regimes | Russia, Dictatorship, China | |
| Politics | Elections, Democracy, Vote | |
| Diplomacy | International Relations, Negotiations, Foreign Policy | |
| Economics | Cryptocurrency, Recession, Fiscal deficit | |
| Philosophy | Nihlism, Rationalism, Stoicism | |
| Morality and Ethics | Consent, Principles, Parenting | |
| Criminal Justice | Punishment, Rehab, Juries | |
| Social Justice | Discrimination, Racism, Philanthropy | |
| Collective Action | Feminism, LGBTQ, Racism | |
| Education | Syllabus, Teachers, Privilege | |
| Art and Culture | Heritage, History, Commercialization | |
| Business | Taxes, Facebook, Banks | |
| Developing Nations | Post-colonialism, Pollution, Overpopulation | |
| Environment | Climate Change, Pollution, Philanthropy | |
| Family and Relationships | Parenting, Marriage, Toxic | |
| Media | Social Media, Polarization, Depression | |
| Religion | Atheism, Separation of powers, Divinity | |
| Science and Technology | AI, Patents, Medicines | |
| War and Terrorism | Drones, Decapitation, Death penalty | |
| Sports | Children, Cult of personality, Leagues | |
| Human Experience | Pessimism, Optimism, Death | |
| Policy | Government, Whistleblowers, Immigration | |
| International Organizations | UN, NATO, WTO | |
| Diseases and Medicine | Pandemic, Therapy, Big pharma | |

Table 9: A list of topics and selected sample keywords. The keyword "Pollution" can be seen to be repeated between the topics "Developing Nations" and "Environment", demonstrating evidence for the 15% repetition observed between keywords.

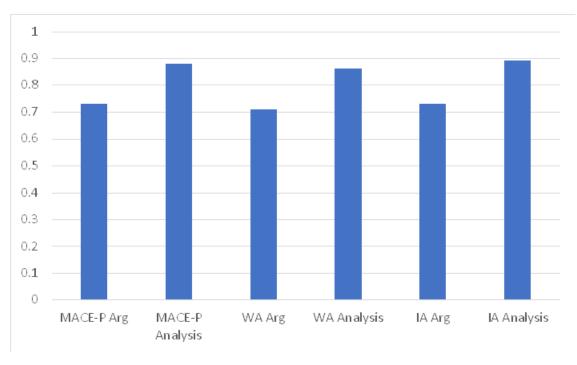


Figure 2: Scoring Functions, showing the importance of including analysis, which has a higher score

ACL 2023 Responsible NLP Checklist

A For every submission:

- ✓ A1. Did you describe the limitations of your work? *Limitations Section* (9)
- A2. Did you discuss any potential risks of your work? Broader Impacts Section (10)
- A3. Do the abstract and introduction summarize the paper's main claims? *Abstract and Introduction (Page 1-2)*
- A4. Have you used AI writing assistants when working on this paper? *Left blank*.

B ☑ Did you use or create scientific artifacts?

Models, scoring functions that were taken from others (IBM,BERT) cited in their respective sections. Dataset used for comparison (Gretz, 2020 cited everywhere it is used)

- ☑ B1. Did you cite the creators of artifacts you used?

 Models, scoring functions that were taken from others (IBM,BERT) cited in their respective sections.

 Dataset used for comparison (Gretz, 2020 cited everywhere it is used)
- ☑ B2. Did you discuss the license or terms for use and / or distribution of any artifacts? Everything used is readily available under MIT Open Source License. The created dataset will also be provided to authors when affiliation, intended usage and requirements are emailed to us at arganalysis35k@gmail.com. Mentioned in footnotes as well. We will make this process easier going forward.
- ☑ B3. Did you discuss if your use of existing artifact(s) was consistent with their intended use, provided that it was specified? For the artifacts you create, do you specify intended use and whether that is compatible with the original access conditions (in particular, derivatives of data accessed for research purposes should not be used outside of research contexts)?
 - Referred to datasets on their respective sites, codes and datasets have the same purpose as they are used here.
- □ B4. Did you discuss the steps taken to check whether the data that was collected / used contains any information that names or uniquely identifies individual people or offensive content, and the steps taken to protect / anonymize it?
 - Not applicable. Not applicable, no sensitive information present, privacy concerns discussed in broader impacts
- ☑ B5. Did you provide documentation of the artifacts, e.g., coverage of domains, languages, and linguistic phenomena, demographic groups represented, etc.?

 Topics, domains, language discussed in introduction. Additionally, diversity addressed in broader impacts
- B6. Did you report relevant statistics like the number of examples, details of train / test / dev splits, etc. for the data that you used / created? Even for commonly-used benchmark datasets, include the number of examples in train / validation / test splits, as these provide necessary context for a reader to understand experimental results. For example, small differences in accuracy on large test sets may be significant, while on small test sets they may not be.
 - Topics, domains, language discussed in introduction. Dataset statistics discussed throughout the paper (tables, graphs) and in appendix. Additionally, diversity addressed in broader impacts

The Responsible NLP Checklist used at ACL 2023 is adopted from NAACL 2022, with the addition of a question on AI writing assistance.

| C | ☑ Dia you run computational experiments: |
|---|---|
| | BiGlove LSTM, BERT (section 7) |
| | ✓ C1. Did you report the number of parameters in the models used, the total computational budget (e.g., GPU hours), and computing infrastructure used? Hyperparameters explained for BiGlove LSTM, BERT, etc. No computationally heavy models. |
| | ✓ C2. Did you discuss the experimental setup, including hyperparameter search and best-found hyperparameter values? Section 7, Experiments |
| | ☑ C3. Did you report descriptive statistics about your results (e.g., error bars around results, summary statistics from sets of experiments), and is it transparent whether you are reporting the max, mean, etc. or just a single run? Results are descriptive in the results section, limitations discussed in broader impacts |
| | ☐ C4. If you used existing packages (e.g., for preprocessing, for normalization, or for evaluation), did you report the implementation, model, and parameter settings used (e.g., NLTK, Spacy, ROUGE, etc.)? Not applicable. Not applicable to our usecase |
| D | ☑ Did you use human annotators (e.g., crowdworkers) or research with human participants? |
| | Throughout the paper (dataset created) |
| | ✓ D1. Did you report the full text of instructions given to participants, including e.g., screenshots, disclaimers of any risks to participants or annotators, etc.? All questions mentioned in dataset creation and scoring functions |
| | ✓ D2. Did you report information about how you recruited (e.g., crowdsourcing platform, students) and paid participants, and discuss if such payment is adequate given the participants' demographic (e.g., country of residence)? Yes, discussed in all footnotes in dataset creation and scoring functions |
| 1 | D3. Did you discuss whether and how consent was obtained from people whose data you're using/curating? For example, if you collected data via crowdsourcing, did your instructions to crowdworkers explain how the data would be used? Not applicable. Not applicable to our case, no sensitive data collected, participants were told about the study and how their answers would be used and that they would be anonymous. Discussed in ethical impacts. |
| I | ☐ D4. Was the data collection protocol approved (or determined exempt) by an ethics review board? <i>Not applicable. Not applicable to our use case</i> |
| | |

that is the source of the data?

Dicussed diversity in introduction and broader implications